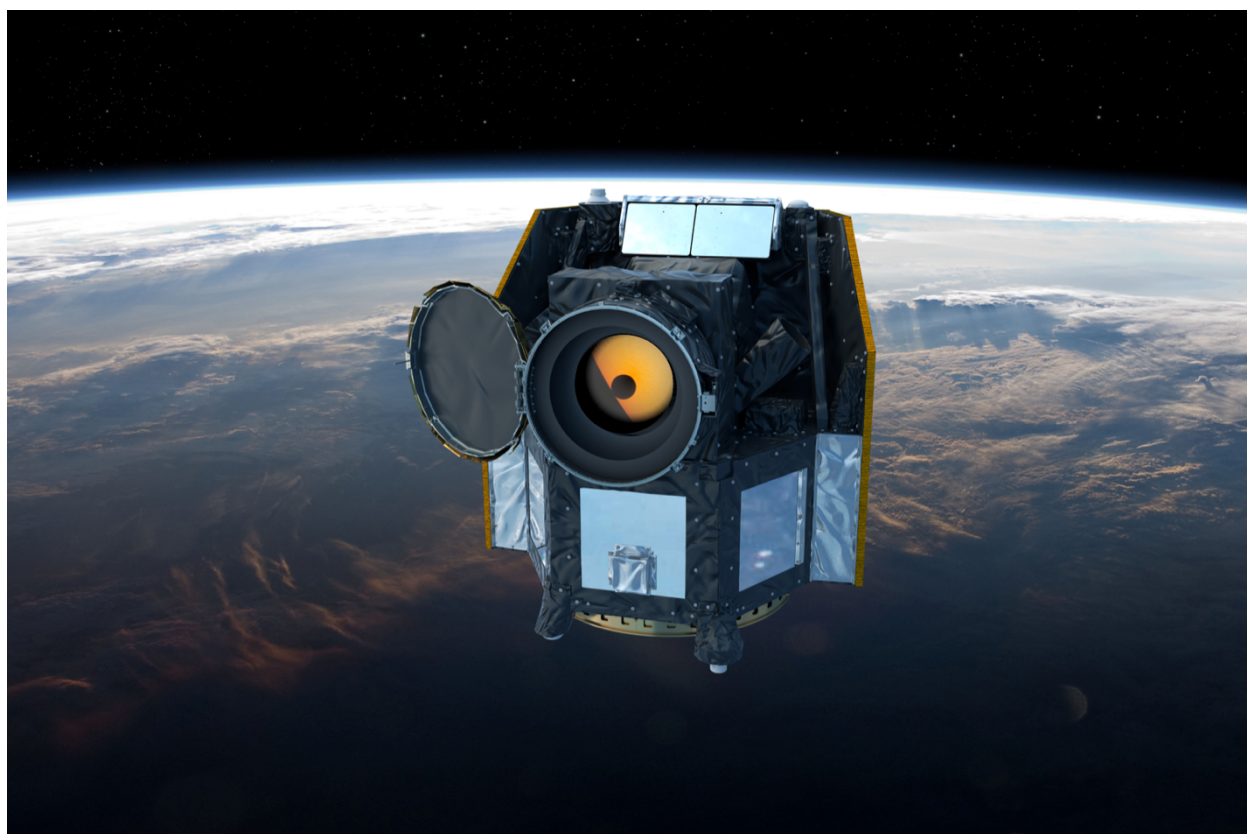




# CHEOPS Observers Manual



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#### Cover image credits

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## Key Documentation and weblinks

AD1	<p>Announcement of Opportunity for Observing Time in the CHEOPS Guest Observers Programme, CHEOPS-EST-SCI-TN-004_i1.0, also known as the AO Policies and Procedures document.</p> <p>Available from the webpage for AO-1:</p> <p><a href="https://cosmos.esa.int/cheops-guest-observers-programme/ao-1">https://cosmos.esa.int/cheops-guest-observers-programme/ao-1</a></p>
	<p>Link to the CHEOPS Guest Observers Programme website:</p> <p><a href="https://cosmos.esa.int/web/cheops-guest-observers-programme">https://cosmos.esa.int/web/cheops-guest-observers-programme</a></p>
	<p>Link to the registration page for the Guest Observers Programme:</p> <p><a href="https://www.cosmos.esa.int/web/cheops-guest-observers-programme/register">https://www.cosmos.esa.int/web/cheops-guest-observers-programme/register</a></p> <p>Registration is required to access the Phase 1 Proposal Handling Tool, to download the scheduling feasibility checker tool and to download simulated CHEOPS data.</p>

# Acronyms

ADU	Analog-to-Digital Unit
AO	Announcement of Opportunity
AOCS	Attitude and Orbital Control Systems
BEE	Back-End Electronics
BJD <sub>TT</sub>	Barycentric Julian Date (Terrestrial Time)
CHEOPS	CHaracterising ExOPlanet Satellite
CCD	Charge Coupled Device
DPDD	Data Product Definition Document
DPU	Data Processing Unit
DR2	Data Release 2 (referring to GAIA)
DRP	Data Reduction Pipeline
ETC	Exposure Time Calculator
FPM	Focal Plane Module
GO	Guest Observers
GTO	Guaranteed Time Observing/Observers
LEO	Low Earth Orbit
LOS	Line Of Sight
M&C	Monitoring and Characterisation
MJD	Modified Julian Date
MOC	Mission Operations Centre
MTL	Mission Timeline
OBT	On-Board Time
OR	Observation Request
OTA	Optical Telescope Assembly
PI	Principal Investigator
PHT1	Proposal Handling Tool for Phase 1
PHT2	Proposal Handling Tool for Phase 2
ppm	Parts per million
PSF	Point Spread Function
PSO	Project Science Office
px	Pixel(s)
QE	Quantum Efficiency
RMS	Root Mean Square
RON	Read-Out Noise
RTS	Random Telegraphic Signal
SAA	South-Atlantic Anomaly
SED	Spectral Energy Distribution
SEM	Sensor Electronics Module
SFC	Scheduling Feasibility Checker
SNR	Signal-to-Noise Ratio
SOC	Science Operations Centre
SW	Software
TAC	Time Allocation Committee
TM/TC	Telemetry/Telecommands
UTC	Universel Temps Coordonné (coordinated universal time)



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# Foreword

The CHEOPS Observers Manual aims to provide members of the community with an easy-to-grasp documentation about CHEOPS observations. Section 1 briefly describes the CHEOPS mission and walks potential users through the different steps of preparing an observation proposal. Section 2 provides more information about the CHEOPS instrument itself and its expected performances (as of Summer 2018). Section 3 describes CHEOPS data and how they are processed.

This issue of the document (i1.0 – 19<sup>th</sup> March 2019) is applicable to the first Announcement of Opportunity for Observing Time in the ESA CHEOPS Guest Observers' Programme. The next issue is foreseen in July 2019, to support observers in their preparation for Phase II proposal submission.

# 1 Observing with CHEOPS

## 1.1 What is CHEOPS and how does it differ from previous ESA missions?

The CHaracterising ExOPlanets Satellite (CHEOPS) is the first mission dedicated to the search for exoplanetary transits through high precision photometry of bright stars already known to host planets. It will provide the unique capability of determining accurate radii for a subset of those planets for which the mass has already been measured from ground-based spectroscopic surveys. It will also provide precise radii for new exoplanets discovered by the next generation of ground- or space-based transits surveys (Neptune-size and smaller). By unveiling transiting exoplanets with high potential for in-depth characterisation, CHEOPS will also provide prime targets for future instruments suited to the spectroscopic characterisation of exoplanetary atmospheres.

CHEOPS is an S- or small-class mission, and a partnership between the European Space Agency's Science Programme and the Swiss Space Office. The CHEOPS mission consortium is led by the University of Bern, with important contributions from Industry and Institutes from Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom. The responsibilities within the mission are quite different from a traditional medium- or large-class ESA missions. Specifically, in CHEOPS ESA is the mission architect, also responsible for procurement of the spacecraft and for the Guest Observers Programme; the Consortium is responsible for providing the science payload, for mission and science operations, for the science team and for performance monitoring and evaluation.

The CHEOPS payload consists of a single instrument – a space telescope with an effective diameter of 30 cm, which feeds a single CCD focal plane detector covering 330–1100 nm with a field of view of 0.32 deg<sup>2</sup>. The payload design and operation have been optimised to achieve ultra-high photometric stability, achieving a photometric precision of 20 parts per million (ppm) on observations of a G5 dwarf star in 6 hours, and 85 ppm observations of a K5 type dwarf star in 3 hours. In both cases the ultra-high stability shall be maintained over a minimum period of 48 hours. The point spread function (PSF) of the payload is approximately 12" (90% encircled energy radius). These characteristics, together with the high-cadence (better than one-minute sampling), offer the capability to measure high-precision, high-cadence, broad-band light curves covering the visible-near infrared waveband.

The nominal duration of the science operations phase is 3.5 years, with a goal of 5 years. Twenty percent (20%) of the science time on CHEOPS will be made available to the astronomical community through a Guest Observers Programme that is open to the science community as a whole.

Documentation relevant to the first Announcement of Opportunity for the CHEOPS Guest Observers Programme, which covers the first year of science operations (AO-1), together with special considerations for the call, can be found on the CHEOPS Guest Observers Programme webpages:

 <https://cosmos.esa.int/web/cheops-guest-observers-programme/ao-1>

In contrast with Medium- and Large-class missions, which are operated by ESA from the European Space Operations Centre (ESOC, Germany), CHEOPS is operated by its mission consortium: communications with the satellite are sent and received at the Mission Operations Centre (MOC) located in Torrejón, near Madrid (Spain). The telemetry packets (Level-0 data) are transmitted to the Science Operations Centre (SOC) at the astronomical observatory of Université de Genève, Switzerland. There, the data, received as telemetry packets, are pre-processed (Level-0.5 data), reduced into images (Level-1 data) and light curves (Level-2 data) and archived<sup>1</sup>. The SOC also performs the mission planning and scheduling of all CHEOPS observations. The scheduling instructions are transmitted as telecommands to the MOC, from where they are uplinked to the satellite. The scientific exploitation of the satellite is shared between the mission consortium and ESA, for the Guaranteed Time Observation and Guest Observation Programmes, respectively (see §1.2.2). The Project Science Office (PSO) coordinates these aspects by following-up CHEOPS observations, performing instrument performance monitoring, issuing and maintaining the relevant tools and documentations to observe with CHEOPS.

## 1.2 Structure of CHEOPS observations

### 1.2.1 Some definitions

CHEOPS conducts scientific observations from its **orbit** around the Earth. These observations are structured with **programmes**, **observation requests**, and **visits** (see Figure 2). Due to orbital constraints, these observations can often be **interrupted**, leading to the notion of **observing efficiency**. One of the big challenges of the mission is to perform many **time-critical observations** in these conditions. The bold-face terms above will be used throughout this manual and should be understood to facilitate further reading. They are defined below.

**Orbit**—CHEOPS revolves around the Earth in Sun-synchronous, low-Earth orbit (700 km altitude). The spacecraft completes one orbit around the Earth in 100 min. This duration is used as the time unit for visits (see below). The science time of an orbit is usually shorter than the orbit duration due to interruptions by the South Atlantic Anomaly (SAA; 0% to 20% of an orbit) or Earth occultations.

**Interruptions**— It can be the case that fractions of a CHEOPS orbit cannot be used for science observation. This can happen when the target is hidden by the Earth during an Earth occultation

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<sup>1</sup> See section 3 for further details on the CHEOPS data structures and level data products.

(which happens for certain pointing directions at certain times of year), or barely visible (with substantially degraded photometric precision) due to stray light from the illuminated Earth limb or particle hits during passages through the South Atlantic anomaly. Data is normally not downloaded during interruptions (pending studies that will be undertaken during in-orbit commissioning). More details on interruptions are provided in §2.1.2.

**Visit**—A visit is a sequence of successive CHEOPS orbits devoted to observing a given target. Visits are the building blocks of CHEOPS observations. See an example in Figure 1.

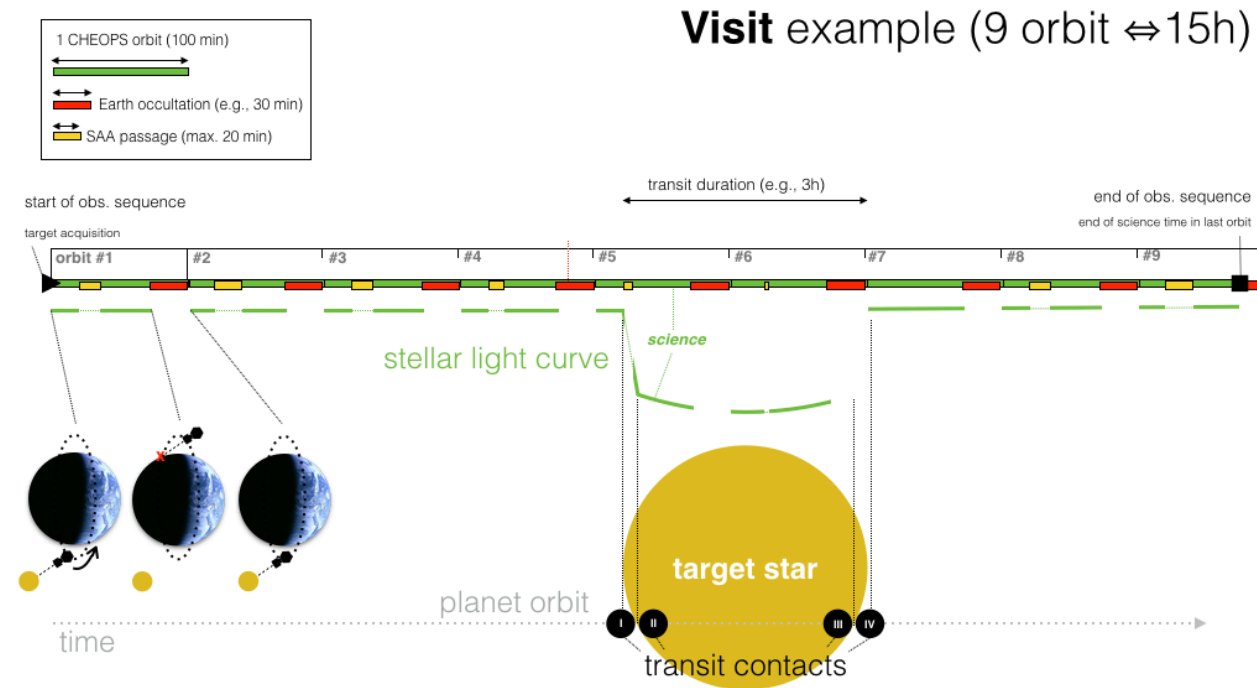


Figure 1: Example of a CHEOPS visit.

**Observing efficiency**—The observing efficiency is the ratio between the amount of science observing time available during a visit (excluding the interruptions) and the total amount of time in a visit (including interruptions).

**Observation Request (OR)**—A set of one or more identical visits aiming at a given target. As an example, achieving a given signal-to-noise ratio on an exoplanet transit depth by co-adding several transits can be typically dealt with within a single OR.

**Time-critical Observation Request**—An OR that must be timed to observe a transient or periodic astronomical event. CHEOPS has been designed to observe predominantly planetary transits, which are periodic. Transit ephemerides must be provided within the OR for such observations.

**Programme**—A (science) programme is an ensemble of Observation Requests. It has a title, a Principal Investigator and an identifying number. Note that the Guaranteed Time Observation Programme and the Guest Observers' Programme consist of a set of science programmes.

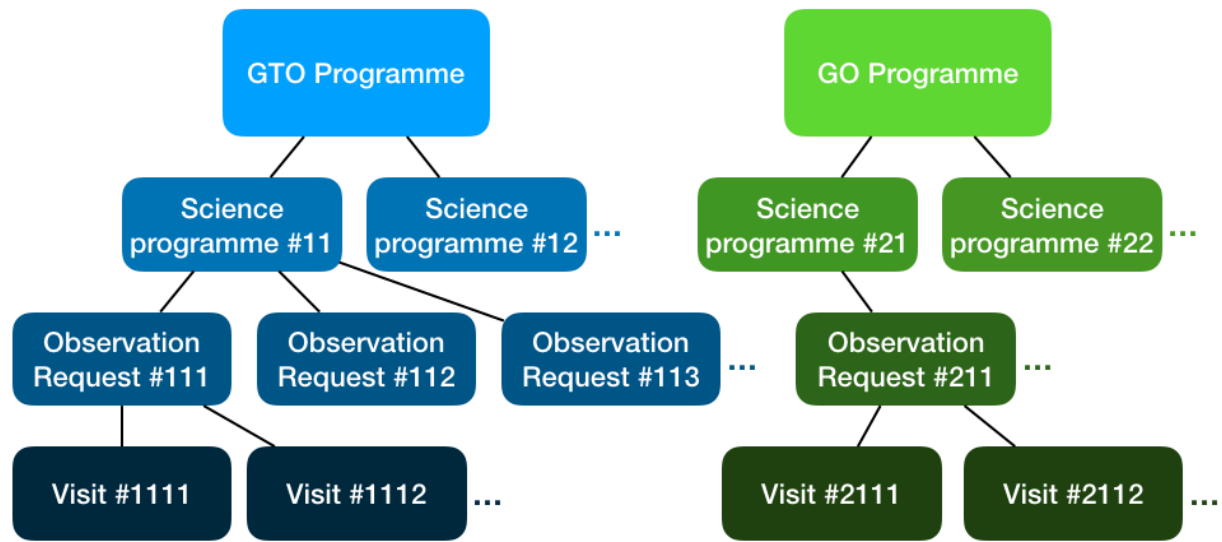


Figure 2: Sketch of the organisational structure of observing programmes on CHEOPS.

### 1.2.2 What are the CHEOPS science programmes and how is time shared with the community?

Science observing time on CHEOPS is split between a Guaranteed Time Observation (GTO) Programme, run by the CHEOPS Mission Consortium, and a Guest Observers (GO) Programme, run by ESA.

Up to ten percent (10%) of the total time on the mission is top-sliced for engineering (5% covering e.g. instrument and platform maintenance, safe mode, etc.) and for characterisation and monitoring activities (see §2.2.3.2).

The CHEOPS Mission Consortium (representing ~30 institutions spread over 11 ESA member countries), has built the CHEOPS instrument and operates the satellite. It has set up a Science Team, which includes five ESA-appointed members, to establish the GTO Programme that will account for eighty percent (80%) of the science time of the mission.

The GTO Programme addresses five exoplanet scientific themes plus ancillary science. The themes are:

- finding transits of known exoplanets;
- improving radii of known transiting exoplanets;
- exploring systems in search for new exoplanets;
- characterising exoplanet atmospheres;
- uncovering new exoplanetary features.

Each scientific theme is composed of a set of focused science programmes. A summary of the GTO programme can be found at this link <https://cosmos.esa.int/web/cheops-guest-observers-programme/CHEOPS-Science-Team-ObservingProgramme>). This set of programmes and their associated targets are expected to evolve during the mission.

Targets on the GTO list are reserved and may not be observed by the Guest Observers' Programme. The GTO target list will be frozen shortly before the call for proposals for the Guest Observers' Programme. It is foreseen, however, that the list will be updated on a regular basis over the course of the mission. Details of the update procedure, together with the proprietary time for CHEOPS data taken are given in the document entitled *Announcement of Opportunity for Observing Time in the CHEOPS Guest Observers Programme* (hereafter, the AO document).

Twenty percent (20%) of the available science observing time is dedicated to the Guest Observers' Programme, also known as the Open Time Programme. Scientists regardless of affiliation can submit proposals to observe with CHEOPS in response to annual Calls, or Announcements of Opportunity (AOs). The Guest Observers' Programme and the associated calls is run by ESA. As such all proposals must be submitted to ESA via a two-step process, and according to the guidelines and policies detailed in the AO document.

In Phase I, observers are requested to provide inputs that enable both a scientific and technical evaluation of the proposed observations to be made.

Following evaluation by an independent, ESA-appointed Time Allocation Committee, Principal Investigators of successful proposals will be requested to provide inputs to Phase II, which include detailed information relevant to scheduling, planning and execution of the observations.

A schematic providing an overview of the first AO is shown in Figure 3.



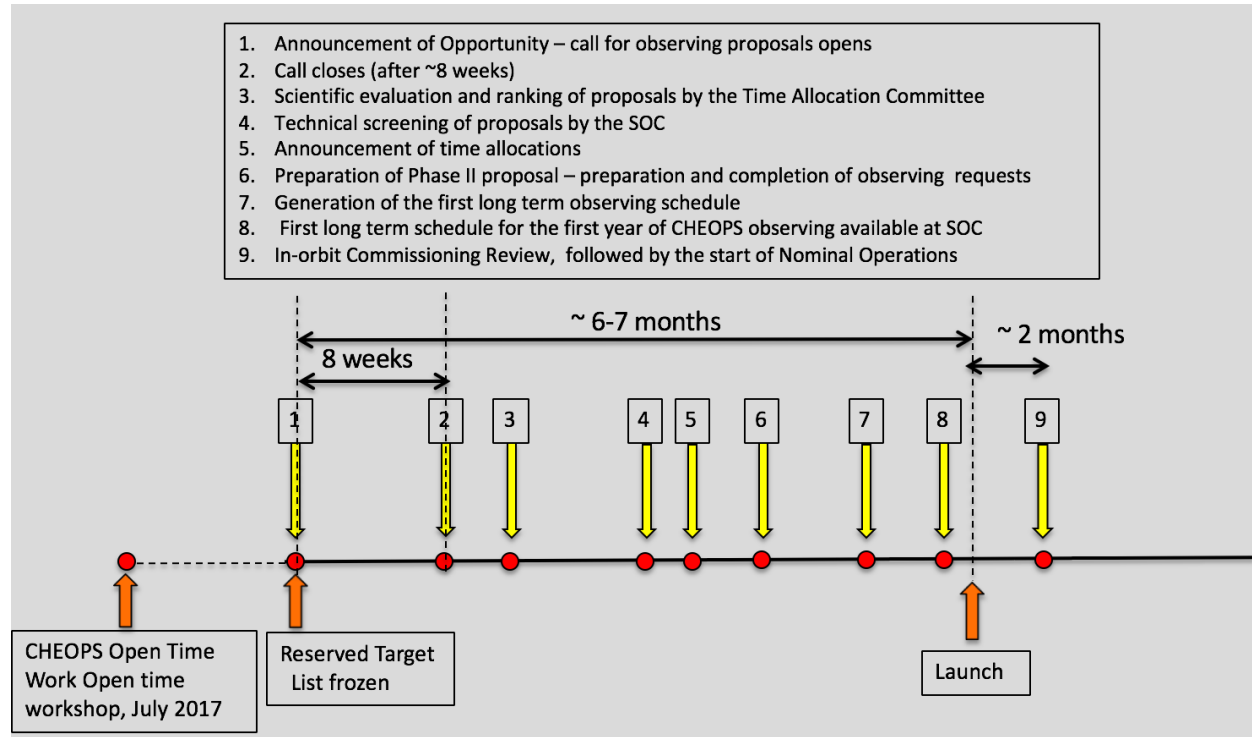


Figure 3: A schematic of the timeline and sequence of events of the first AO. Future details can be found in AD1.

Users should note that a valid Cosmos ID will be needed to submit a proposal as well as to access at least one of the tools needed to prepare proposals – no ID/permission, no submission. Cosmos is the portal for users of ESA’s science missions and many users of ESA missions will already have such credentials: please request an ID and register to use the CHEOPS Guest Observers Webpages as soon as you can, not just before the closing date of the call. It is important to note that the same user credentials will be used to generate the account details needed to complete Phase II inputs and to access the CHEOPS archives.

**Users need a valid Cosmos ID to submit a proposal. A Cosmos account and the corresponding ID can be queried at the following url:**

<https://www.cosmos.esa.int/web/cheops-guest-observers-programme/register>

### 1.3 Preparing and submitting a Phase I observation proposal

After having decided that the top-level capabilities of CHEOPS match your needs, it is time to determine whether CHEOPS really is useful to you – specifically to confirm that your targets are not already reserved by the GTO Programme, that they are visible to CHEOPS and to determine how long it will take to achieve the sensitivity that you require to address your scientific goals.

### 1.3.1 Check the reserved target list

The CHEOPS Mission Consortium has set a list of targets reserved for the GTO programme. These targets may not be observed as part of the GO programmes. It is therefore important that users check in advance that their targets are not already in this list. The Reserved Target List can be queried at the following url:

 <https://cheops.unige.ch/pht2/search-reserved-targets>

The target name can be resolved with SIMBAD or the target coordinates can be provided directly to query the list.

Note that evidence that the target list checker has been used to verify that a target is not reserved will need to be submitted as part of the Phase I proposal submission process – see AD1 for further details.

### 1.3.2 Observation feasibility

The first thing to check is whether your target is visible for CHEOPS. From its near-polar, Sun-synchronous orbit, CHEOPS can access a large fraction of the sky and has the best visibility in the ecliptic plane. It has, however, a number of limiting pointing constraints, which are detailed and illustrated in §2.1.2. The visibility decreases towards the ecliptic poles. Due to stringent Sun-avoidance exclusion angles, two approximatively circular regions of  $\sim 60^\circ$  radius from both ecliptic poles are completely excluded. It is therefore possible to easily rule out the possibility of observations of targets that are close from the ecliptic poles.

#### 1.3.2.1 Visibility cumulated over a year

The map of the sky visibility, cumulated over a year, is shown in Figure 4 can be used to make a first assessment of whether your target is visible with CHEOPS.

**Note about the Kepler field**—The Kepler field lies at the limit of the CHEOPS visibility zone. It should generally be understood that Kepler targets are mostly out of reach of CHEOPS. There are exceptions, though, towards the extreme south of the field (see Figure 5 for a close-up).

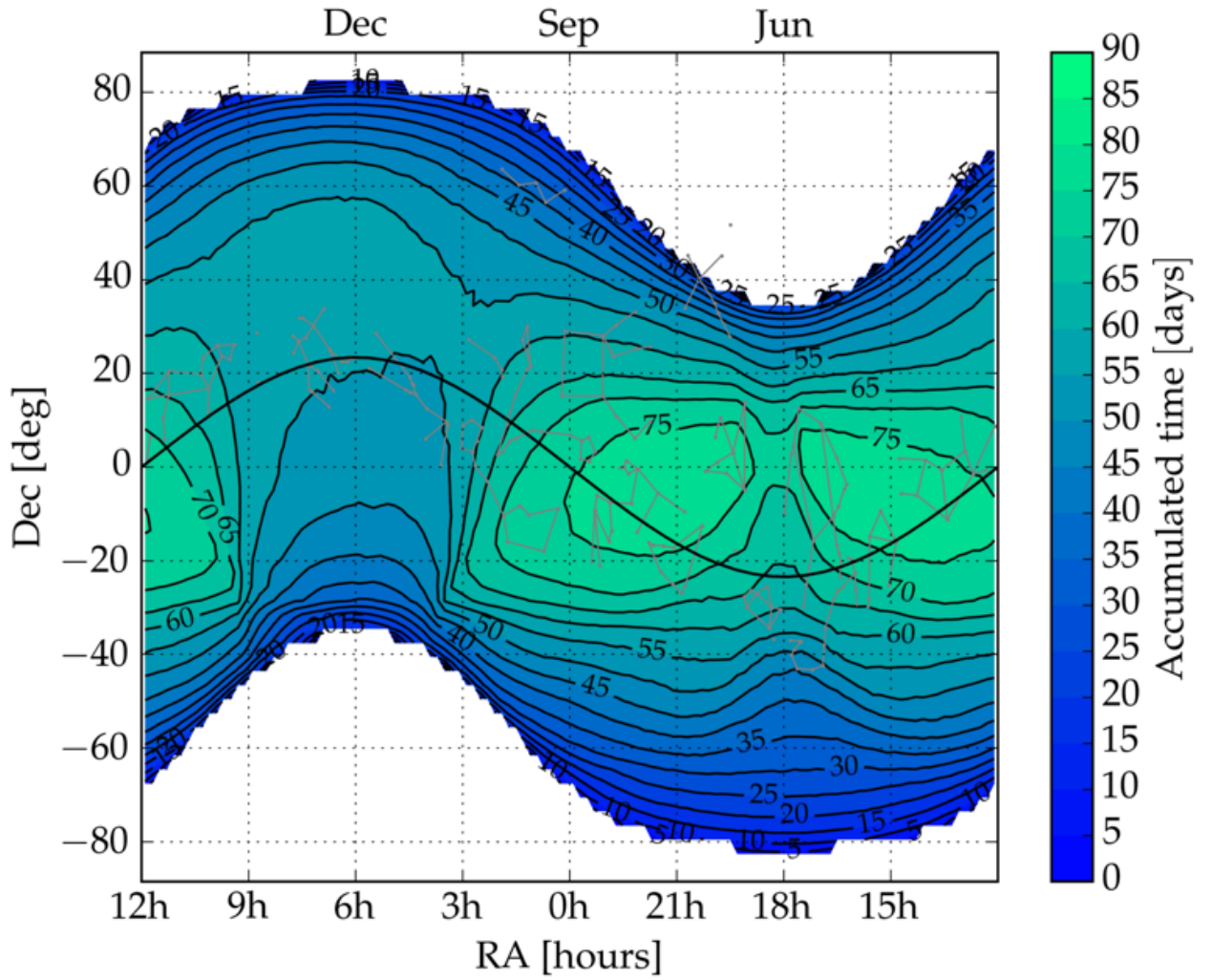


Figure 4: Annual sky visibility map. Colour code shows the total number of days a given position in the sky can be observed during a year, allowing for 50% orbital interruptions. White regions are excluded. The black line represents the ecliptic plane. Because of its low-Earth orbit, most CHEOPS observations will be interrupted. The fraction of the visible sky available with low interruptions ( $\leq 20\%$ ) is smaller than what is represented here. See Figure 12.

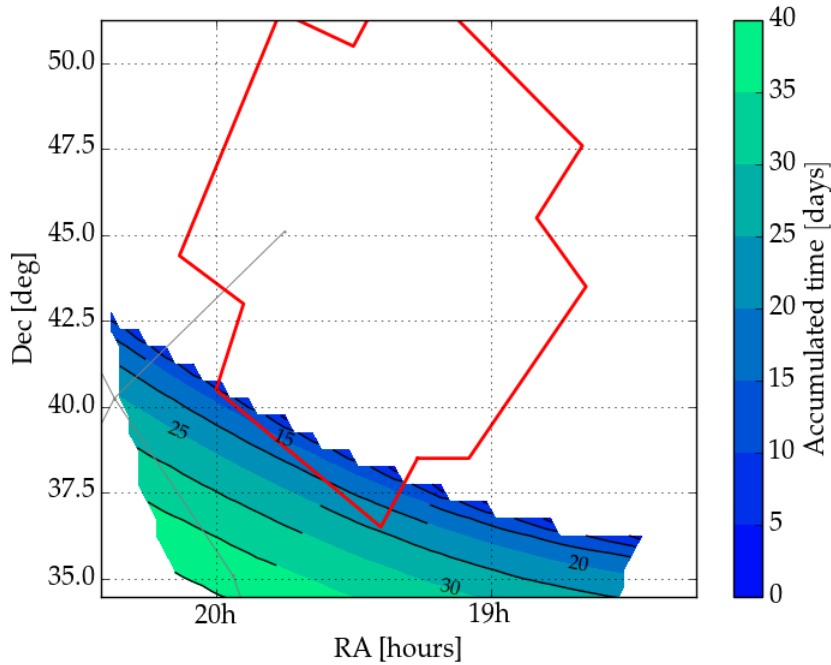


Figure 5: Detailed visibility of the Kepler field. The Kepler field limits are given by the red line. Most of the Kepler field cannot be observed, however a small portion in the extreme south is visible with CHEOPS for a limited time each year.

A more careful assessment of a target visibility can be achieved using the detailed sky visibility maps available at from the webpage for AO-1 (see section on Useful Data/Information).

Stray light (from Earth) dominates the photometric precision noise budget for magnitudes  $V \approx 11$  and fainter (see §2.2.1 and Figure 20). Because the stray light contamination depends on where the telescope is pointing and where the telescope is on its orbit, the amount of time during which a faint target can be observed with a given photometric precision can be reduced. In other words, there are interruptions due to stray light, during which the target remains visible, but the photometric precision can be expected to decrease. For this reason, the detailed visibility maps cumulated over a year are provided (i) for stars brighter than  $V=9$  and (ii) for stars with  $9 < V \leq 12$ . Interruptions can also be caused by Earth occultations and SAA crossing, so that only a part of the orbit duration can be used for observations. The maps are thus also calculated assuming different fractions of time available during an orbit.

These maps can only provide best-case scenarios for targets fainter than  $V=12$ , which is the nominal faint magnitude limit of CHEOPS. Users proposing fainter targets may do so at their own risks: in these cases, observations may be carried out under conditions of stray light contamination that could be detrimental to the scientific goal of the observations. Proposals with such faint objects will be dealt with at the discretion of the TAC.

### 1.3.2.2 Instantaneous visibility

Because the orbit of CHEOPS precesses in one year, the telescope sees different patches of the sky along the year. The instantaneous visibility of CHEOPS is approximately similar to that of a ground-based telescope located close to the equator at the same date. Monthly visibility maps (together with the data used to generate them) can be found by following the above link on the Guest Observers Webpage and are also gathered in Figure 6.

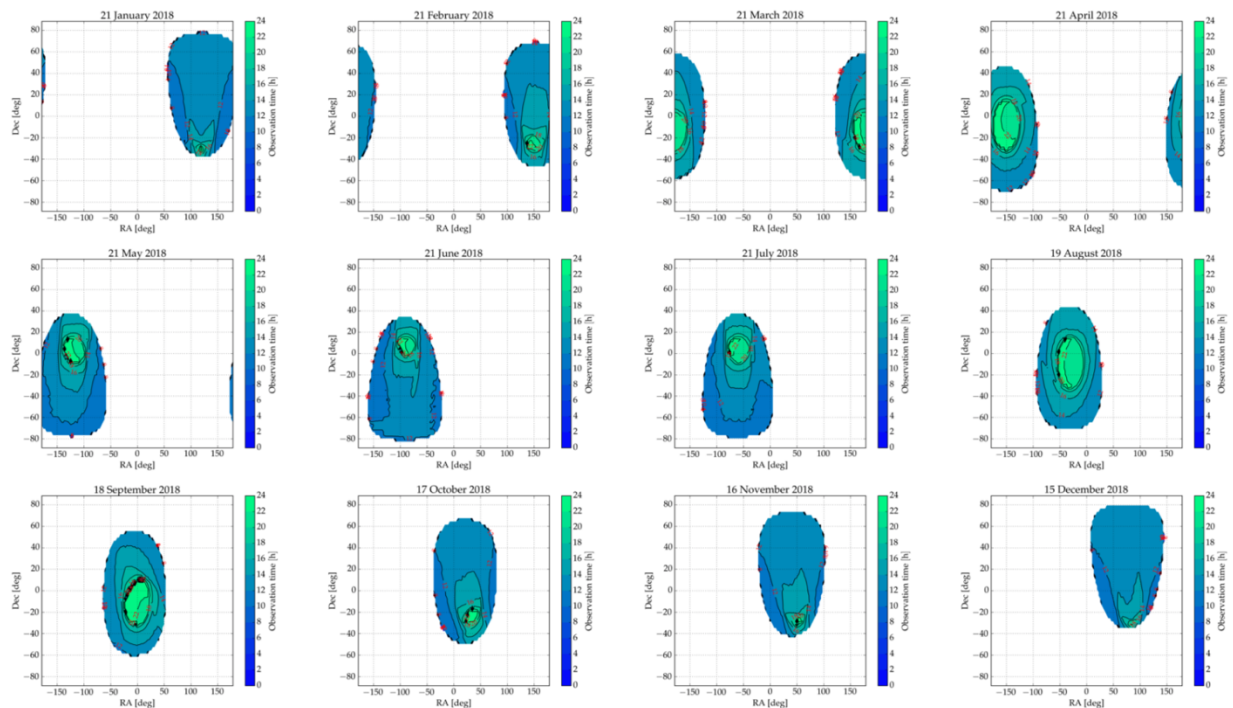


Figure 6: Instantaneous (monthly) visibility maps for CHEOPS.

### 1.3.2.3 Advanced visibility calculation for my target and observation constraints

Photometric precision or timing precision, or a combination of both, could be critical to some science programmes. For these programmes, it is important to know in advance if, given the visibility constraints and orbit interruptions, the required precision(s) can be achieved. The best assessment of the visibility can be obtained with the Scheduling Feasibility Checker tool, available with its manual at

<https://www.cosmos.esa.int/web/cheops-guest-observers-programme/ao-1>

(see section Tools and Supporting Manuals)

**Use of the Scheduling Feasibility Checker tool is mandatory for time-critical Phase 1 proposals or for Phase 1 proposals requesting an observing efficiency.**

### 1.3.3 How much CHEOPS time do I need?

After checking the target visibility, the next step is to determine how much time shall be requested to achieve the required photometric precision. The photometric precision achievable in a given time interval can be calculated using the **Exposure Time Calculator (ETC)**. The link to the ETC together with its manual can be found at:

➡ <https://cheops.unige.ch/pht2/exposure-time-calculator>

**Use of the Exposure Time Calculator is mandatory for all Phase 1 proposals. A single pdf file generated with the ETC “export results” functionality for each target in the proposal will need to be provided at Phase I submission.**

Please keep in mind that only a fraction of this time interval will be spent integrating the target light due to interruptions. The Exposure Time Calculator allows the users to specify a given observing efficiency – or estimate it depending on the target coordinates<sup>2</sup>.

The Exposure Time Calculator takes as input the following parameters,

- star spectral type;
- star V magnitude;
- duration of the observation;
- target coordinates (right ascension, declination)

The main output is the expected level of noise on the photometric measurement. The actual exposure time of the observations is pre-set as a function of the stellar magnitude and spectral type. This is optimised to (i) make the best use of the dynamic range of the detector while (ii) avoiding saturation. Please note that each Observation Request accepts **only one exposure time setting**, meaning that all exposures of all visits in an Observation Request will be identical.

For each target, the total time to request is the duration of the visit, possibly multiplied by the number of visits (with identical settings) in case several observation epochs are required. If visits with different settings (e.g. a different visit duration) are required in the proposal, then the total time requested will be the addition of all visits. The total time request for the proposal will be the sum of the total time requested for each target.

CHEOPS is designed to achieve excellent *relative* photometric precision (especially important for exoplanet transits). Therefore, observers are generally advised to reserve enough time to acquire a proper baseline before or after (or both) the transient event they are interested in.

**The duration of a visit must be comprised between 1 CHEOPS orbit (100 min) and 100 CHEOPS orbits (approximately 7 days).**

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<sup>2</sup> The estimation of the target visibility in the ETC is rough and does not replace the use of the Scheduling Feasibility Checker. The Scheduling Feasibility Checker is specially recommended for cases where the visibility could be an issue (for example, the Kepler field).

Note, however, that CHEOPS is designed to maintain its photometric performances for periods of time up to 48 hours (including interruptions). While there are no obvious reasons for the photometric performance to suddenly degrade after 48 hours, users must be aware that the photometric precision of CHEOPS is not warranted beyond that time scale.

### 1.3.4 Contents of a Phase I observing proposal

A Phase I CHEOPS observing proposal is made up of three steps:

- Scientific justification (max. 3.5 pages, max. file size 50 MB): to include the science goals together with details of why CHEOPS should be used, and how the proposed CHEOPS observations will advance the state of knowledge of the field of the proposal (max 2 pages); plans for data processing/analysis (max. 1 page); management and outreach plan (max. 1/2 page).
- Technical justification and implementation (max. 1 page, plus table, max. file size 50 MB): to include details of observing strategy, evaluation/justification of observing time requested, any special requirements for the programme, table of targets (including name, coordinates (J2000));
- Input to the on-line proposal submission tool include
  - o PI/additional person contact details;
  - o proposal title and abstract;
  - o target coordinates;
  - o observation time requests for individual targets;
  - o PDFs of the scientific justification;
  - o technical justification and implementation need to be uploaded to the on-line tool, together with
  - o a PDF of all screen shots of checks of the reserved target list checker for each target in the proposal and
  - o a single PDF containing outputs from the Exposure Time Calculator for each target in the proposal.

All proposal material shall be written in English and, where relevant, in font no smaller than 10 pt with a 1.5 line spacing and A4 page format. A more detailed description of individual elements of a Phase I observing proposal, together with a description of the proposal submission and selection procedures can be found in sections 4, 5 and 6 of AD1.

The Phase I Proposal Submission Tool is available at:

 <https://cosmos.esa.int/web/cheops-guest-observers-programme/pht1>

and is accessed via user credentials which need to be requested from ESA. It will be possible to update all inputs to the proposal submission tool until the AO deadline.

**All Phase I proposals will need to be completed and submitted on-line by the AO deadline specified in the AO document.**



## 1.4 Preparing a Phase II observation proposal

The Principal Investigators of proposals that have been awarded time will be requested to follow the second phase of the proposal preparation. The activity will start shortly after the announcement of successful Phase I observation proposals is made and will be open for a period of **3 weeks**. The purpose of Phase II is to provide the detailed and accurate information required to schedule observations, in the form of Observation Requests (ORs). Target information (including coordinates) together with the time awarded by the TAC for each target will be automatically carried over to the **Proposal Handling Tool for Phase II (PHT2)** and will not be modifiable by the user. Access to the tool is provided by the Project Science Office at the following url,

➡ <https://cheops.unige.ch/pht2>

It will require user credentials, which will be provided to the Principal Investigators of successful Phase I proposals shortly after the announcement of the award of CHEOPS observing time has been made.

Observation Requests submitted for Phase II will be consolidated by the Project Science Office. The ORs from the Guest Observers' Programme together with those from the GTO programme will be used as input to an automated observation scheduling tool which will generate a long-term observing schedule for the first year of science operations.

**The execution of a Guest Observer's programme accepted at Phase I is pending timely Phase II submission and is on the assumption that there are no issues with the submitted ORs. It is very important to note that even Guest Observers' programmes that have passed through Phase II validation may end up not being executed if they have too strong timing constraints, if their target locations are challenging, if their duration is especially long or if they include any combination of these criteria. Finally, scheduling of a given OR may be made difficult due to competition from ORs in other programmes with similar constraints.**

### 1.4.1 Contents of a Phase II observation proposal

CHEOPS observation programmes are built up from individual Observation Requests (ORs). One OR contain one or more identical visits (same target, same duration, etc.). Important information requested at Phase II includes:

- Target coordinates, proper motions,  $V$  magnitude, effective temperature (for stars), parallax and GAIA DR2 ID.
- Time-critical constraints, i.e. for planetary transits, transit ephemerides (transit mid-time epoch, revolution period and a start phase slack), earliest start and latest end dates.
- Detector settings (such as exposure time).

**Users are responsible for the accuracy of the parameters they enter in Phase II.**



## 1.4.2 Scheduling observation requests

There are two types of nominal science Observation Requests: **Time-critical** ORs are designed for observing transient events at specific epochs or periodic events, typically planetary transits. **Non-time-critical** ORs are appropriate for other types of targets, i.e. those that do not require a precise timing to observe an event at a particular time.

### 1.4.2.1 Observing efficiency

Interruptions of orbital nature create gaps in CHEOPS photometric time series. These interruptions can be predicted (to some extent), which means that in theory, one could minimise the effect of interruptions by tailoring the observation schedule. The automated Mission Planning Scheduler will perform this optimisation, but it should be clear that ***there will be interruptions in most CHEOPS observations***. The fraction of science time in the visits of an Observation Request is called the **observing efficiency**. A requested observing efficiency of 60% means that at least 60% of the orbit (see limitation below) will be collecting photons from the CHEOPS target and that the observations could bear as much as 40% interruptions.

The observing efficiency of a given target is mainly driven by its position on the sky and the spacecraft orbit. For example, winter targets with high declinations have intrinsically lower observing efficiencies than summer targets around the ecliptic. To a second order, the observing efficiency is also affected by the date of the observation. For example, observations taken at a time when the target is close to the anti-Sun position will have higher observing efficiencies than if it is observed while it sits at the edge of the seasonal visibility window. This timing aspect is optimised by the schedule solver algorithm to find observation dates that maximise the overall observing efficiency.

**The general recommendation is to request an observing efficiency of 50% as a default value (average efficiency for winter targets is only around 55%).**

If a science case requires a higher efficiency, users must use the **Scheduling Feasibility Checker** to assess its impact on the schedulability of their observations (see §1.3.2.3). Alternatively, users may also decide to setup their observations with a modest global observing efficiency but with a higher local efficiency at specific phases of a transit observation, typically around transit egresses. This level of details is only relevant when preparing the Phase 2 observation requests.

In any case, please keep in mind that requesting high observing efficiencies or local critical phase ranges does reduce, sometimes drastically, the schedulability of an observation.

Observers may also request some level of flexibility on the start time of their observations. Such flexibility allows the schedule solver algorithm to shift visits during the optimisation process to improve the filling factors of the overall schedule and therefore to schedule more observations. Such a flexibility comes at a prize though: for visits requesting scheduling flexibility, especially those shorter than 3 orbits, the effective observing efficiency may end up to be lower than the requested value, sometimes by up to ~15%. This may happen under special circumstances,

typically when the schedule solver algorithm adjusts the visit start time to optimise the overall schedule, which may result in a visit being shifted toward the SAA, Earth occultations or straylight regions.

**Due to the competition of other time-critical programmes, users should be extremely cautious about requesting very high observing efficiencies, as this could cause a programme to become non-schedulable. Don't be greedy!**

#### 1.4.2.2 Setting time constraints

Time constraints such as the earliest start and latest end dates at which an observation should be executed can be provided at the level of Observation Requests, not on visits. If several visits on the same target have to be scheduled at different epochs, then several ORs must be created with their own time boundaries. These constraints must be provided as Barycentric Julian Dates, Terrestrial Time ( $\text{BJD}_{\text{TT}}$ ).

#### 1.4.2.3 Setting the ephemeris of a periodic event

Any periodic event can be located in time providing a reference date or time and the period are known. A convenient parameter used to measure the progress of a periodic event is the phase, which is the time divided by the event period. By definition, the reference time (e.g. the mid-transit time) is at phase 0 or 1. Before the transit, the phase is considered to increase towards 1 (mid-transit time). After the transit, the phase is counted from 0 (mid-transit time) onward. For example, a typical phase range encapsulating a transit would be  $[0.98, 0.02]$ . If the exoplanet has a period of 2 days, this phase range indicates “from 57.6 min before mid-transit time to 57.6 min after mid-transit”.

To observe a planetary transit, it is of course not necessary to observe the whole orbit but just the interesting bit, i.e. the transit itself and an out-of-transit baseline, before and after the transit, for reference (CHEOPS is designed to achieve precise *relative* photometry!). Users can define when to start (with a margin) using the so-called start phase slack: a range of two phases between which the visit should start. In case of transit observations, users will generally want to start the visit before the transit mid-time, hence an example of a typical start phase range would be  $[0.98, 0.99]$ . The bigger the slack, the easier the visit will be to schedule. Because of orbital interruptions, gaps in the light curve could mean that CHEOPS will miss a critical portion of the transit, e.g. its ingress. To prevent this, users are allowed to set an additional critical phase range, during which they could define a specific observing efficiency. Be warned, though, that setting a critical phase range places significant constraint on scheduling and may make the programme un-schedulable. Figure 7 illustrates what the ephemeris parameters are.

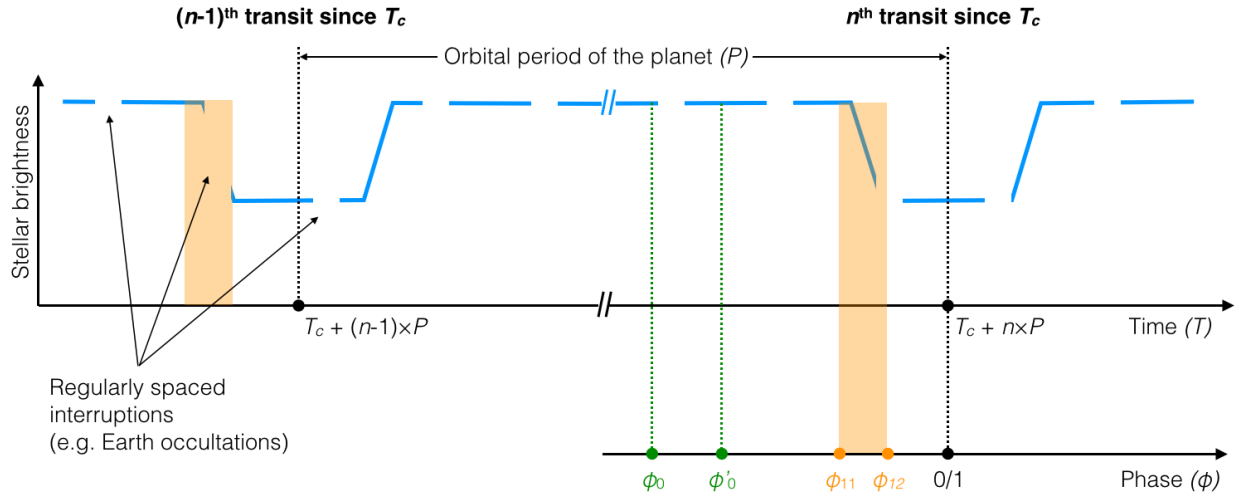


Figure 7: Time constraint parameters on top of a sketch transit light curve. The time ( $T$ ) reference  $T_c$  is the mid-transit time,  $P$  is the period of the planet and  $\phi$  is the phase:  $\phi = (T - T_c)/P - E[(T - T_c)/P]$ , where  $E[x]$  is the integer part of  $x$ . The start phase slack is shown in green and a critical phase range is shown in orange.

### 1.4.3 Detector modes and settings

Many of the detector settings, such as the read-out mode, will be pre-set as they depend essentially on the target magnitude. The exposure time is determined by the user, however, following guidelines provided in the Exposure Time Calculator. The observation cadence is fixed to optimise the use of the (limited) downlink bandwidth. The cadence determines whether it is possible to retrieve individual exposures or only co-added exposures to save bandwidth. More details on the detector modes can be found in §2.1.4 and Table 1. The cadence of science images downloaded to the ground can be found as a function of the exposure time in Table 2.

## 1.5 Status of an observation programme

The status of observation programmes can be consulted in the “Programmes” tab of Proposal Handling Tool for Phase II (PHT2). The different statuses are described below, in chronological order.

**Draft**—This is the initial state of a programme after its creation. At this stage, the programme editor can modify the abstract or title and add new observation requests.

**Submitted**—GO programmes will be submitted automatically at the time of the deadline. For convenience, the PHT2 displays a countdown clock to inform programme editors of the time remaining until the deadline of each AO. The programme status will then change to “submitted”. The status of all Observation Requests that belong to this programme will change to “submitted” if their status was “draft” at the time of submission. Observation requests that are in another status will not be affected by the programme submission. **Programmes in the “submitted” state cannot be edited, nor its associated ORs, until they have been validated by the Project**

**Science Office.** This freezing phase is typically shorter than one week, and it is necessary for a consistent and robust validation process.

**Pending Validation**—Every Monday morning, the Project Science Office will export all newly submitted programmes, if any, for inspection and technical validation of its ORs. At this stage, the programme status will change from “Submitted” to “Pending validation”. Programmes in the “Pending validation” state cannot be edited, nor its associated ORs, until it has been validated.

**Running**—All newly submitted and valid ORs are ingested into the Mission Planning System. At this stage, the programme status will change from “Pending validation” to “Running”, meaning that these ORs have become part of the pool of valid candidate requests from which the automatic scheduling algorithm can select.

## 1.6 How to retrieve CHEOPS data

Once the data for a given visit has been recorded onboard, downloaded to ground, and finally processed by the Science Operations Centre in Geneva, the data will be made available via the CHEOPS archive browser. The Principal Investigator of the programme from which the visits originate will be notified by e-mail that data can be downloaded. The time from observation to notification is foreseen to be about three days. **The CHEOPS archive browser is the unique interface to access CHEOPS data.** Science data taken with CHEOPS is subject to a proprietary period (see the AO document for the policy on proprietary data). Only the Principal Investigator and the Co-I listed in the Phase I proposal will be able to access the data – both will need credentials to log in. These credentials will be provided shortly after the announcement of the awards of CHEOPS observing time.

A full description of the archive system will be provided in a later issue of this manual. Further details about CHEOPS data are provided in Section 3.1.

## 2 CHEOPS instrument & operations

This chapter briefly describes the CHEOPS instrument and platform design. This includes the orbit and visibility constraints and also the camera design. The different instrument modes are briefly outlined and the science data product, which is downlinked to ground, is described. In the second part the expected performances are given in form of the noise budget.

### 2.1 The spacecraft and its instrument

#### 2.1.1 Overview of the platform and payload

CHEOPS will fly only one scientific payload on a small satellite platform provided by Airbus Defence and Space. The payload is a single instrument: a 30 cm effective aperture reflecting telescope designed to observe individual stars. It is a fully cold redundant system (with the exception of the CCD and the CCD clock driver). The total mass of the satellite (payload and platform) is 280 kg, the mass of the payload alone being 60 kg. The spacecraft will provide 60 W continuous power for the instrument operations. Figure 8 shows a view of the instrument integrated on the platform and Figure 9 a front and rear view of the instrument, with a cross-section of the instrument shown in Figure 12.

The main design drivers of the satellite were: to achieve a high photometric stability and a high thermal stability of the instrument, and to minimize the Earth straylight contamination. At the same time, the aim was also to maximize the observable sky while keeping the radiation dose as low as possible. The major requirement is the photometric stability; therefore, the detector gain has to be extremely stable and Earth stray light must be suppressed to a very high degree.

In addition to a thermally stable environment, the instrument requires high pointing stability: the telescope line-of-sight must remain stable to 4 arcsec rms (root mean square) within nominal operational conditions. This precision can be achieved on a small platform by including the instrument data in the attitude control loop.

An S-band system will be used for telemetry and telecommands (TM/TC) downlink and uplink between the satellite and the Earth, allowing data downlink rate of 1.2 Gbit/day. There will be a couple of contacts each day with the ground station, each for a duration of between 5 and 10 min.

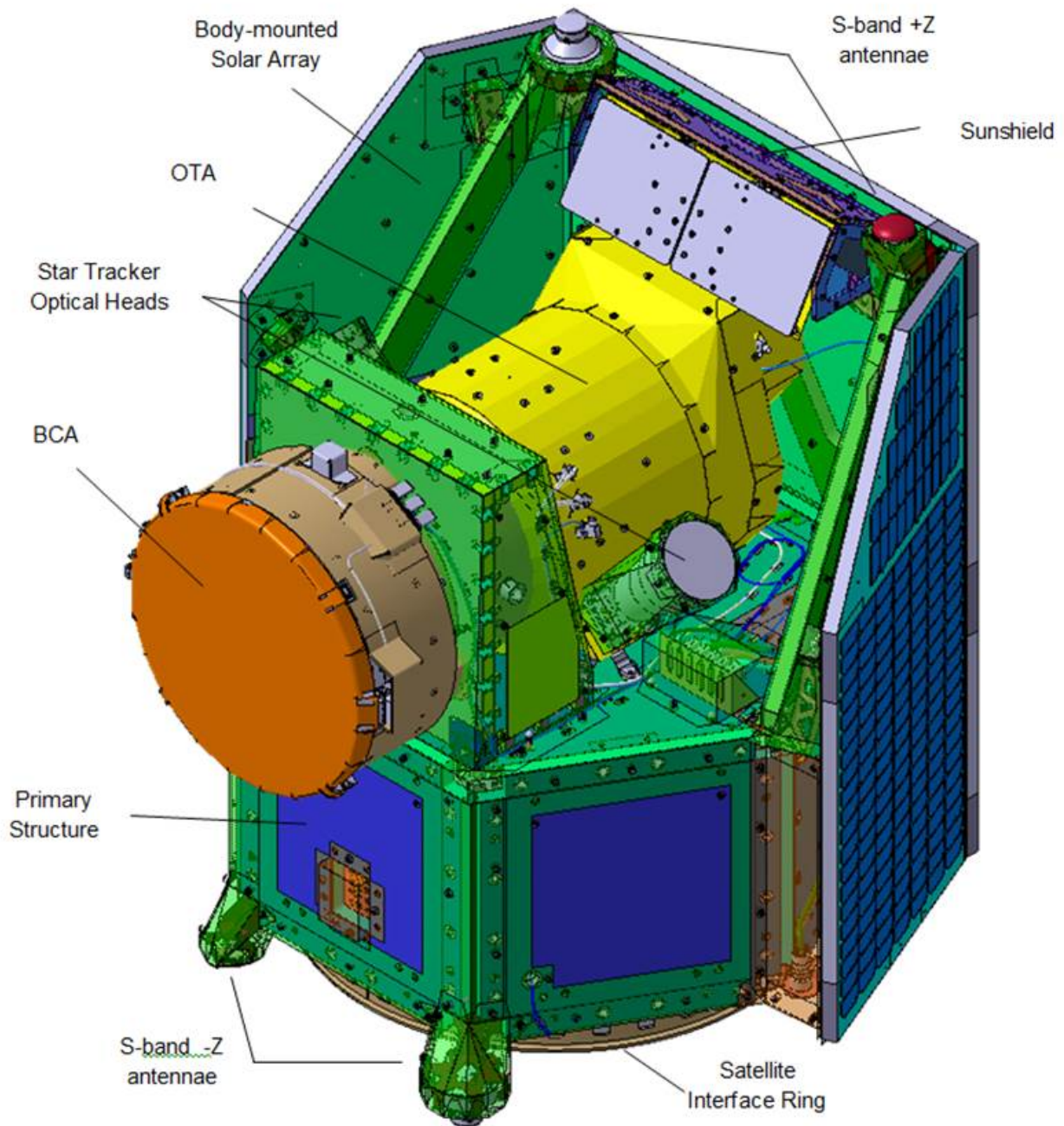


Figure 8: CHEOPS spacecraft (payload and platform) courtesy of Airbus Defence and Space.



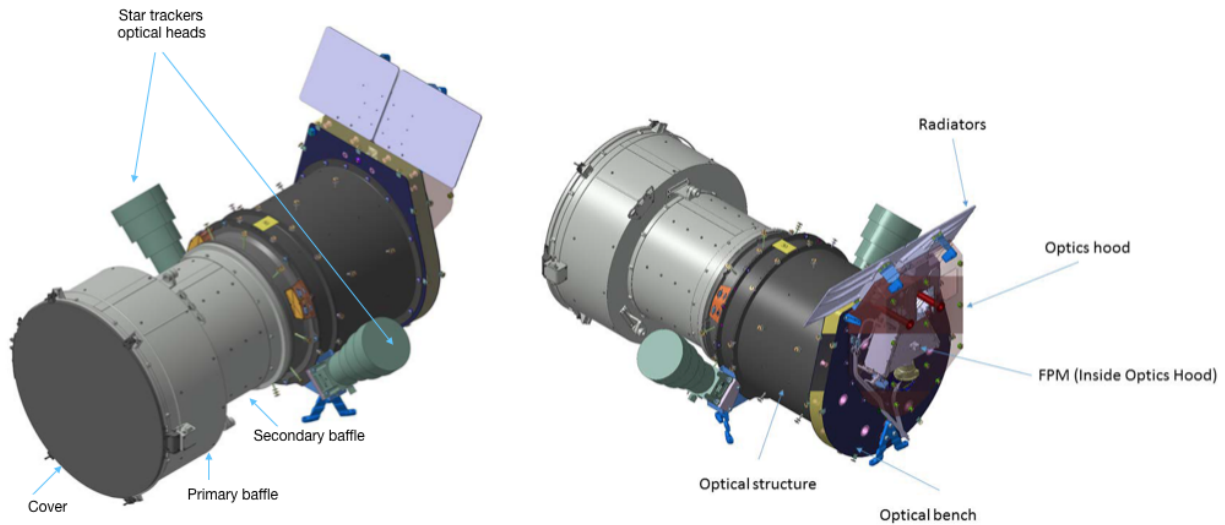
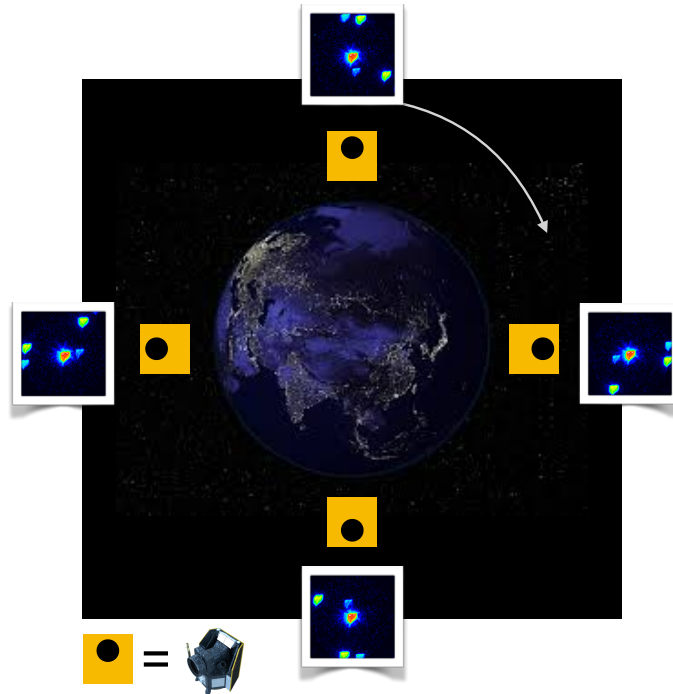


Figure 9: Two different views of the CHEOPS telescope.

### 2.1.2 CHEOPS in orbit and the observable sky

CHEOPS will be orbiting in a Sun Synchronous Low Earth Orbit (LEO) at an altitude of 700 km. The corresponding orbital period is ~100 minutes. The satellite will follow as close as possible the day-night terminator (the Local Time of the Ascending Node of the orbit is 6 a.m.) so that the target stars will be above the night side of the Earth (i.e. the Sun is always in the back of the satellite) in order to minimize the Earth straylight contamination. This orbit also minimises Earth occultations and therefore provides a thermally stable environment. To allow the stringent thermal control of the detector, the spacecraft will be 3-axis stabilized but nadir locked (see Figure 10). Therefore, the payload radiators have always to face away from Earth to cold space. A small sun shield prevents illumination of these radiators by the Sun, therefore providing a thermally stable environment for the payload radiators. The fact that the spacecraft is nadir locked implies that the background stars rotate around the optical axis of the telescope, completing a circle in one orbit of the satellite. Therefore, as illustrated in Figure 10, only the target star stays in the same position on the CCD (only perturbed by the pointing jitter).



*Figure 10: Orientation of the satellite along one orbit. The spacecraft is nadir-locked to preserve the thermal stability. The consequence of this for CHEOPS observations is that the field in CHEOPS images (the four insets) is rotating around the target star in the centre.*

To avoid the illumination of the radiators, the Sun must be outside the cone around the line of sight (LOS) of the telescope, having a half-angle of  $120^\circ$ . This is known as the sun exclusion angle (Figure 11). This strong restriction in the telescope pointing limits the sky coverage, making it impossible for CHEOPS to point towards the ecliptic poles.

To achieve the required photometric performance, there are a number of constraints on directions in which the spacecraft can be pointed. It is especially important to minimise the Earth straylight illumination. In theory, we could tolerate a minimum angle between the line of sight and any (visible) illuminated part of the Earth limb of  $35^\circ$ . This is called the Earth straylight exclusion angle (Figure 11). However, given the stray light rejection of the baffle, we believe that it will be possible to maintain photometric performance at much smaller angles than this,  $\sim 25^\circ$  on average.

Another source of significant straylight is the Moon. In this case also an exclusion angle has been defined (Moon exclusion angle; Figure 11). This is such that the bright moon must not be inside a cone around the line-of-sight of the telescope having a half angle of  $5^\circ$ .

The Sun, Moon and stray light exclusion angles are instrument-imposed constraints. In addition, there are two other sources of interruptions to the observations that are a consequence of the orbit of CHEOPS. The first is that of Earth occultations (Figure 11). In order for the target to be observable its projected altitude from the surface of the Earth should be equal or higher than



100 km. The second one is the South Atlantic Anomaly<sup>3</sup> (SAA; Figure 11): a target is typically observable when flying through the SAA, however the data taken will show an increased number of glitches and noise spikes due to the impact of high energy particles. It is likely that the increased noise from these hits will render the data too noisy to be used. The noise levels will be measured during commissioning and only if found to be acceptable, the images taken during SAA flybys will be downlinked. Note that the working assumption is that images taken during SAA flybys are not downlinked (to save telemetry) and the time spent over the SAA is considered as an interruption in the observation.

Figure 11 illustrates the constraints on sky observability described above.

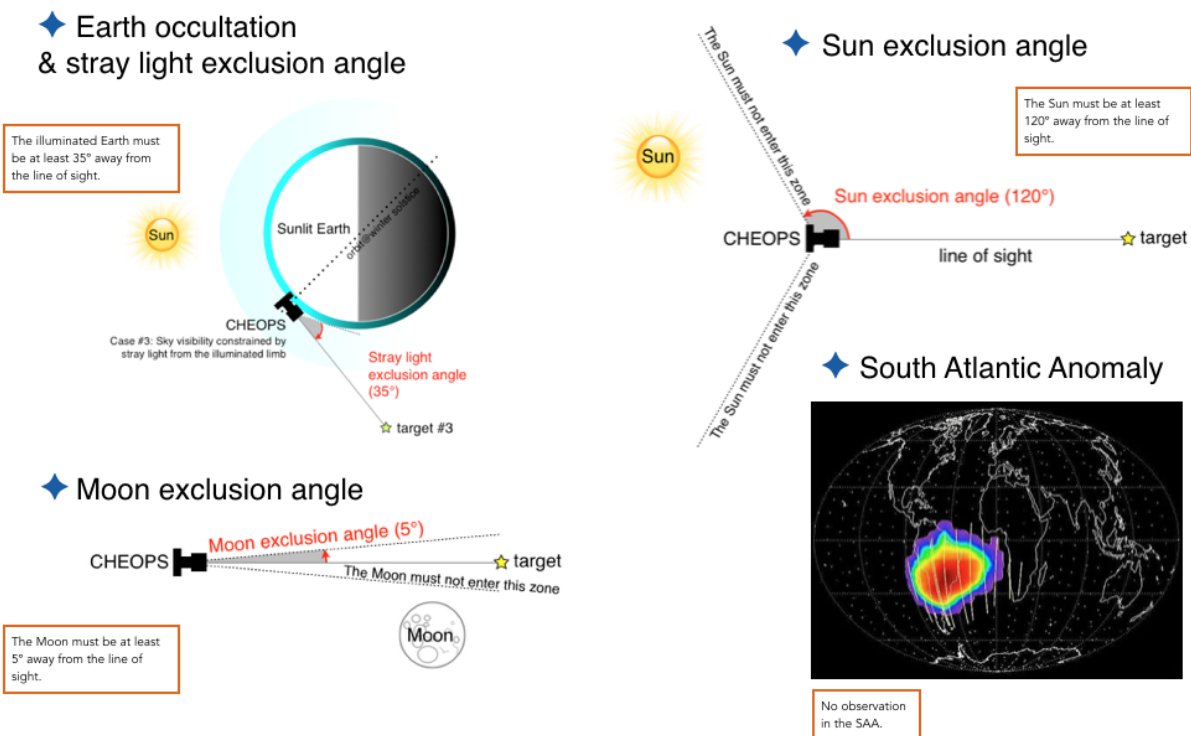


Figure 11: Schematic summary of the conditions for target observability and scientifically valid data acquisition.

Using these constraints for the target observability, the sky coverage accessible to CHEOPS can be calculated. Figure 12 shows a map of the sky coverage over one year. The accumulated time that can be spent on a certain location (see colour code) is calculated considering only the orbits

<sup>3</sup> The **South Atlantic Anomaly** (SAA) is an area where the Earth's inner Van Allen radiation belt comes closest to the Earth's surface, dipping down to an altitude of 200 kilometres. This leads to an increased flux of energetic particles in this region and exposes orbiting satellites to higher-than-usual levels of radiation (from Wikipedia).

that have less than 50% of interruptions in the observations (for the left figure). Calculations show that **63%** of the sky is accessible for 50 cumulative days per year and per target with time spent on target and integrating the target flux longer than 50% of the spacecraft orbit duration. On the other hand, the right figure shows the sky coverage over one year assuming that each point in the map verifies that interruptions in the observations during one orbit represent less than 20%. **22%** of the whole sky is accessible for 13 cumulative days per year and per target with time spent on target and integrating the target flux longer than 80% of the spacecraft orbit duration.

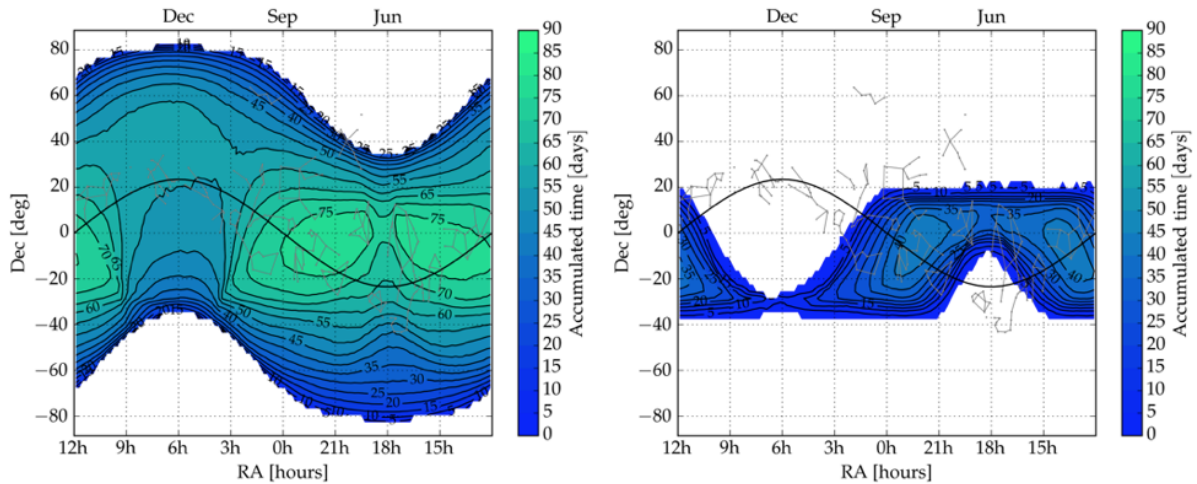


Figure 12: Left: Accessible sky in days per year for which the time spent on-target and integrating the target flux is longer than 50% of the spacecraft orbit duration. Right: same as left figure, but for which the time spent on-target and integrating the target flux longer than 80% of the spacecraft orbit.

### 2.1.3 Optical telescope and baffle

The optical design is based on a Ritchey-Chrétien style on-axis telescope with a focal ratio  $f/5$ , and an effective focal length of 1600 mm. A schematic design of the telescope is shown in Figure 13.

The CHEOPS instrument consists of 4 different units mounted on the spacecraft structure, which are:

- The baffle and cover assembly;
- The optical telescope assembly, made by the telescope itself, the focal plane and the radiators;
- The back-end electronics;
- The sensor electronics module.

The first two units are mounted on the top panel of the spacecraft, while the second two are mounted inside the structure.

The telescope has a cover designed to protect the telescope and optics from dust contamination. The cover will be opened during the instrument in-orbit commissioning. Opening the cover is the only mechanical operation done in flight, as there are no other moving components in the instrument (in particular, there is no mechanical shutter). The optical system is formed by two mirrors followed by the back-end optics. The field of view has a diameter of  $0.32^\circ$ . The entrance pupil of the system is located at the primary mirror and has a physical diameter of 320 mm. The telescope provides a defocussed image of the target star with a point spread function (PSF) of a radius of  $\sim 12$  pixels (the radius of the PSF is calculated as the radius of a circle that contains 90% of the flux). A defocussed PSF was used to minimise the impact of combination of the pointing jitter and the flat-field uncertainties (that should be lower than 0.1%). Figure 14 is an image of the PSF measured in the lab during the calibration campaign.

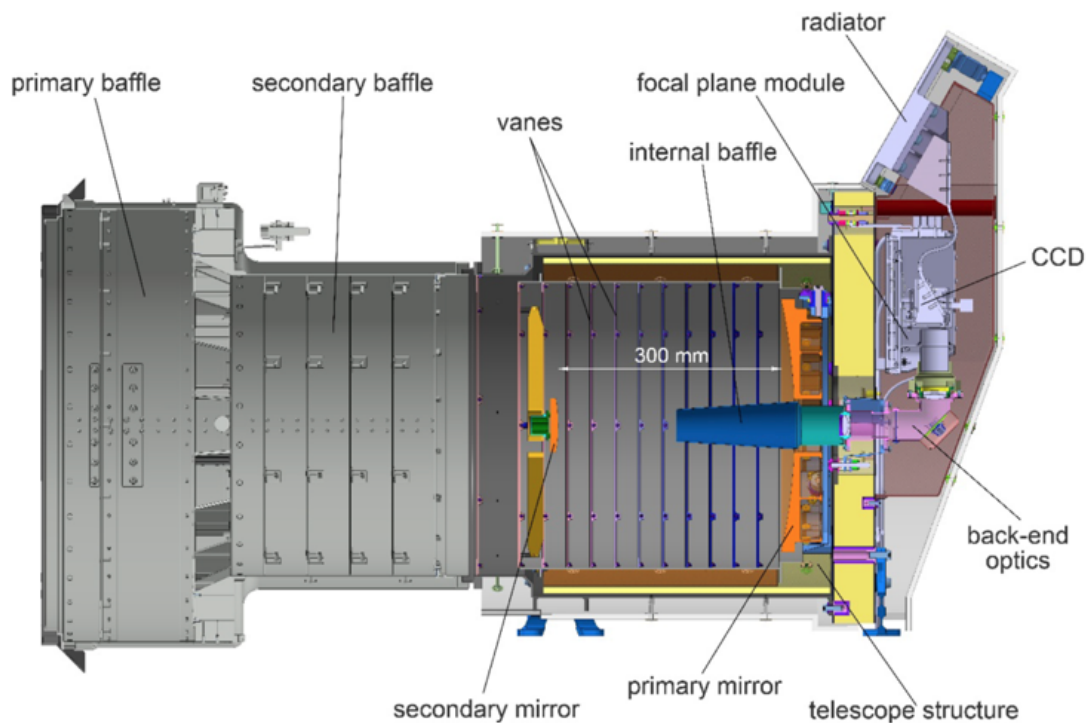


Figure 13: Vertical cut of the CHEOPS telescope showing its main components.

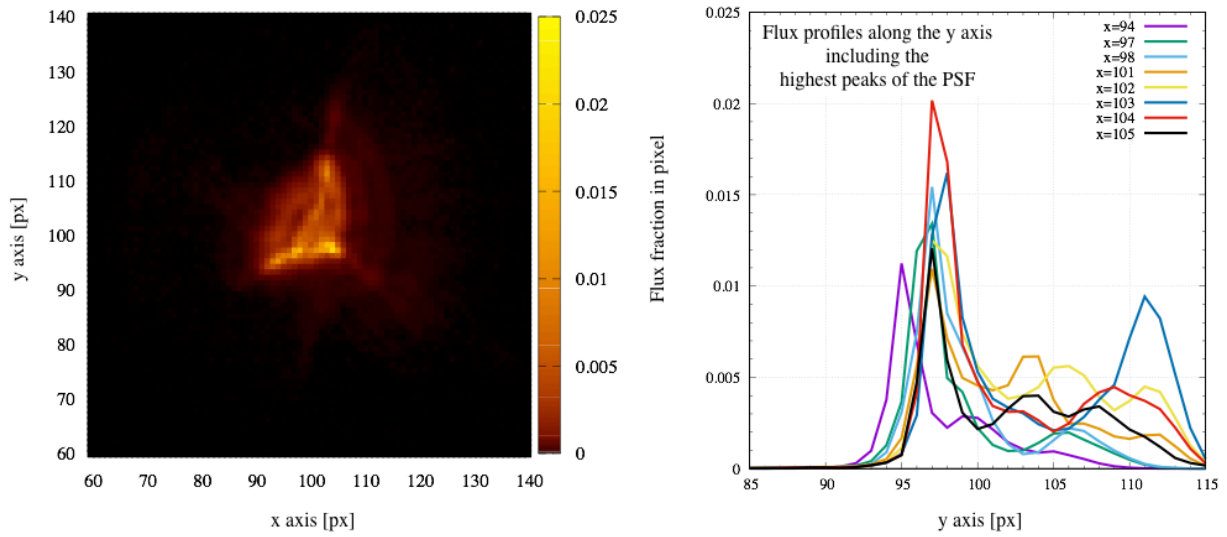


Figure 14: Image of the CHEOPS point spread function (PSF) measured during the on-ground calibration campaign in white light. Left: flux distribution, x and y axis in pixels. Right: PSF profiles along the y axis for different vertical cuts (colour curves). The x values chosen for the figure contain pixels with more than 1% of the total flux of the PSF.

To guarantee the stability of the PSF, the thermal excursions in the telescope are constrained to  $\pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ . The PSF is triangular due to the primary mirror mounting at 3 interface points. When cooling the primary mirror from room temperature to its operational temperature of  $-10^\circ\text{C}$ , the mounting distorts the surface of the mirror. Due to the defocused image, this effect is very prominent.

The CHEOPS bandpass covers the visible–near-infrared range of 330–1100 nm. At the blue end, the bandpass is limited by the transmission of the optical train. In the red, it is limited by the CCD quantum efficiency. The telescope throughput over this bandpass is the product of the two terms, the optical transmission and quantum efficiency. Figure 15 shows, on the left, the expected quantum efficiency and optical throughput as a function of wavelength, and on the right, the global throughput (i.e. fraction of photons effectively converted into photoelectrons, integrated over the CHEOPS bandpass) as a function of the spectral type of the star.

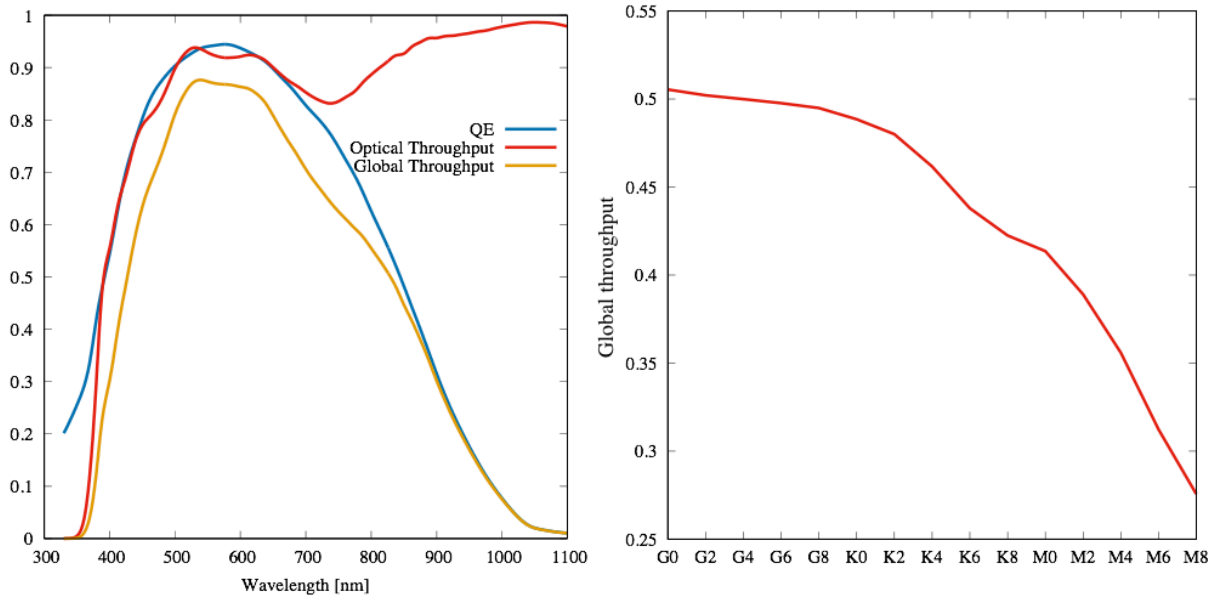


Figure 15: (Left) Quantum efficiency of the detector (blue) and optical throughput (red) as a function of wavelength. The global throughput as shown here (yellow) is just the product of the QE and Optical Throughput. (Right) Global throughput as a function of the spectral type of the star.

The telescope is designed to reject Earth reflected light which can be a strong limitation on photometry performed from a low Earth orbit. At high-incidence angles, CHEOPS is able to reject or attenuate Earth stray light attenuation by factors of  $10^{-12}$ . This performance is achieved thanks to a dedicated field stop and a baffling system comprising the baffle assembly and the telescope itself.

#### 2.1.4 Focal Plane Module

The detector is a single frame-transfer back-side illuminated E2V AIMO CCD47-20. The image section of the CCD has an area of  $1024 \times 1024$  pixels, while a full frame image including the covered margins is 1076 columns and 1033 rows. The electrical design of the instrument is based on a distributed architecture. The camera system, which consists of the Focal Plane Module (FPM) and the Sensor Electronics Module (SEM), is designed and built by DLR Berlin while the Back-End Electronics (BEE) is realised by IWF Graz.

The camera is controlled by the instrument main computer, the back-end electronics, using a SpaceWire link for high data transmission capability. In addition to the data link and software control, the back-end electronics delivers stabilized voltage lines to the sensor electronics module, which in turn produces ultra-stable voltages in order to ensure the bias voltages stabilities for the camera. This is one of the key design drivers to meet the very low noise and high gain stability requirements of the instrument.

Due to the stringent telemetry budget of CHEOPS, it is not possible to download the full frame images. Instead, window images of  $200 \times 200$  pixels with the target star in the centre plus the corresponding covered margins will be cropped out of the full frame image. Note that to further save bandwidth, the on-board software will crop the corners of the window images so that circular window images (of diameter 200 pixels) are distributed to the ground. Figure 16 shows a schematic of the CCD, full frame image and window image.

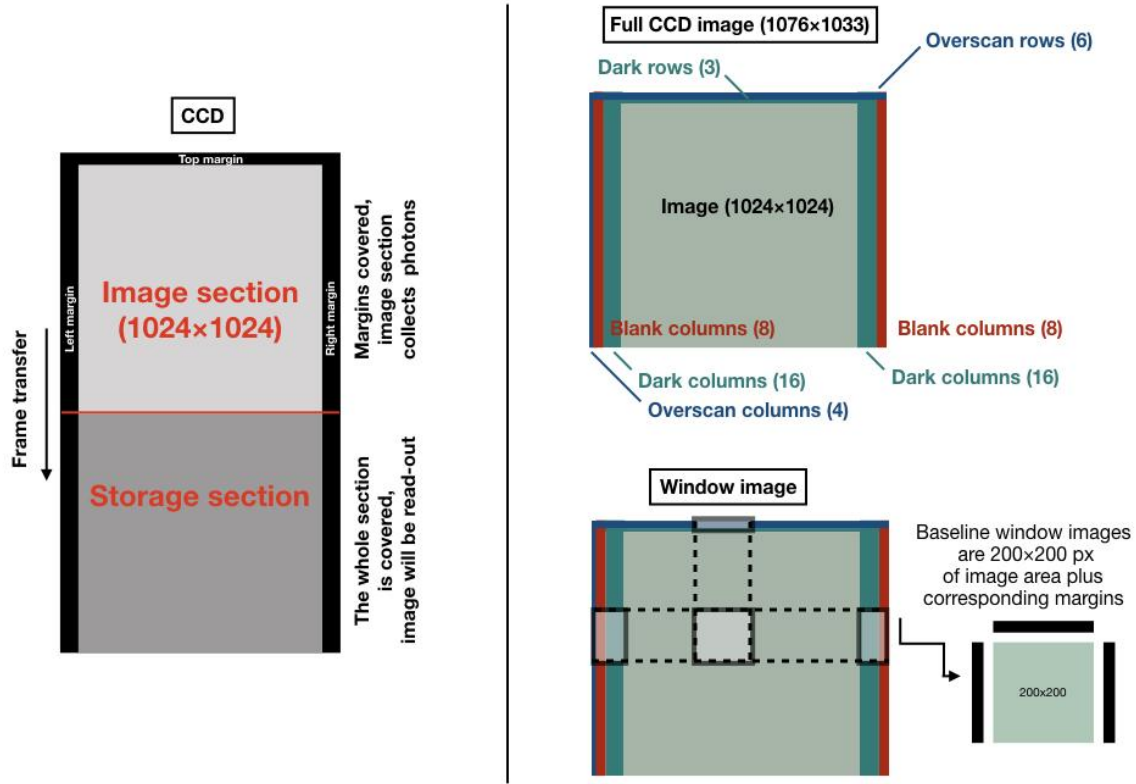


Figure 16: (Left) Schematic view of the CCD. (Right) On top, a diagram of the main elements in a full CCD image. At the bottom, a representation of a window image and its corresponding margins.

To achieve the required photometric performance, this detector has to be thermally stabilized to better than 10 mK (rms) at an operating temperature of  $-40^\circ\text{C}$ . Stable thermal balance is achieved by heating the instrument to precisely compensate its cooling via radiators unexposed to the Sun or the sunlit Earth. At such low temperature, the dark current is negligible (less than 0.08 electrons/pixel/second at the beginning of life).

### 2.1.5 Options for image acquisition and image processing

Operating the CHEOPS instrument consists of uplinking a set of telecommands with designated execution time through the so-called mission timeline (MTL). To command the instrument, the platform will forward the mission timeline telecommands at the appropriate time to the instrument without modifications or additions. The platform stores and forwards the telemetry (science data included) received from the instrument to the ground.

The operation of the instrument is organised according to modes. Different modes are used for instrument configuration, diagnostics, and science observations. **The SCIENCE mode is the only one relevant to CHEOPS users.** Operations in SCIENCE mode can be subdivided into several *observation activities*, each of which has an associated combination of settings for detector read-out and on-board processing of the read-out image.

The read-out modes listed in Table 1 naturally define two different kinds of products that can be downlinked to ground: *full-array images* (or *full-frame CCD images*) and *window images*. Nominal science images are circular window images of 200 pixels in diameter.

The CCD\_FULL read-out mode will produce full-array images that are transmitted in their entirety (1076×1033 pixels) to the digital processing unit (DPU). This read-out mode (that works at a read-out frequency of 230 kHz) is always used at the beginning of each visit for the acquisition of the target (no images are sent to the ground during this phase) and for the calibration image (one full frame image is sent to the ground at the beginning of each visit).

The ULTRABRIGHT, BRIGHT, FAINT\_FAST and FAINT read-out modes will produce window images. The read-out mode used to acquire all the images of a visit will depend on the exposure time selected (see Table 1).

**Users cannot choose the read-out mode that will be used during a visit. Users can specify the exposure time of the images: according to the chosen exposure time, the read-out mode will be automatically selected.**

For all the window modes, the digital processing unit receives the CCD cropped window that was exposed to the target star (exposed window) together with the associated margins of the CCD.

Table 1 summarizes the main characteristics of each read-out mode. Note that the lowest read-out noise corresponds to exposure times longer than 2.33 seconds (read-out modes FAINT\_FAST and FAINT).



Table 1: Read-out modes.

Read-out mode	Read-out frequency (kHz)	Exposure time range (seconds)	Read-out noise (ADU/px) ( $e^-/px$ )	Description
CCD_FULL	230	0.001–600	9 ADU/px ( $\sim 18 e^-/px$ )	<b>For full frame images.</b> There is only one mode (this one) for reading out commanded full frame CCD images (1024×1024). For images with exposure times lower than 5 s the read-out is done after the exposure and it includes the pre-cleaning of the image section. For exposure times greater than 5, the read-out and the exposure are done in parallel (rolling mode without pre-cleaning).
ULTRABRIGHT	230	0.001–1.05*	9 ADU/px ( $\sim 18 e^-/px$ )	<b>For window frame images.</b> Only a stripe that contains the defined window plus the 9 rows of the top margin image is read-out. The read-out is done after the exposure (including pre-cleaning). <b><i>This means that the time between two exposures is 1.1 second (read out time for this mode).</i></b>
BRIGHT	230	1.05*–2.33*	9 ADU/px ( $\sim 18 e^-/px$ )	<b>For window frame images.</b> Only a stripe that contains the defined window image plus the 9 rows of the top margin is read-out. Exposure and read-out in parallel (rolling mode without pre-cleaning).
FAINT_FAST	100	2.33*–11.3*	6 ADU/px ( $\sim 12 e^-/px$ )	<b>For window frame images.</b> Only a stripe that contains the defined window image plus the 9 rows of the top margin is read-out. Exposure and read-out in parallel (rolling mode without pre-cleaning).
FAINT	100	11.3*–600	6 ADU/px ( $\sim 12 e^-/px$ )	<b>For window frame images.</b> The full CCD is read out. The windows are cut-off by SW. Exposure and read-out in parallel (rolling mode without pre-cleaning).

\*This value corresponds to a window of 200 lines. Windows with less lines will require shorter read-out times, and windows with more lines, longer. Note that changing the size of the window frame is not an offered setting.



Due to the limited data volume that can be downlinked to ground it is not possible to download all the images obtained during each visit. Window images will be downloaded to the ground with a cadence of at least one image per minute, which can be less or equal to the acquisition cadence, which is  $1/t_{\text{exp}}$  (if  $t_{\text{exp}} \geq 1.05$  s, see clarification below for  $t_{\text{exp}} < 1.05$  s). It is therefore necessary to combine the individual exposures on board to reduce the amount of data transmitted. The individual exposures are co-added pixel-to-pixel to realise a single image. Combining (or stacking) images is the baseline working strategy of a nominal visit (note that the user cannot specify how many images are stacked). As a result, the cadence of the time series of stacked images available to the observer is  $1/(N_{\text{stack}} \times t_{\text{exp}})$ . It is comprised between  $\sim 23$  s and 60 s depending on the exposure time and read-out mode. These values can be found in Table 2.

To preserve some raw information about the target star, small window images (imagettes) containing only the PSF of each image are also sent to the ground. These imagettes are also circular and typically 35 pixels in diameter. They are used for correction purposes in the data reduction pipeline.

In other cases, the nature of the observation may require that individual images are stored on-board and then downloaded to ground. This mode is more demanding in terms of downlink budget and cannot be used as baseline but could nevertheless be used punctually for calibrations (at the beginning of a visit) and for some monitoring and characterisation observations. Its main advantage is to transfer the whole time-resolved data set to the ground, thus preserving all information.

The nominal science activity is a cyclic process that produces data following these steps:

- Collect photons in the image section of the CCD for a defined exposure time.
- Transfer and read image with the appropriate read-out mode.
- Apply on-board image processing method (calculate the centroid, extract the imagette in case of stacking of images, stack images, etc.).
- Pack data together with housekeeping parameters and compress.
- Send packed data to platform on-board computer.
- Repeat until the visit duration time is over.

With every contact with the ground station, the acquired data is downloaded to the ground.

## 2.1.6 Baseline for the on-board data treatment and data flow

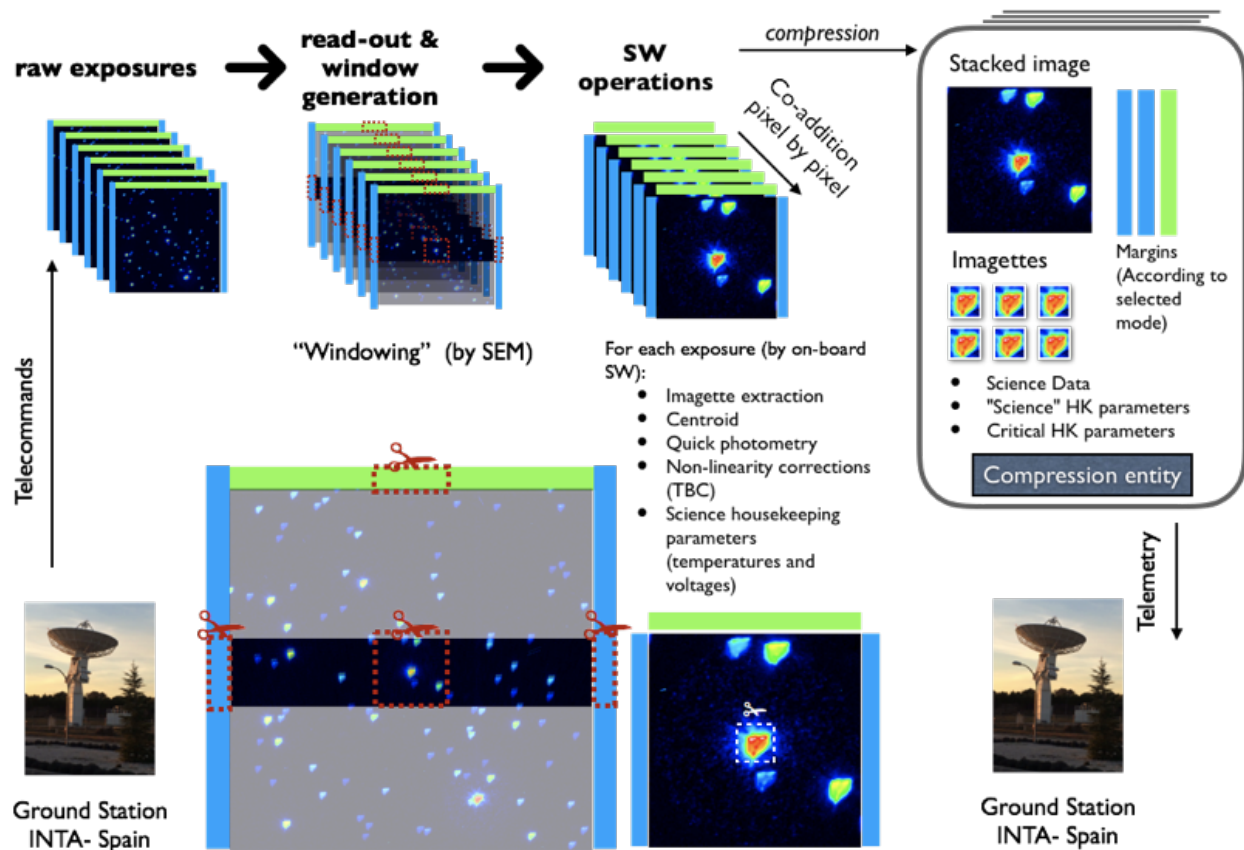


Figure 17: Sketch of a nominal science activity.

Figure 17 shows a sketch of the science sequence during one visit. As shown in Figure 16, each window image comes with the corresponding CCD margins. Prior to co-addition of the images, the following operations must be performed on the image:

- Centroid determination.
- Discard image (e.g. if it is taken during Earth occultation or SAA crossing).
- Quick photometry (flux measured inside the aperture to calculate the centroid).
- Extract imagette.

There are a number of different ways in which the data in the margins can be processed and stored. The default scenario, which preserves important information and reduces the amount of data as much as possible, consists in the following steps:

- The CCD margins are stacked in the same way as the image section.
- The stacked dark columns at both sides of the window are collapsed to three columns (average, median and standard deviation columns pixel-to-pixel).
- From the stacked overscan columns the mean, median, mean absolute deviation and standard deviation are calculated.

- All blank columns are discarded.
- The three stacked dark rows are preserved.
- The six stacked overscan rows are preserved.

In addition, the following information extracted from each individual image before stacking, will be downloaded:

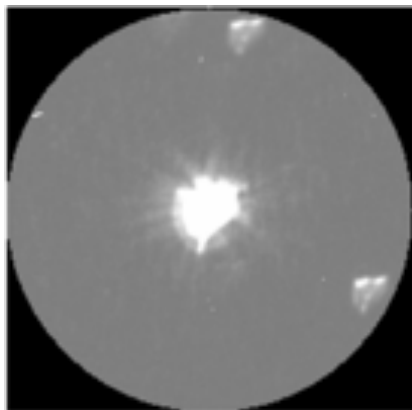
- Centroid value.
- Quick photometry (flux measured inside the aperture).
- Background estimation.
- Housekeeping parameters: temperatures and voltages relevant for image processing.

Finally, a science data packet (called a compression entity) containing

- the stacked image;
- the CCD margins information;
- the imagerettes;
- the housekeeping data associated with the imagerettes (temperatures and voltages);
- the science data (centroid, flux measured in the aperture, etc.);

is compressed and stored for download.

**To further reduce the size of the compression entity, the corners of the images and imagerettes will be cropped after stacking to produce circular images (instead of squares). By only preserving the useful information, the amount of data to downlink is reduced by ~20% (see Figure 18).**



*Figure 18: Example of circular image extracted from a square image.*

Short exposure times (less than about 3 s) results in the generation of a large number of images per minute. Although the individual images will be stacked in one single image to reduce the data volume, the individual imagerettes are, in these cases, the major contributors to the data volume. To be able to keep the data rate of one image per minute, individual imagerettes also need to be stacked.

As an example, in the case of  $t_{\text{exp}} = 1.05$  s, 44 images will be stacked together to satisfy a cadence of 1 image per  $\sim 46$  s, and imagettes will be also stacked in sets of 4 imagettes each (see Table 2), i.e. there will be 11 imagettes during the same time. See next section for more details.

### 2.1.7 Things to keep in mind when preparing your observation request

There are three caveats users should have in mind when preparing their observation requests.

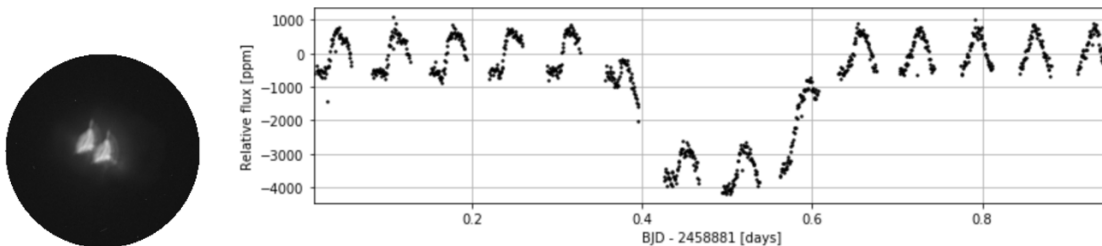
#### 2.1.7.1 Low duty cycle for ULTRABRIGHT mode

**The ULTRABRIGHT read out mode (used for exposure times shorter than 1.05 seconds) has a low duty cycle (<50%), in the sense that between the acquisition of one image and the next there is 1.1 second used to read out the CCD.**

As an example, let us assume that the exposure time is 0.4 seconds. This means that the repetition period (or time elapsed between the acquisition of one image and the next) is  $0.4 + 1.1 = 1.5$  s. Therefore, one stacked image resulting from the co-addition of 30 images will be obtained every  $30 \times 1.5$  s = 45 s instead of every  $30 \times 0.4$  s = 12 s if the detector read-out were performed in parallel of the integration. The duty cycle for this exposure time is thus  $12/45 \approx 27\%$ . In conclusion, the observer is free to select the exposure time that best suits their science case but should keep in mind that exposure times of 1.04 s produce, roughly, an image every two seconds, while if the exposure time is set to 1.05 s, an image will be produced roughly every second. Select the exposure time wisely! (Refer to Table 2 for this.)

#### 2.1.7.2 Close companions

**Be aware of your target stellar field! If the target lies close to one or more other stars of similar magnitude, the photometric performance might be degraded. Even if the observation is technically feasible — which is not warranted (see below) — the photometric extraction might not be as good as in a single star case. Therefore, either avoid stars with close companions of similar magnitudes (i.e. overlapping or nearly overlapping PSFs) or be prepared for some light curve detrending (see Figure 19 for an example).**



*Figure 19: Example of resulting CHEOPS photometric light curve (right panel) when the target, a V=9 star, has a nearby companion of similar brightness (here at  $\sim 20$  arcsec), as can be seen in the window image (left). The image is simulated with CHEOPSim and the light curve extraction is performed with the Data Reduction Pipeline. The visible periodic pattern in and around a transit is due to the field rotation, which makes the companion perform a full revolution around the target every satellite orbit.*

The Science Operations Centre will check that the observation is feasible from a technical point of view; meaning that the target can be acquired by the instrument and that it can be kept in the centre of the image throughout the visit. The acquisition algorithm is relatively robust but the centroiding algorithm, which basically calculates the barycentre of light within the aperture, can be fooled by close binaries with similar magnitudes. Such situations are more likely to occur for targets with faint magnitudes and could be problematic for targets fainter than the nominal magnitude range of CHEOPS ( $6 \leq V \leq 12$ ). This may lead to a degradation of the quality of the photometry below the science requirements.

### 2.1.7.3 Number of images stacked on-board

**The number of images and imagerettes stacked on board is a function of the exposure time. For all the cases, the cadence of the stacked image will be better than 1 stacked image every 60 seconds. The table below (see Table 2) can be used as a guide to prepare your observation request in a smart way. It provides the number of images (image stacking order) and imagerettes (imagerette stacking order) that will be stacked as a function of the exposure time.**

For example, if the exposure time is 1.5 s, 30 individual images and 3 individual imagerettes will be stacked on board. Every 45 seconds, 1 stacked image and 10 stacked imagerettes will be sent to ground. Final numbers will be consolidated after the In-Orbit Commissioning. Keep in mind that you can only select the exposure time (the image and imagerette stacking order were calculated so not to exceed the telemetry budget). A stacking order of 1 means that there is no stacking (stacked image[tte] = individual image[tte]). An imagerette stacking order of 0 means there is no imagerette sent to ground (not needed because images are not stacked).

*Table 2: Image and imagerette stacking order, image cadence and duty cycle as a function of the exposure time. An image cadence of  $f$  means that one image is recorded every  $f$  seconds. In ULTRABRIGHT read-out mode (shaded rows), the detector has to be read-out sequentially and not in parallel to the exposition, introducing a significant decrease of the duty cycle, calculated as  $d = t_{\text{exp}} / (t_{\text{exp}} + 1.1 \text{ s})$ . See Table 1 for details. Mind the gap in duty cycle between exposure times of 1 s and 1.05 s!*

Exposure time (s)	Image stacking order	Imagerette stacking order	Stacked image cadence (s)	Duty cycle (%)
$t_{\text{exp}} < 0.1$	40	4	$f < 48$	$d < 8.3$
$0.1 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 0.15$	39	3	$46.8 \leq f < 48.8$	$8.3 \leq d < 12$
$0.15 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 0.2$	36	3	$45 \leq f < 46.8$	$12 \leq d < 15.4$
$0.2 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 0.4$	33	3	$42.9 \leq f < 49.5$	$15.4 \leq d < 26.7$
$0.4 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 0.5$	30	3	$45 \leq f < 48$	$26.7 \leq d < 31.3$
$0.5 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 0.55$	28	2	$44.8 \leq f < 46.2$	$31.3 \leq d < 33.3$
$0.55 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 0.65$	26	2	$42.9 \leq f < 45.5$	$33.3 \leq d < 37.1$
$0.65 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 0.85$	24	2	$42 \leq f < 46.8$	$37.1 \leq d < 43.6$

$0.85 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 1.05$	22	2	$42.9 \leq f < 47.3$	$43.6 \leq d < 48.8$
$1.05 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 1.1$	44	4	$46.2 \leq f < 48.4$	$d = 100$
$1.1 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 1.2$	40	4	$44 \leq f < 48$	$d = 100$
$1.2 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 1.25$	39	3	$46.8 \leq f < 48.8$	$d = 100$
$1.25 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 1.3$	36	3	$45 \leq f < 46.8$	$d = 100$
$1.3 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 1.5$	33	3	$42.9 \leq f < 49.5$	$d = 100$
$1.5 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 1.6$	30	3	$45 \leq f < 48$	$d = 100$
$1.6 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 1.65$	28	2	$44.8 \leq f < 46.2$	$d = 100$
$1.65 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 1.75$	26	2	$42.9 \leq f < 45.5$	$d = 100$
$1.75 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 1.95$	24	2	$42 \leq f < 46.8$	$d = 100$
$1.95 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 2.15$	22	2	$42.9 \leq f < 47.3$	$d = 100$
$2.15 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 2.4$	20	2	$43 \leq f < 48$	$d = 100$
$2.4 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 2.7$	18	2	$43.2 \leq f < 48.6$	$d = 100$
$2.7 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 2.8$	16	2	$43.2 \leq f < 44.8$	$d = 100$
$2.8 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 2.9$	15	1	$42 \leq f < 43.5$	$d = 100$
$2.9 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 3.05$	14	1	$40.6 \leq f < 42.7$	$d = 100$
$3.05 \leq t_{\text{exp}} \leq 3.2$	13	1	$39.7 \leq f < 41.6$	$d = 100$
$3.2 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 3.4$	12	1	$38.4 \leq f < 40.8$	$d = 100$
$3.4 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 3.65$	11	1	$37.4 \leq f < 40.2$	$d = 100$
$3.65 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 3.9$	10	1	$36.5 \leq f < 39$	$d = 100$
$3.9 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 4.25$	9	1	$35.1 \leq f < 38.3$	$d = 100$
$4.25 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 4.7$	8	1	$34 \leq f < 37.6$	$d = 100$
$4.7 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 5.25$	7	1	$32.9 \leq f < 36.8$	$d = 100$
$5.25 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 6.05$	6	1	$31.5 \leq f < 36.3$	$d = 100$
$6.05 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 7.25$	5	1	$30.3 \leq f < 36.3$	$d = 100$
$7.25 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 9.2$	4	1	$29 \leq f < 36.8$	$d = 100$
$9.2 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 12.5$	3	1	$27.6 \leq f < 37.5$	$d = 100$
$12.5 \leq t_{\text{exp}} < 22.65$	2	1	$25 \leq f < 45.3$	$d = 100$
$22.65 \leq t_{\text{exp}} \leq 60$	1	0	$22.65 \leq f \leq 60$	$d = 100$

## 2.2 Photometric performance

### 2.2.1 Noise budget

All noise sources considered below are assumed independent and can thus be added quadratically. A given noise source  $i$  is called  $N_i$ . The total noise  $N$  expected after uninterrupted integration time  $t$  is:

$$N = \sqrt{\sum N_i^2}$$

In case different noise sources are obviously correlated (for instance the noise resulting from the combined effect of jitter and flat field or from quantum efficiency [QE] and gain sensitivity to temperature), these noises are combined together into one single component  $N_i$ , which is then added in quadrature to the other noises.

The estimation of each noise contribution is achieved with analytical formula, numerical simulations or during the calibration process. When possible, analytical estimations have been validated with more realistic models via simulations performed with CHEOPSim<sup>4</sup> or other numerical models.

Here, we use the PSF obtained during the calibration campaign of the instrument (February–March 2018). The radius of the photometric aperture is assumed to be 30 pixels. We use pointing jitter time series typical of what the spacecraft platform will experience in space.

The global throughput (see section 2.1.3) is calculated for different stellar spectral types as shown in Figure 15 and used in the noise budget calculation.

#### 2.2.1.1 Noise sources

Noise sources can be separated into two major categories depending on their nature – astrophysical or instrumental – with the total noise budget the combination of all the contributors.

The contributions we consider here are:

- Astrophysical noise
  - o Photon noise contribution from the stellar target,
  - o Zodiacal light photon noise,
  - o Noise introduced by cosmic ray hits,
  - o Stray light parasitic illumination (Earth, Moon, stars; here we only consider the Earth contribution).
- Instrumental noise

---

<sup>4</sup> CHEOPSim is the CHEOPS simulator software developed with the purpose of testing the instrument and injecting simulated data into the ground segment software, such as the data reduction pipeline. In these simulations, the PSFs of the target and field stars are projected onto a virtual detector. Several, but not all, noise sources are included.

- PSF in combination with the pointing jitter and the flat field uncertainties,
- Read-out noise (CCD + analog chain random noise),
- Dark current shot noise and dark current variation with temperature,
- CCD gain variability,
- Analog electronics stability,
- Quantum Efficiency variation with temperature,
- Timing error,
- Quantization noise of the front-end electronics.

Note that stellar noise – flicker, activity, etc. – is not included in the noise budget. This is because these noises are target-dependent and difficult to estimate a priori, on a general basis.

Figure 20 represents the expected photometric performance of CHEOPS as a function of stellar V magnitude, detailing the major contributions: instrumental noise, photon noise and noise due to stray light contamination.

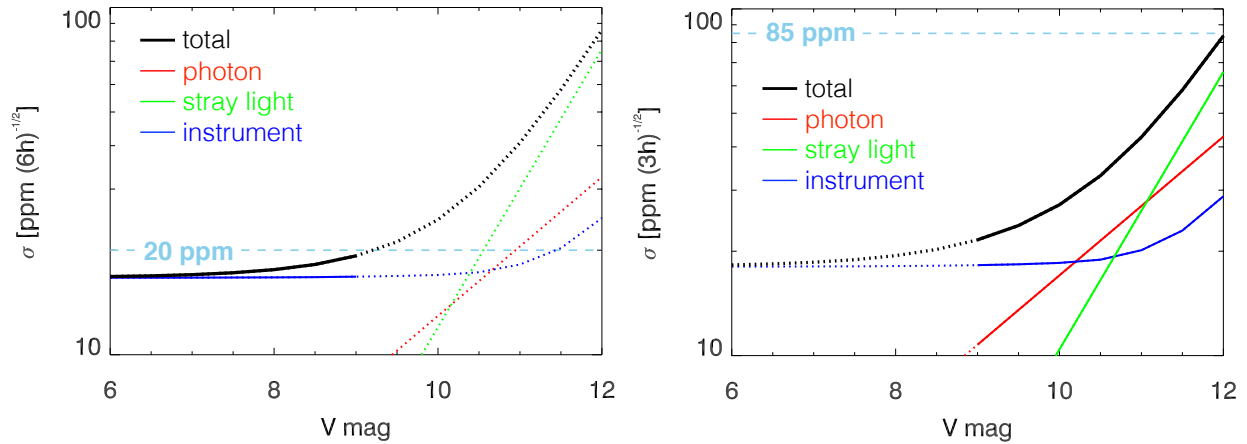


Figure 20: Expected photometric performance. (Left panel) For bright stars (here assumed to be G-type stars with an effective temperature of 5500 K and apparent magnitude  $6 \leq V < 9$ ), the rms of the light curve residuals shall be  $\leq 20$  ppm in 6 hours of integration, limited mainly by instrumental noise. (Right panel) For faint stars (here assumed to be K-type stars with an effective temperature of 4500 K and apparent magnitude  $9 \leq V \leq 12$ ), the rms of the light curve residuals shall be  $\leq 85$  ppm in 3h integration time, dominated by instrument noise up in  $9 \leq V \leq 10$ , photon noise in  $10 \leq V \leq 11$  and stray light beyond  $V \approx 11$ .

### 2.2.1.2 CHEOPS expected performance

Photon noise, read-out noise and quantization noise can be considered as white noises, following

$$N_{\text{white}} = \frac{N_{\text{white}}^{\text{exp}}}{\sqrt{\text{number of exposures}}}$$

where  $N_{\text{white}}^{\text{exp}}$  is the noise per exposure. On the other hand, other noise sources are considered to be systematic and their values are considered either not to average out with time (e.g. analogue electronics stability) or, if they decrease with time, this effect was estimated through dedicated simulations (e.g. PSF + pointing jitter + flat-field uncertainties).



The input parameters to calculate the noise budget are listed in Table 3.

*Table 3: Input parameters for the noise budget*

Parameter	Value
PSF radius	12 pixels
Photometric aperture radius	30 pixels
Read-out noise (CCD & electronics)	18 e <sup>-</sup> /pixel for $t_{\text{exp}} < 2.33$ s 12e <sup>-</sup> /pixel for $t_{\text{exp}} > 2.33$ s
Quantization noise	16 bits
Pixel size	13 $\mu\text{m}$
Angular scale	1 arcsec/pixel
Pixel full well capacity	114,000 e <sup>-</sup>
Image size	200×200 pixels
Operating temperature	233 K
Detector temperature stability	0.01 K
Dark current at 233 K	0.08 e <sup>-</sup> /pixel/s
Flat field uncertainty	0.1%
Maximum allowed Earth straylight noise <sup>5</sup>	5 ppm for bright stars 70 ppm for faint stars
Zodiacal light flux	4.02 e <sup>-</sup> /pixel/s

<sup>5</sup> The different levels for bright ( $V \leq 9$ ) and faint ( $V > 9$ ) stars come from the different requirements in terms of achievable photometric precision.

Detector gain variability	10 ppm
Detector quantum efficiency variability	10 ppm
Timing error	2 ppm
Analog electronics stability	10 ppm
Pointing jitter	4 arcsec rms
Cosmic ray flux	1 hit in the PSF/minute (1 cosmic ray affects 4 pixels on average)

The maximum Earth straylight noise allocation corresponds to a contribution to the noise budget is  $\sim 5$  ppm for bright stars with  $V$ -band magnitudes  $6 \leq V < 9$  and  $\sim 70$  ppm for faint stars with  $9 \leq V < 12$ .

The noise budget is calculated for three sizing cases, that cover the science requirements on the photometric precision. These three cases include a bright star  $V=6$  (case A), an intermediate star  $V=9$  (case B) and a faint star  $V=12$  (case C). The noise is estimated for typical transit timescales of 6 (case A and B) and 3 hours (case C). The parameters that describe each case, as well as the estimated noise contribution from the different noise sources, are shown in Table 4 for illustration purpose. The values listed should be taken only as a guideline to understand how the weight of the different noise components is distributed. The Exposure Time Calculator and Transit SNR predictor implement this noise budget and allow users to estimate the signal-to-noise ratio of their observations (cf. §1.3.3).

*Table 4: Parameters and calculated values for the various noise allocations in the noise budget.*

Case	A	B	C
Star $T_{\text{eff}}$ [K]	5,500	5,500	4,500
$V$ magnitude	6	9	12
Exposure time [s]	1.05	10	60

Integration time [h]	6	6	3
Global throughput (CCD QE + Optics)	49.5%	49.5%	45.2%
Shot noise [ppm]	2.0	8.1	42.8
Background [ppm]	0.2	0.6	7.2
Cosmic rays [ppm]	7.0	7.0	9.8
Earth stray light [ppm]	5.0	5.0	70
Jitter + flat field [ppm]	5	5	5
Read-out noise (CCD) [ppm]	0.6	2.0	15.7
Dark current variation noise [ppm]	0	0.6	8.1
CCD gain variability + QE change [ppm]	10	10	10
Analog electronics stability [ppm]	10	10	10
Timing error [ppm]	2	2	2
Quantization noise [ppm]	0	0.1	0.7
<b>Error time average [ppm]</b>	<b>17.5</b>	<b>19.3</b>	<b>86.1</b>

Case A and Case B illustrate the photometric precision expected for bright targets. Both cases are below 20 ppm, therefore the SNR will be better than 5 for an Earth-size planet transiting a Sun-like star. Case C illustrates the expected photometric precision for the faintest end of the nominal stellar brightness of CHEOPS. The estimated total noise in this case is 86 ppm, providing a S/N of 30 in case there is a Neptune-size planet transiting a Sun-like star.

### 2.2.2 Simulations of example data sets

Here we show three examples of CHEOPS light curves. These light curves originate from images simulated with CHEOPSim. The simulated images are as realistic as possible. The photometric extraction was performed by the data reduction pipeline that will be used with real CHEOPS data.

The simulations addressed the study cases described below in Figure 21 to Figure 23. All simulations show a single transit event.

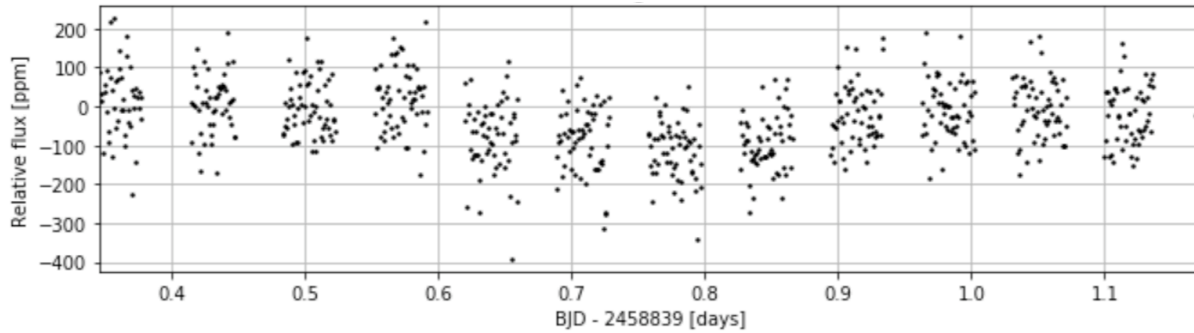


Figure 21: Case 1. A bright ( $V=6$ ) Sun-like star (G2V, 5770 K) transited by an Earth-size planet on a 50-day orbital period. The total visit duration is 20 h and the exposure time is 0.5 s. Exposures have been co-added “on-board” by stacks of 40 and the cadence is 1 min (note that these simulated data do not exactly follow the figures from Table 2, which should be used for observation preparation). The gaps are interruption of the time series by Earth occultations. There is one Earth occultation every spacecraft orbit for this target.

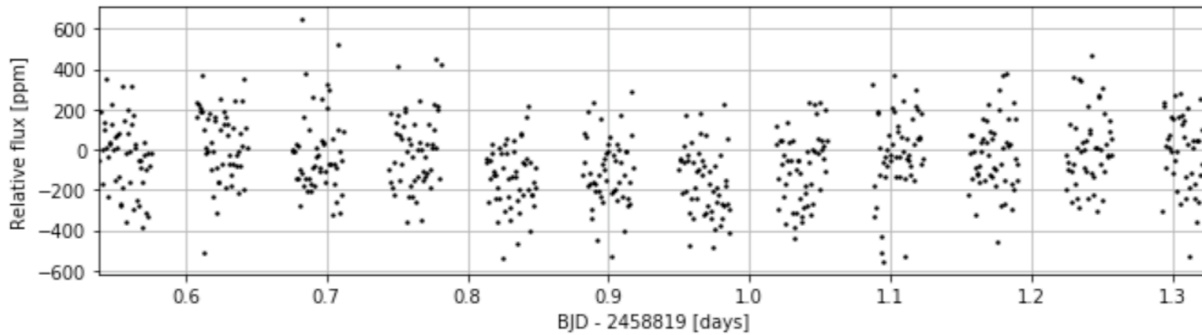


Figure 22: Case 2. A Sun-like star (G2V, 5770 K) of  $V=9$  transited by an Earth-size planet with an orbital period of 50 days. Basically, this is the same case as in Figure 21 albeit with a fainter target. The exposure time is 10 s and on-board stacks contain 6 images.

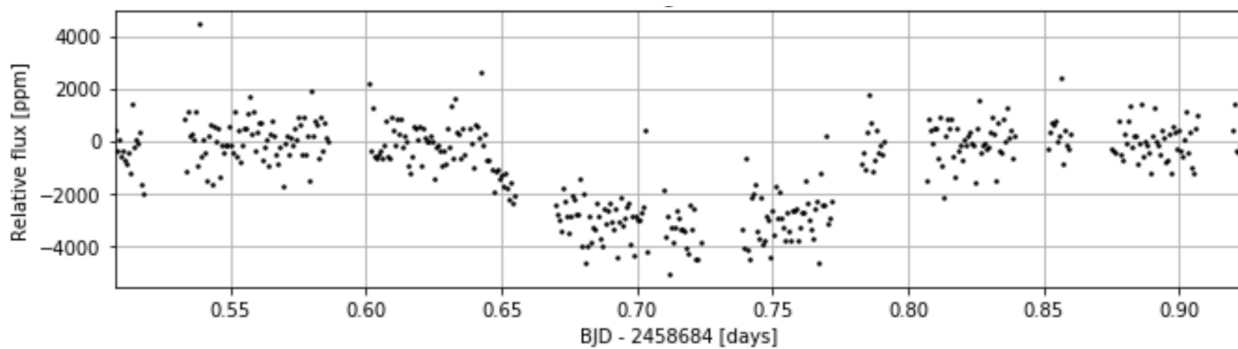


Figure 23: Case 3. A faint ( $V=12$ ) star (K5V, 4410 K) transited by a Neptune-size planet on a 13-day orbital period. The total visit duration is 10 h and exposure time is 60 s (exposures are thus not co-added).

The data products corresponding to these simulations are available for downloading and perusing from the AO webpages:

 [www.cosmos.esa.int/web/cheops-guest-observers-programme/ao-1](http://www.cosmos.esa.int/web/cheops-guest-observers-programme/ao-1)

under the section Useful data/Information.

The format, file structures and names of these simulated data files are identical to those of real CHEOPS observations, therefore readers and potential users might be interested in their manipulation. Each case data set is provided as a compressed tar file consisting of many files. Each tar file contains all products generated by SOC for a single visit. A large fraction of these files are intermediate products and log files that are not directly relevant for the end user. We provide below some guidelines to browse through these files. The nomenclature system of CHEOPS files is further described in Section 3.1.

### 2.2.2.1 High level products containing the information most relevant for data analysis

#### Data Reduction Visit Report

`CH_PR*_RPT_COR_DataReduction_V0000.pdf`.

This report provides an illustrated summary of the data reduction steps applied by the pipeline (see Sections 3.2 and 3.2.4).

#### Light curve extracted for several aperture sizes

`CH_PR*_SCI_COR_Lightcurve-{DEFAULT,OPTIMAL,RINF,RSUP}_V0000.fits`

These files also contain flags/events, estimates for background and contaminants, roll angle and target centroid position (at the cadence of stacked images, if applicable). The aperture information is provided in the DR Visit Report and as keywords `AP_RAD1` and `AP_TYPE` in the FITS file.

#### Event flags

The 'EVENT' column in the `SCI_COR_Lightcurve` data structures should be decoded according to the position of decimal digits in the flag: `|7|6|5|4|3|2|1|0|`

- pos. 0: SAA (0: outside; 1: inside) we can also define 2: border of SAA (need definition)
- pos. 1: Temperature (0: within range; 1: outside range (soft); 2: outside range (hard);
- pos. 2: EARTH (0: above threshold; 1: below threshold (soft=35 degrees); 2: below threshold (hard=25 degrees); 9: earth occultation)
- pos. 3: MOON (0: above threshold; 1: below threshold (soft=5 degrees); 2: below threshold (hard=5 degrees);)
- pos. 4: SUN (0: above threshold; 1: below threshold (soft=120 degrees); 2: below threshold (hard=120 degrees);)
- pos. 5: CR pixel (0: below threshold; 1: >1% aperture CR contaminated; 2: >5% frame CR contaminated )

For example: The event 901 means: 9=earth occultation & 0=Temp OK & 1 =inside SAA (the rest of the digits to the left of the 9 are 0 = OK)

## Corrected subarray data cube

CH\_PR\*\_SCI\_COR\_SubArray\_V0000.fits

This file contains the fully corrected stacked images, the metadata (WCS, angles between LOS and Sun/Earth/Moon), the target centroid position, and the smearing information. From these files the DRP extracts the light curves to CH\_PR\*\_SCI\_COR\_Lightcurve-\*\_V0000.fits.

**CHEOPS reduced light curves are in FITS files called  
CH\_PR\*\_SCI\_COR\_Lightcurve-\*\_V0000.fits.**

### 2.2.2.2 Mid-level products, possibly useful for deeper analysis

- Target centroid position at cadence of individual exposures:  
CH\_PR\*\_SCI\_RAW\_Centroid\_V0100.fits
- Spacecraft attitude (RA, Dec, roll) at cadence of AOCS data:  
CH\_PR\*\_SCI\_RAW\_Attitude\_V0100.fits
- Imagettes data cube at cadence of individual exposures, or at cadence of stacked imagettes if applicable:  
CH\_PR\*\_SCI\_RAW\_Imagette\_V0100.fits
- Star catalogue of Gaia field stars:  
CH\_PR\*\_EXT\_PRE\_StarCatalogue-OBSID\*\_V0000.fits
- Raw FullFrame array with side/top margins and metadata:  
CH\_PR\*\_SCI\_RAW\_FullArray\_V0100.fits
- Information based on the restituted/measured orbit (angles, latitude/longitude, Earth occultation and SAA flags):  
CH\_PR\*\_AUX\_RES\_VisitConstraints\_V0100.fits
- Quick Look reports (one per pass):  
CH\_PR\*\_RPT\_RAW\_QuickLook\_V0100.pdf
- Calibrated subarray data cube:  
CH\_PR\*\_SCI\_CAL\_SubArray\_V0000.fits

### 2.2.2.3 Low level products, mostly relevant to the SOC and the Instrument Team:

- log files: CH\_\*.log
- Raw subarray data cube: CH\_PR\*\_SCI\_RAW\_SubArray\_V0100.fits
- Raw products per pass: CH\_PR\*\_TG\*\_PS\*.fits
- Pre-processing visit report: CH\_PR\*\_RPT\_RAW\_Visit\_V0100.pdf
- House Keepings: CH\_PR\*\_SCI\_RAW\_Hk\*\_V0100.fits
- Event report: CH\_PR\*\_SCI\_RAW\_EventReport\_V0100.fits
- Visit combination summary: CH\_PR\*\_PIP\_REP\_Text-visit\_combination\_V0100.fits

#### 2.2.2.4 Differences with real data

While these simulated data sets are largely identical to expected real data from CHEOPS, a number of differences exist. They are listed below for the sake of completion but are not foreseen to impact most possible usage of these simulated data sets.

1. Roll angle is not (yet) provided in `CH_PR*_SCI_COR_Lightcurve-*_V0000.fits`. Instead, the Roll angle may be retrieved at cadence of individual exposures from `CH_PR*_SCI_RAW_Attitude_V0100.fits`.
2. Target centroid position is provided in `CH_PR*_SCI_COR_Lightcurve-OPTIMAL_V0000.fits` but in the wrong column (Location\_X/Y instead of Centroid\_X/Y)
3. Target centroid position is currently provided relative to the bottom left corner of the window frame. It will in the future be relative to the bottom left corner of the CCD full frame. The pixel coordinates of the bottom left corner of the window frame relative to the bottom left corner of the CCD is provided in the header of the first extension of `SCI_COR_SubArray` as `X/Y_WINOFF`.
4. Smearing information is empty in `CH_PR*_SCI_COR_SubArray_V0000.fits`.
5. The event flagging by the data reduction pipeline is still based on the angles to SUN/MOON/EARTH from the `AUX_RES_VisitsConstraints`, which is sampled at a 5-minute cadence. With this coarse cadence, some frames may be flagged inappropriately. For Straylight event flagging (EARTH=1 or 2), the data reduction pipeline uses angles between line-of-sight and Earth to set the flags instead of using the predicted straylight levels and applicable thresholds. Some frames may be flagged inappropriately.
6. The stacking orders and cadences of simulated data differs a bit from the up-to-date figures from Table 2 (which should be used for the preparation of observations).

### 2.2.3 Calibration, monitoring & characterisation of the instrument

#### 2.2.3.1 Ground-based calibration of the instrument

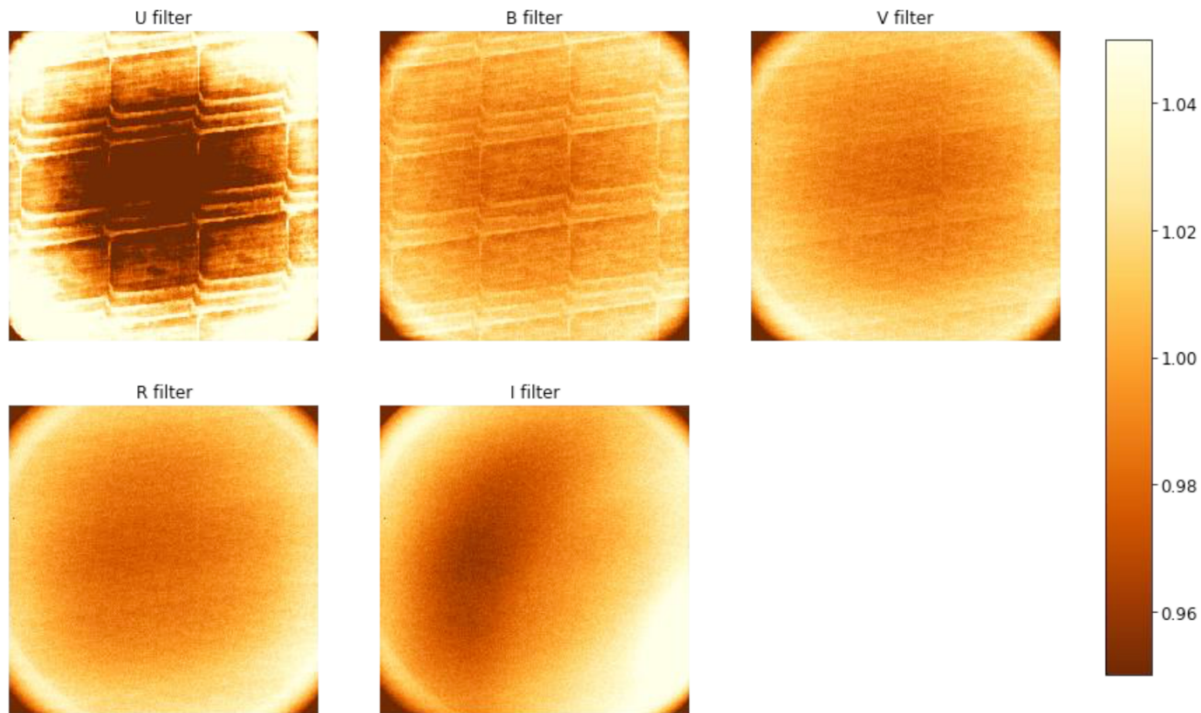
The CHEOPS instrument was calibrated on ground. This process provided reference calibration products for the bias level, read-out noise, system gain, detector pixel non-linearity and full well capacity, dark current, global throughput and flat field.

It is important to note that the majority of these on-ground activities cannot be reproduced in space.

The key results of the calibration campaign have been reproduced in this document. In particular, the measured point spread function (PSF) of the CHEOPS instrument is shown in Figure 14.

The detector flat-field is reproduced from Figure 24 to Figure 26, seen in filters of various passbands centred at different wavelengths. Measuring the flat-field in many different passbands, narrow and broad, allows a detailed characterisation of the flat-field structure. As can be seen in Figure 25, the bluest passbands showcase the “blue diamond” effect (also well visible in the broader *U* and *B* filters in Figure 24); this effect is due to surface imperfections on the silicon chip

introduced during the manufacture process. The reddest passbands, on the other hand, show the fringing effect, which is the result of interference between the incident light and the light internally reflected at the interfaces between the thin layers of the CCD chip. Both effects can lead to photometric variations when the target moves across the detector as a result of jitter motion. While the broad passband of CHEOPS allows to average out these effects for stellar targets with a broad spectral continuum, their respective influence is different for targets with different spectral types. This is why the data reduction pipeline will tailor the flat-field correction to match the spectral energy distribution of the target, which is a user-provided information. For a target with a given spectral type, the flat-field will be a composition of the monochromatic flat-fields<sup>6</sup> from Figure 25, weighted by a spectral template of the target source. The CHEOPS flat-field composed over the V band can be seen in Figure 26.



*Figure 24: Broad-band flat-fields measured on the CCD in nominal conditions (detector at  $-40^{\circ}\text{C}$  and front-end electronics at  $-10^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) with the U, B, V, R and I Johnson filters. The precision and scale are the same as in Figure 25. (Extracted from the CHEOPS Payload calibration report.)*

<sup>6</sup> The monochromatic flat-fields are not used beyond  $\sim 800\text{ nm}$  due to fringing. Instead, we make use of the flat-fields measured through the broad-band R and I filters from Figure 24.



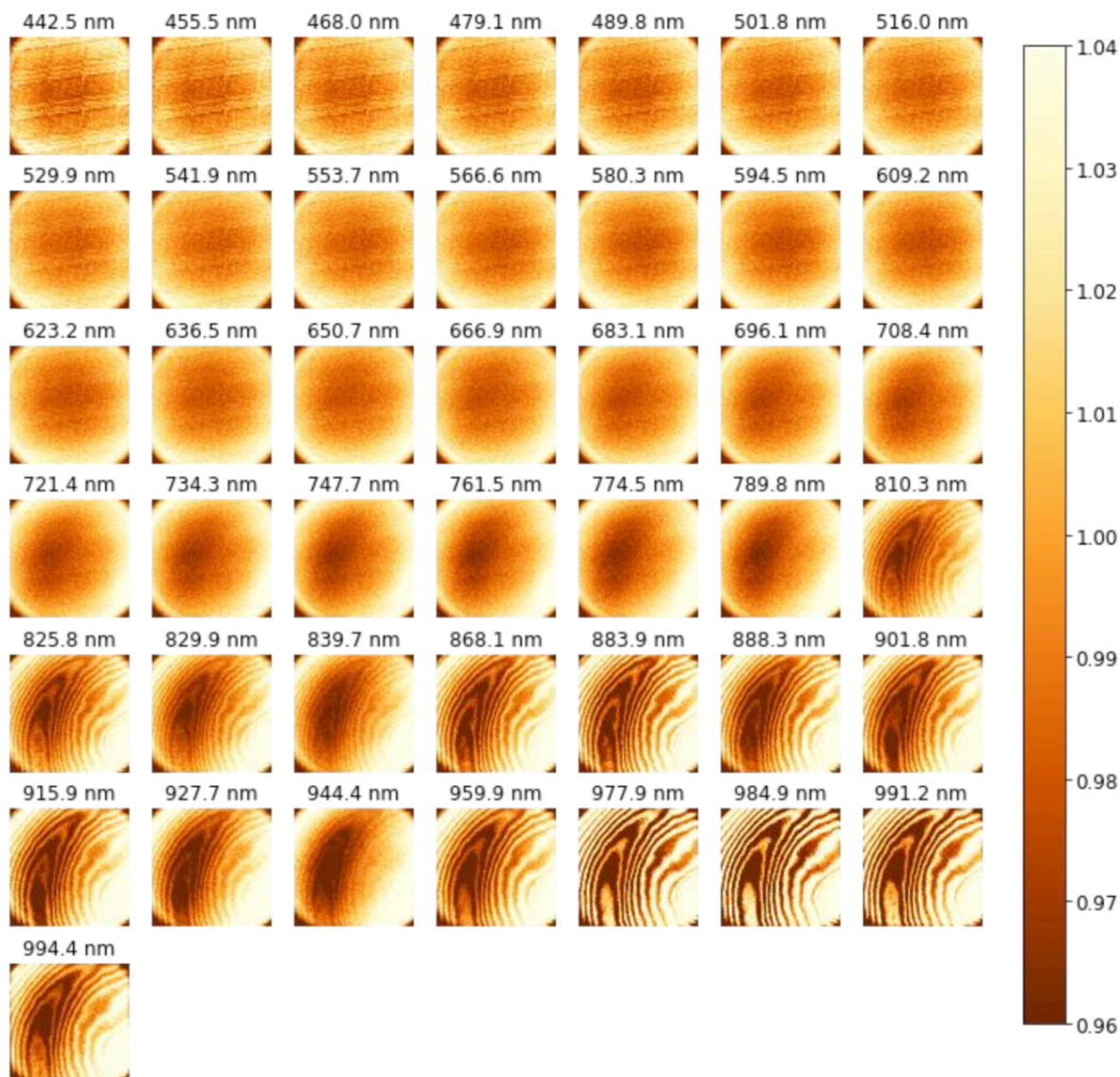


Figure 25: Monochromatic flat fields measured on the CCD in nominal conditions (detector at  $-40^{\circ}\text{C}$  and front-end electronics at  $-10^{\circ}\text{C}$ ). The bandwidth of each measurement is  $\sim 30\text{ nm}$ . The precision on each pixel is lower than  $0.1\%$  with an average precision of  $0.06\%$ . The colour bar provides a linear scale fixed between  $0.96$  and  $1.04$  to show the structure of all flat-fields. About  $90\%$  of the values are within that range. (Extracted from the CHEOPS Payload calibration report.)

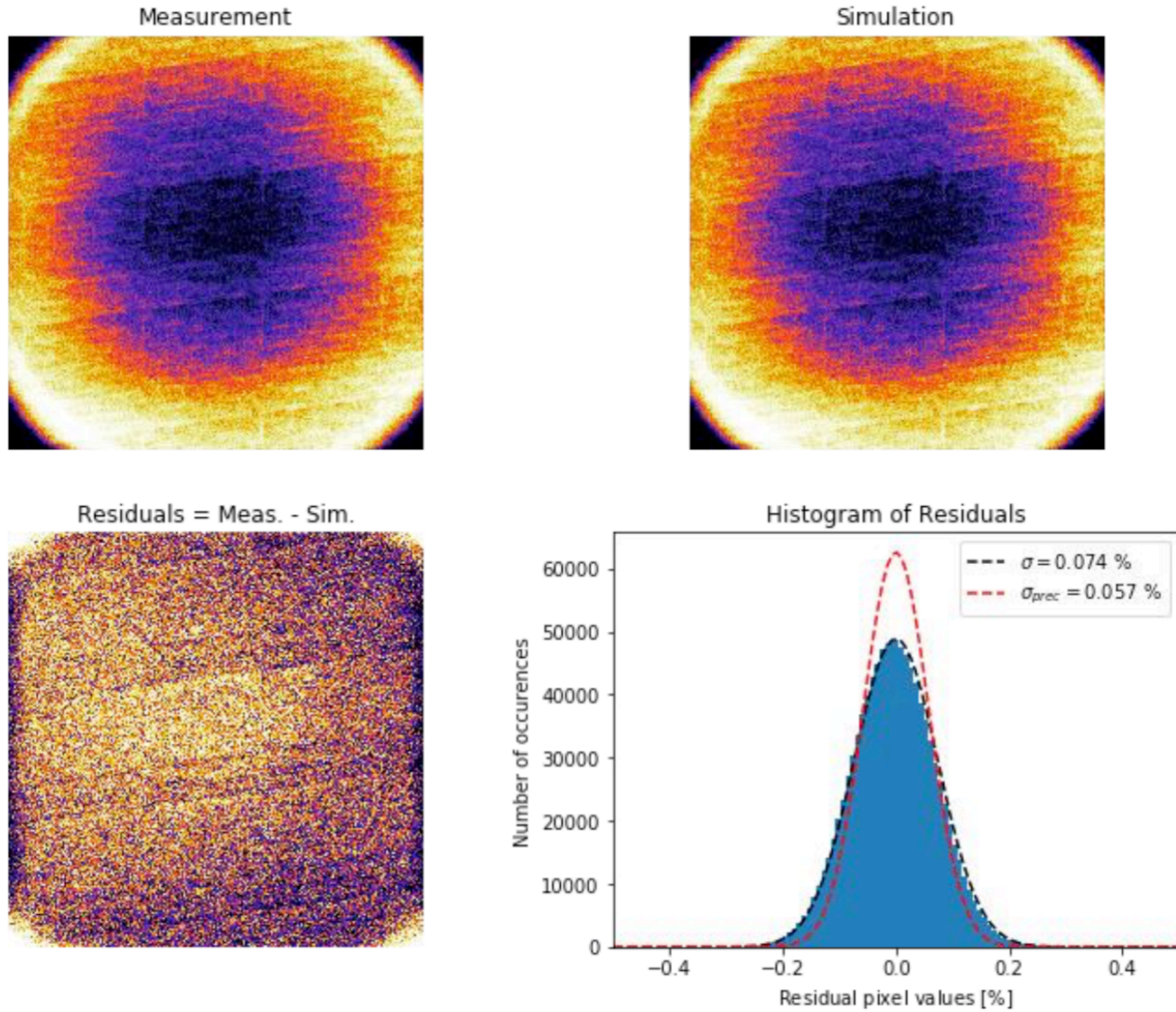


Figure 26: Result of the flat-field combination for the V filter. The upper-left image shows the flat field measured with the Johnson V filter. The upper-right image shows a flat-field synthesised as the average of the monochromatic measurements from Figure 25, weighted by the transmission spectrum of the V filter. The lower-left image is the residuals of the top-panel images. The lower-right plot shows the histogram of the residuals (in blue), with a standard deviation of 0.074%. The two dashed lines are plotted for visualisation purposes: the black one is a Gaussian distribution with the same dispersion as the residuals and the red one represents the distribution that could be reached theoretically, if we were limited only by the flat-field measurement noise (0.057%). (Extracted from the CHEOPS Payload calibration report.)

The photometric precision was measured on the calibration bench, and also ultimately limited by the calibration bench (see the Payload calibration report). In spite of this, the RMS of photometric time series measured on the calibration bench reached levels on par with the science requirements (see Figure 27).

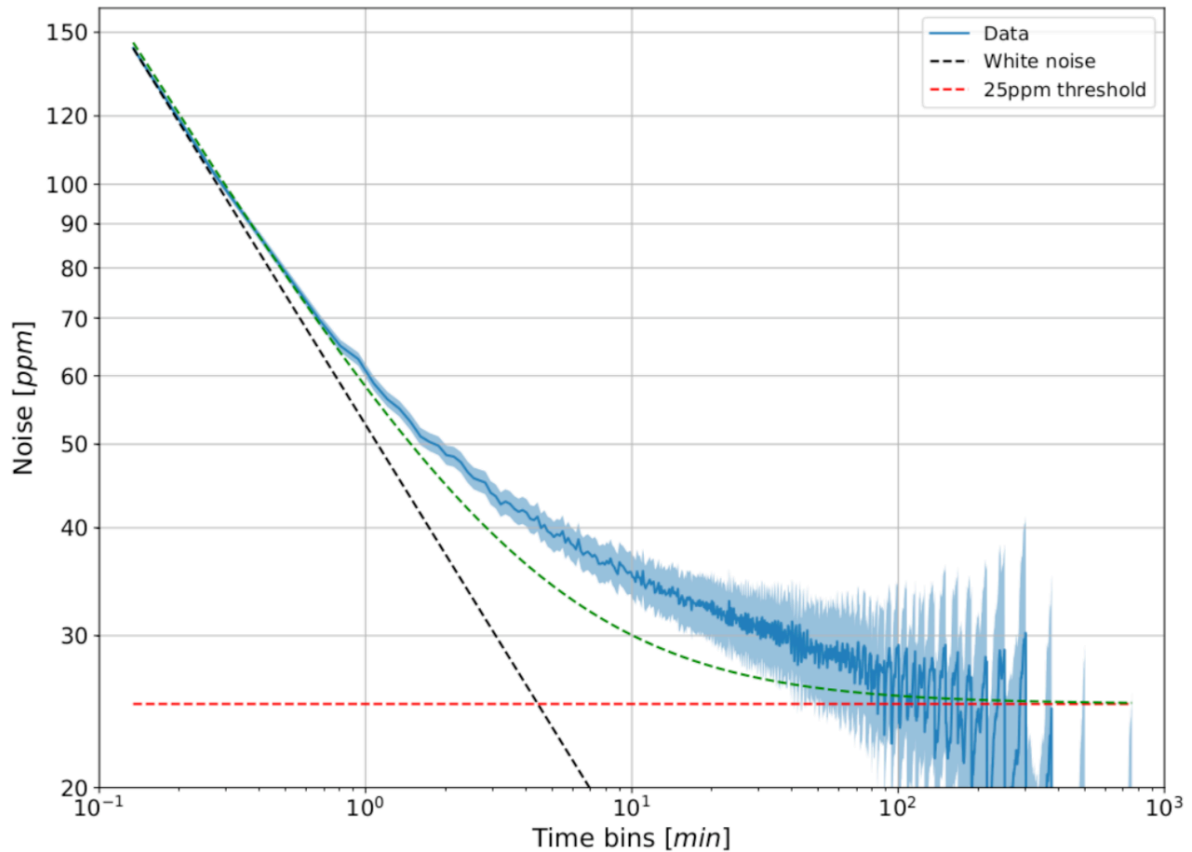


Figure 27: Noise (rms) of the residuals from a photometric time series recorded on the calibration bench, as function of the time series binning (blue curve). The sky-blue shaded area represents the  $\pm 1\sigma$  uncertainty. The black dashed line indicates the slope of a white-noise dominated time series. At a time bin of 6 hours, the noise level has reached a threshold of  $\sim 25$  ppm, likely set by the set-up of the calibration bench and not the instrument level.

### 2.2.3.2 In-orbit monitoring and characterisation programmes

CHEOPS has neither an on-board calibration lamp (to measure the flat-field) nor a shutter (to measure the dark current) and so cannot be calibrated in-orbit. Instead, during operations, we will monitor the instrument performances and characterise the instrumental systematic effects to the best precision possible through a series of dedicated programmes, called Monitoring & Characterisation (M&C) observations, and also make use of the nominal science visits themselves. The M&C programme will undertake the following activities:

- “Pseudo” flat-fielding on a crowded field;
- Mapping of the detector background (including dark current and hot pixels) on void sky regions;
- Mapping bad or dead pixels and the level of stray light from the Earth on the illuminated Earth limb;
- Monitoring the PSF and evolution of the flux sensitivity across the detector;

- Measuring the evolution of the photometric precision with some reference transit observations;
- Mapping the full well capacity and gain of the detector pixels.

During operations, analyses of the M&C data performed by the Project Science Office will be regularly posted online as Instrument Science Reports.

## 2.3 Overview of the science operations

### 2.3.1 Mission planning

The CHEOPS Consortium is responsible for Mission Planning activities. The Science Operations Centre (SOC) in Geneva automatically generates optimised long-term and weekly CHEOPS observing schedules. The optimisation process is based on a so called “merit function” used to guide the convergence of a genetic algorithm. This merit function is the weighted sum of elements such as the scientific priority (see below) of an observation request, its requested observing efficiency, or the overall balance between GTO and GO programmes of the generated timelines.

The generated mission timelines are uploaded once per week to the spacecraft. Data downlink is done whenever a ground station contact is available, typically twice per day. Each pass is processed with quick-look but data reduction is started for each visit when all related science data has been received.

#### Scientific priorities of observations

CHEOPS observations are assigned scientific priorities for scheduling purposes. These priorities are used by the schedule solver algorithm to generate optimised observation sequences. There are 3 possible grades of priorities:

1. A-grade, or priority-1, is assigned to high-priority or otherwise urgent observations. The relative fraction of priority-1 observations is kept below about 30% to ensure that their chances of being scheduled remains high, i.e. to avoid scheduling conflicts (concurrent observations) for high-priority observations.
2. B-grade, or priority-2, is assigned to the bulk of CHEOPS observations. These observations receive a neutral weight in the schedule optimisation process.
3. C-grade, or priority-3, is assigned to low-priority observations. Due to the time-critical nature of most CHEOPS observations, and to ensure a high filling factor for the observing schedule, some level of oversubscription will be required. Most of the oversubscription will be accounted for by the priority-3 observations. Consequently, over half of these priority-3 observations will not be scheduled. Note that short non-time-critical priority-3 observations would serve well as “filler” observations and have therefore a higher chance of being scheduled, considering their intrinsic low scientific priority.

### 2.3.2 On-ground data processing

The SOC automatically receives the science and housekeeping telemetry after they have been received by the Mission Operations Centre. Data are automatically processed and archived at the SOC. As a first step the binary telemetry files are converted to FITS data structures for the further data processing. This conversion is done by the pre-processing pipeline. Once all data for a given visit have been received and converted to FITS data structures, the Data Reduction Pipeline (DRP) will automatically process the data to produce the intermediate and final data products. The DRP and its data products are described in Section 3.2. The configuration of the DRP is identical for visits of the GTO and the GO programmes. After the successful processing by the DRP, all output data will be made available in the CHEOPS data archive.

### 2.3.3 Data archive

Once the data for a given visit have been successfully processed by the DRP, the data will be made available via the CHEOPS archive browser. The Principal Investigator (PI) of the relevant visits will be notified by email that data can be downloaded. ***The CHEOPS archive browser is the unique interface to access CHEOPS data.*** A link to the archive browser will be provided at the beginning of the scientific operations.

## 3 CHEOPS data

### 3.1 CHEOPS data structure

#### 3.1.1 Data levels

The data received at SOC or processed at SOC belong to well-defined *data levels*. Most of the data are stored in FITS files. The data level is defined in the FITS header keyword DATA\_LVL. The different data levels are defined below.

**Level 0**—The data received by the SOC from the Mission Operations Centre (MOC). They contain the science data, as well as the housekeeping data and auxiliary data. All Level 0 data received at SOC are directly archived and used as inputs for the data processing chains. The format of the data is either telemetry packets as downlinked from the spacecraft, XML files or plain ASCII files as produces by MOC for the auxiliary data.

**Level 0.5**—Data resulting from the pre-processing step at SOC. The telemetry data, science and housekeeping data, are converted into FITS files and sorted by visits to serve as input for the Data Reduction Pipeline or by visits and pass to serve as input for Quick Look. Housekeeping data are converted into physical values. The data are time tagged with UTC and MJD.

**Level QL**—The Quick Look processing of Level 0.5 data produces quality reports in PDF format. The data are time tagged with UTC, MJD and BJD<sub>TT</sub>.



**Level 1**—Data resulting from the processing of Level 0.5 data by the DRP. They are calibrated and corrected science images, full-array images as well as sub-array images. They include engineering meta-data associated to the science data. The data are time tagged with UTC, MJD and BJD<sub>TT</sub>.

**Level 2**—Data resulting from the processing of the Level 1 images by the DRP. They consist of photometric time series (light curves) and associated meta-data. These are the CHEOPS final science products, which are expected to be used as input to the science analysis by scientists.

**AUX**—Auxiliary data converted from the auxiliary data of Level 0 into FITS files. Sorting and merging data from several deliveries from MOC can be implemented, depending on the type of the auxiliary data.

**MPS**—Planning data, generated by the Mission Planning System. These are the activity plan, sent to MOC as well as the planning data used by the pre-processing to assign the data, receive by MOC, to a planned visit.

**REF**—Reference data, obtained from on-ground calibrations and in-orbit monitoring and characterisation programmes. These data are not generated by SOC but received from the Instrument Team and the Project Science Office. They are used in various steps of the data processing at SOC.

**EXT**—Externally delivered data like catalogues or the contour map of the SAA.

**SOC**—Data generated at SOC in a manual processing step.

**SIM**—Simulated data created by CHEOPSim.

### 3.1.2 Types of CHEOPS files and file nomenclature

The names of CHEOPS output files follow the format:

```
CH_PRppnnnnn_TGooooonn_PSyymmhhdd_TUyyyy-mm-ddThh-mm-ss_DataStructureDefinition-DataName_Vnnnn.fits,
```

where the component strings separated by an underscore ( ) are described below. First, here is an example:

```
CH_PR100040_TG002004_PS19010406_TU2019-01-03T16-32-27_SCI_RAW_SubArray_V0000.fits
```

Examples of (simulated) CHEOPS data sets can be found in Section 2.2.2.

*Table 3: Description of CHEOPS file names*

Name	Description
CH	Abbreviation of CHEOPS.

PRppnnnn	<p>A programme ID consisting of two digit (pp) identifying the type of programme (Programme_Type), followed by a four-digit (nnnn) arbitrary number (Programme_ID), starting with 0000.</p> <p>This component is skipped in the file name if the data do not belong to a specific programme, like auxiliary data or reference data.</p>
TGooooon	<p>The visit of the target in an observation request. It consists of four digits (oooo) defining the observation request ID and two digits (nn) counting the visits of the target within the observation request. The programme ID together with the target visit defines the visit ID.</p> <p>This component is skipped in the file name if the data do not belong to a specific programme, like auxiliary data or reference data.</p>
PSyymmhhdd	<p>The pass ID, defined by the time (year, month, day and hour) of the pass. This component is skipped in the file name if the data do not belong to a specific pass, like auxiliary data or reference data.</p>
TUyyyy-mm-ddThh-mm-ss	<p>A timestamp. It is the time of the first data in the FITS / XML file expressed in UTC. For reference data with no data time, it is the start time of validity.</p>
DataSetDefinition	<p>The name of the main data structure definition in the product. This is typically the name of the first extension but has to be defined case by case. For log files it is the program that created the log file.</p>
DataSetName	<p>The name of the data to distinguish data for the same time period in the same DataSetDefinition. This is an optional field.</p>
Vnnnn	<p>The first two digits of this version defines the archive revision while the last two digits define the processing number in case the same data have to be processed more than once.</p>

CHEOPS files can belong to the following categories.

- Files types of corrected data:
  - o SCI\_COR\_Lightcurve
  - o SCI\_COR\_SubArray
  - o PIP\_COR\_Centroid

- PIP\_COR\_BadPixelMapSubArray
- Files types of calibrated data:
  - SCI\_CAL\_SubArray
- Files types of raw data:
  - SCI\_RAW\_FullArray
  - SCI\_RAW\_SubArray
  - SCI\_RAW\_Imagette
  - SCI\_RAW\_Attitude
  - SCI\_RAW\_Centroid
  - SCI\_RAW\_EventReport
  - SCI\_RAW\_HkAsy30759
  - SCI\_RAW\_HkDefault
  - SCI\_RAW\_HkExtended
  - SCI\_RAW\_HklaswDg
  - SCI\_RAW\_HklaswPar
  - SCI\_RAW\_HklbswDg
  - SCI\_RAW\_HklbswPar
  - SCI\_RAW\_Hklfsw
- Reference file types:
  - REF\_APP\_BadPixelMap
  - REF\_APP\_BiasFrame
  - REF\_APP\_CCDLinearisationLUT100
  - REF\_APP\_ColouredPSF
  - REF\_APP\_DarkColumns
  - REF\_APP\_DarkFrame
  - REF\_APP\_EventEnumConversion
  - REF\_APP\_EventParamConversion
  - REF\_APP\_FlatFieldFilter
  - REF\_APP\_FlatFieldTeff
  - REF\_APP\_FluxConversion
  - REF\_APP\_GainCorrection
  - REF\_APP\_HkEnumConversion
  - REF\_APP\_HkParamConversion
  - REF\_APP\_Limits
  - REF\_APP\_PixelScale
  - REF\_APP\_QE
  - REF\_APP\_SEDFilter
  - REF\_APP\_SEDTeff
  - REF\_APP\_Throughput
  - REF\_APP\_VisitConstraints

### 3.1.3 CHEOPS file structures

Most of the CHEOPS data are provided in FITS files. The primary array is never used to store data, even if the FITS file stores an image. The Extension Name (EXTNAME) is identical to the data structure name as defined in the Data Product Definition Document (DPDD). The DPDD is part of the AO documentation package available via the AO web pages:



 [www.cosmos.esa.int/web/cheops-guest-observers-programme/ao-1](http://www.cosmos.esa.int/web/cheops-guest-observers-programme/ao-1)

under the section headed Useful data/Information.

The first extension in the FITS file stores the main data product of the file. Its Extension Name is repeated in the file name.

### 3.1.4 Headers, keywords and relationship to Phase 2 parameters

Several of the parameters provided in the PHT2 are copied into Header Keywords. Table 4 shows the relation between the Phase 2 parameters and the FITS Header Keywords.

Phase 2 parameter	FITS header keyword
Right Ascension	RA_TARG
Declination	DEC_TARG
Target Name	TARGNAME
Target V magnitude	MAG_V
Target V magnitude error	MAG_VERR
Proprietary Period First Visit	PRP_VST1
Proprietary Period Last Visit	PRP_VSTN
Spectral Type	SPECTYPE
Exposure Time	EXPTIME

*Table 4: Correspondence between FITS header keywords and Phase 2 parameters.*

### 3.1.5 Errors and data quality flags

There are two columns in the light-curve table that provide information about the quality of the data:

- STATUS: A flag indicating the status of the measurements.
- EVENT: A flag indicating the possible events that might affect the measurement (without necessarily invalidating it).

### 3.1.6 Coordinate systems

#### 3.1.6.1 Sky coordinates

Sky coordinates are provided in right ascension (RA) and declination (DEC) J2000. The coordinate reference frame is ICRS. An exception are the sky coordinates of the target star and the background stars in the CHEOPS Sky Catalogue, i.e. in the data structure EXT\_PRE\_StarCatalogue. These are provided at the epoch of the visit (keyword OBSEPOCH).

The CHEOPS Sky Catalogue used by the SOC is based on information available via the Gaia DR2.

### 3.1.6.2 Pixel coordinates

The following conventions apply whenever a CCD pixel is addressed by its coordinated  $(x,y)$  in a SOC data structure: The bottom left pixel of the illuminated area of the CCD (i.e. the CCD without margins) has coordinates  $(0,0)$ . The coordinates of the top right pixel of the illuminated area are  $(1023,1023)$ .

Pixels offsets, for example defining the location of the sub-frame window on the CCD, are always relative to pixel  $(0,0)$ .

The following conventions are used whenever a location on the CCD is defined, for example the intended or the actual location of the centre of the target star: The location is specified with an accuracy of  $1/100^{\text{th}}$  of a pixel, i.e. in centi-pixels. The bottom left pixel of the illuminated area (i.e. the CCD without margins) has coordinates from  $(0.00,0.00)$  to  $(0.99,0.99)$ . The centre of that pixel has coordinates  $(0.50,0.50)$ . The centre of the top right pixel of the illuminated areas has the coordinates  $(1023.50,1023.50)$ . The centre of the illuminated CCD has the coordinates  $(512.00,512.00)$ .

### 3.1.7 Time references

There are 4 different times provided with the data, depending on their *data level*.

- On-board-time (OBT)
  - o Level 0.5
- UTC
  - o Level 0.5
  - o Level 1
  - o Level 2
- MJD (TT)
  - o Level 0.5
  - o Level 1
  - o Level 2
- BJD (TT)
  - o Level 1
  - o Level 2

## 3.2 Data Reduction Pipeline: overview and algorithms

### 3.2.1 Pipeline processing overview

The Data Reduction Pipeline (DRP) is in charge of reducing the series of raw images in a given visit, the Level 0.5 data products, to produce the corresponding flux time series, ready for the

scientific analyses. These light curves, called Level 2 Data Products, are then archived in the CHEOPS data archive. The DRP is run automatically once triggered by the processing framework. There is no interaction with external agent and there is no interactive configuration of the pipeline. The pipeline is implemented in Python 3.4.

### 3.2.2 Structure of the pipeline (module description & flowcharts)

cisc

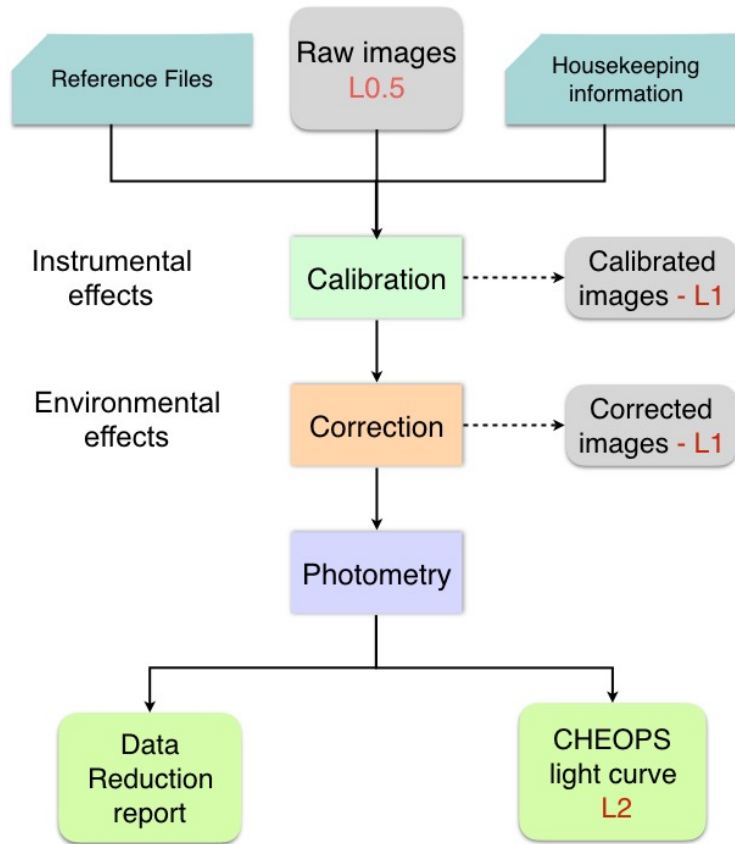


Figure 28: General flow chart diagram of the data reduction pipeline.

A complete description of the DRP will be provided in a forthcoming paper. Here, we provide a general overview of the different steps of the data processing chain. It follows the regular stages in photometric data reduction but is adapted to CHEOPS specificities, which are

- the rotation of the platform inducing a rotation of the field of view around the target;
- the relatively small field of view;

- the point spread function of the instrument.

The DRP is divided into 3 main components: calibration, correction, and photometry, as shown in Figure 28. Each component is made of successive processing steps (Figure 29) which are run sequentially as the output of one step is used as an input for the following one. In addition to the reduced light curves, the pipeline issues a report which allows the user to get direct insights on how every steps of the data reduction went (see §3.2.4). The successive processing steps are described in the next sections.

In its pre-launch version, the pipeline has been established using CHEOPS simulated data and inputs from the CCD characterization done in laboratory. Its performances have been assessed using simulated data of typical astrophysical configuration as provided by CHEOPSim. It will be updated and optimised when real data from the in-orbit commissioning and the characterisation and monitoring activities will be available.

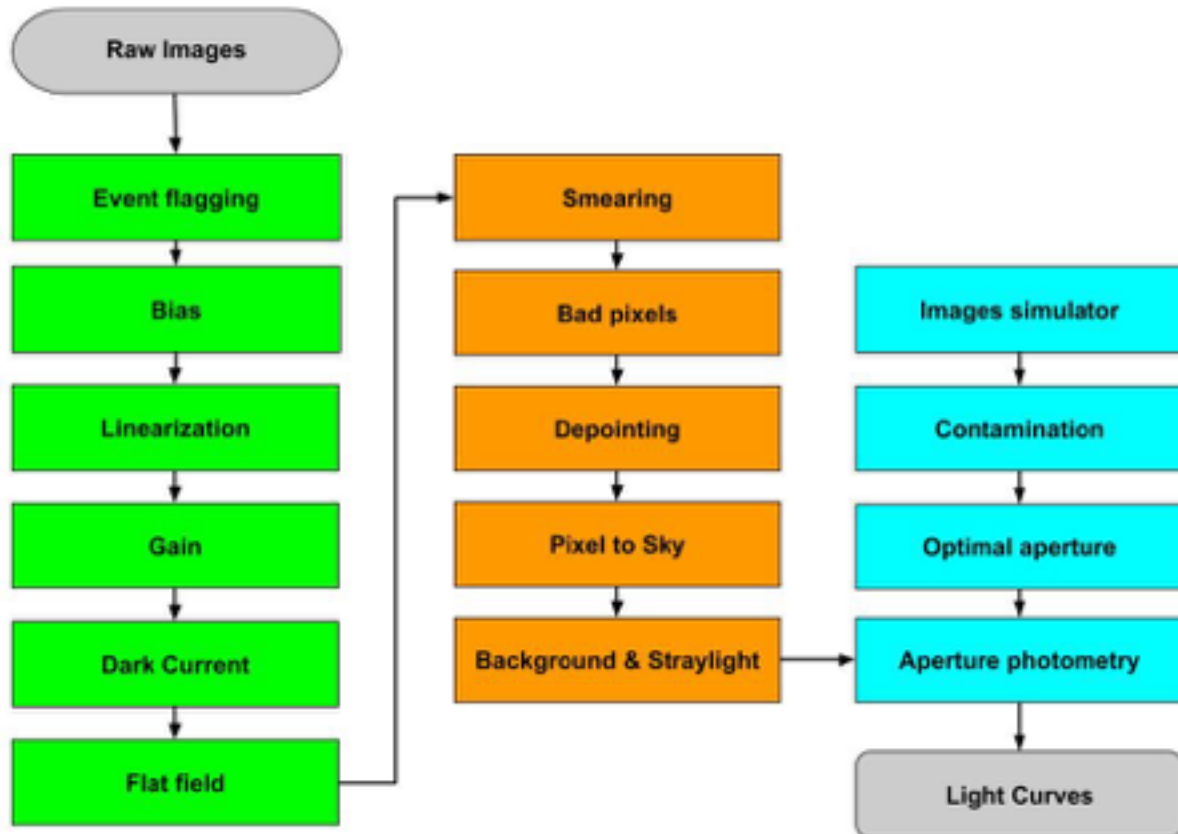


Figure 29: Flow chart diagram of the data reduction pipeline with the successive reduction steps. The colour code corresponds to the three successive modules: calibration (green), correction (orange) and photometry (blue).

### 3.2.3 Data flow through the pipeline

The calibration step transforms the raw images downlinked from the instrument, into calibrated photo-electrons images. It removes the bias introduced by the analogue chain, restores the ADU (Analog Digital Unit) image back to electrons, evaluates and corrects the dark current.

The correction step gathers all the modules that are correcting for environmental or instrumental effects affecting the images. Starting from the calibrated image in electrons, smearing trails produced by the target and nearby stars are corrected, then bad pixels are identified and corrected. Finally, the background, zodiacal, and stray lights are measured and subtracted.

The last step of the reduction pipeline is the photometric extraction during which several light curves are extracted from the corrected image series with their associated metrics. An automatic execution report is then generated, and these data are transferred to the archive.

#### 3.2.3.1 Calibration

Inputs to this module are the Level 0.5 data products. The sequence of processing steps in the Calibration component that produces Level 1 calibrated images and their associated uncertainties consists of the regular processing steps in photometry:

- the event flagging;
- the bias and read-out noise estimate;
- the gain and nonlinearity corrections;
- the dark current correction;
- the flat-field correction.

In addition to the 200 columns and 200 rows of physical pixels that correspond to the photo-sensitive CCD image area, special rows and columns in the margins of the image are downlinked. They consist of 4 pre-scan, 8 unused blank, and 32 dark columns plus 6 overscan and 3 dark rows.

**Bias and read out**—This correction includes (i) the removal of the temporal variation due to thermal effects of both read out noise and stabilised offset voltage applied to the amplifier before analogue-to-digital conversion, and (ii) the pixel to pixel differences of the bias. The first correction is performed using the mean and standard deviation of all available pixels of the pre-scan columns which contain no photo-electrons nor thermally excited electrons. The second correction is carried out using images taken with zero exposure time during ground-based calibration of the CCD or during the commissioning of the instrument.

**Non-linearity**—The number of ADU counts for a given pixel is not a linear function of the number of photo-electrons, in particular outside the linear zone. The deviation from linearity has been measured from a series of repeated exposures with different exposure times acquired during the ground-based characterization of the CCD and the calibration of the instrument. In this pre-launch version, the DRP is ensuring the non-linearity correction even for on-board stacked images. While this approach is not fully optimal for very bright stars due to the complex shape of the PSF, it will

give the possibility to further implement the correction on-board before the stacking of the images, depending on the inflight CCD characterization. The DRP will then be updated accordingly.

**Dark current**—The characterization of the CCD in the laboratory have shown that the pixel-to-pixel dark current is very low, on average  $0.06 \text{ e}^-/\text{s}/\text{pix}$ , resulting in  $3.6 \text{ e}^-/\text{pix}$  for a one-minute exposure, below the read-out noise. In the pre-launch version of the DRP, there is no correction of that static dark current. It will be updated if the data acquired in flight show it is necessary. The correction is dynamically evaluated using the dedicated blind pixels provided by the 32 dark columns. The median value is the dark while the dispersion is the readout noise. Indeed, pixels in a given column being read in sequence, their dark current is a function of time with 4.63 s difference between the read out of the first pixel and those of last pixel of the full  $1024 \times 1024$  frame.

**Flat-field**—To correct the variation in pixel-to-pixel response in the best manner, CHEOPS uses chromatic flat fields, adapted to the spectral energy distribution of the target. These chromatic flat-fields are built as the weighted linear combination of monochromatic flat fields at wavelengths from 400 nm to 1100 nm acquired in the laboratory (see §2.2.3.1). In the red part where fringing is observed in the flat fields, the broad-band / filter is used instead of the narrow-band flats. For a given target, the weights are calculated from the expected values of the target spectral energy distribution (SED) at each of these wavelengths and associated bandwidth, taking into account the throughput and quantum efficiency. The SED is derived through a collection of 40 stellar SED ranging from 3700 K to 7200 K. In addition, there is the possibility to use a simple black body distribution. The correction will have the flexibility to accommodate for flat-field updates from the in-flight monitoring and characterisation activities.

**Gain**—Each exposure is corrected using the model derived from the on-ground characterisation of the CCD.

**Orbital events flagging**—The low-altitude orbit induces some events that are fully predictable and directly impact the quality of the data and thus the duty cycle of the observations. This is the case of the South Atlantic Anomaly (SAA) crossing which results in a high increase of the number of high energy protons impacts. The Earth illumination has also an influence on the satellite, especially during the transition from light to penumbra/shadow and the reverse producing temperature variations. Depending on the pointing direction, the Sun, Earth and Moon reflected light can affect the data, resulting in a significant degradation of the duty cycle. The minimal avoidance angles for an exposure to be valid are  $120^\circ$  for the Sun,  $35^\circ$  for the Earth, and  $5^\circ$  for the Moon. The events flagging module is thus in charge of identifying the images that were acquired in poor observing conditions. It is done using an orbital model reconstruction and following housekeeping temperatures.

**Geometric model**—This model is used to transform the coordinates of the target star into (x,y) coordinates in the CCD frames and vice versa.

### 3.2.3.2 Correction

Inputs to this module are the calibrated images produced by the previous steps in photo-electrons counts. This component of the pipeline includes the following successive processing steps

- the smear correction;
- the bad pixels flagging and correction;
- the cosmic ray hits flagging and correction;
- the background and stray light correction.

A description of the main science algorithms used in the correction module are presented below.

**Smearing**—The telescope has no shutter and thus the CCD remains exposed while the transfer process is in progress. As a consequence, at each readout, vertical transfer smear trails are generated. In most configurations, the target itself is expected to be the source of smearing trails, as seen in Figure 30. However, bright stars on the CCD, even outside the subarray, will also produce their own smearing trails.

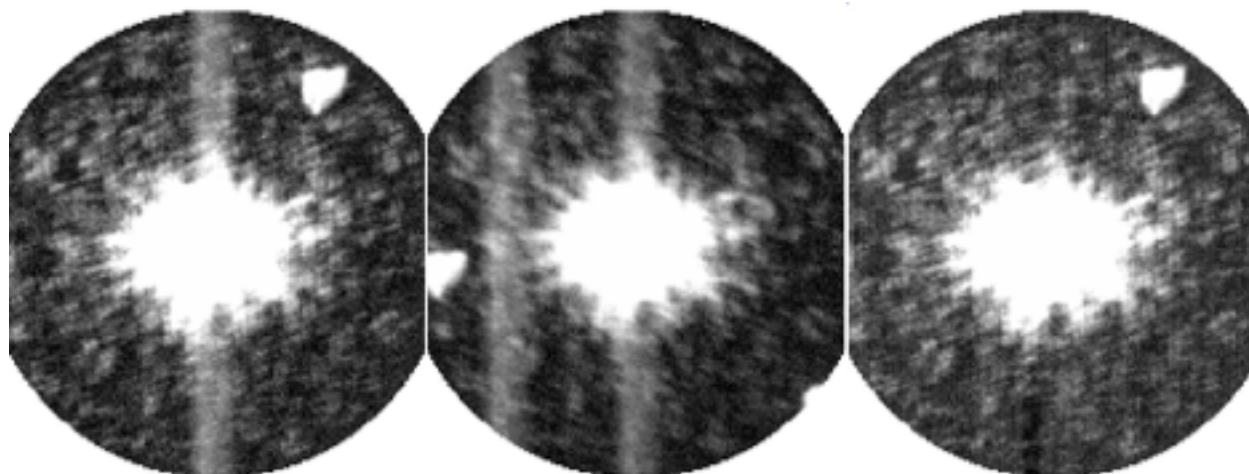


Figure 30: (Left and centre) Example of smearing trails produced by the bright target and a nearby star outside the subarray. (Right) Example of the final image, after correction.

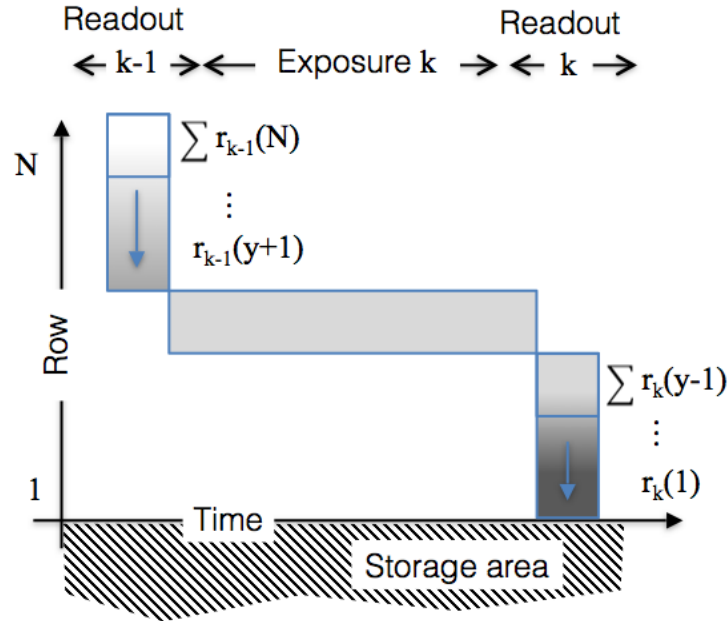


Figure 31: Process of charge transfer. When exposure  $k$  starts, the pixel at the row  $y$  in a given column has received the charges of pixels  $N$  to  $(y+1)$  from readout  $(k-1)$ . At readout  $k$ , it will sweep across pixels  $(y-1)$  to  $1$  to reach the storage area.  $r_k(y)$  is the flux that reaches pixel  $y$  during readout  $k$ .

In a standard smear correction procedure, for a frame  $k$ , the smear estimate in a given pixel is done using the average value of the top overscan pixels, divided by the number of pixels in a column of the whole CCD. This usual correction however assumes a static image which is not the case for CHEOPS. Indeed, the field rotation combined with the jitter makes the field on the CCD slightly different between two consecutive exposures. As a consequence, the charge in a given pixel will sweep across two different images during the transfer process to the storage area. To illustrate this effect, let us consider a pixel at position  $y$  on the CCD (Figure 31). During the transfer of the frame  $k-1$ , its well will collect the flux of all the pixels in the upper part of the same column, that is pixels  $N$  to  $y+1$ . Then during the transfer of the frame  $k$ , the stored charges will be transferred to the storage area and will now cross all the pixels of a different image in the lower part of the same column, that is pixels  $y-1$  to  $1$ . To account for this effect, visible as the asymmetry of upper and lower trails of Figure 30, the correction is made using both overscan pixels of frame  $k-1$  and frame  $k$ , following

$$f_k(y) = \sum_{i=y+1}^N r_{k-1}(i) + \sum_{i=1}^{y-1} r_k(i),$$

where  $f_k(y)$  is the smeared flux collected by the pixel  $y$  of image  $k$  after crossing the whole image and  $r_{k-1}(y)$  is the flux that reaches pixel  $y$  during readout  $k-1$ .

**Bad pixels**—The bad pixels module detects and corrects pixels that give a temporary or a permanent abnormal response. Three different kinds of bad pixels are considered by the pipeline, which identified them through different algorithms:

- Hot/dead pixels, i.e. pixels that are damaged and whose flux sensitivity is abnormal.



- Random telegraphic signals (RTS) due to discrete changes of the pixel behaviour, caused for instance by irradiation or fluctuations in the current.
- Cosmic ray hits on the CCD with energy deposit over a strip range of pixels, depending on the angle of incidence.

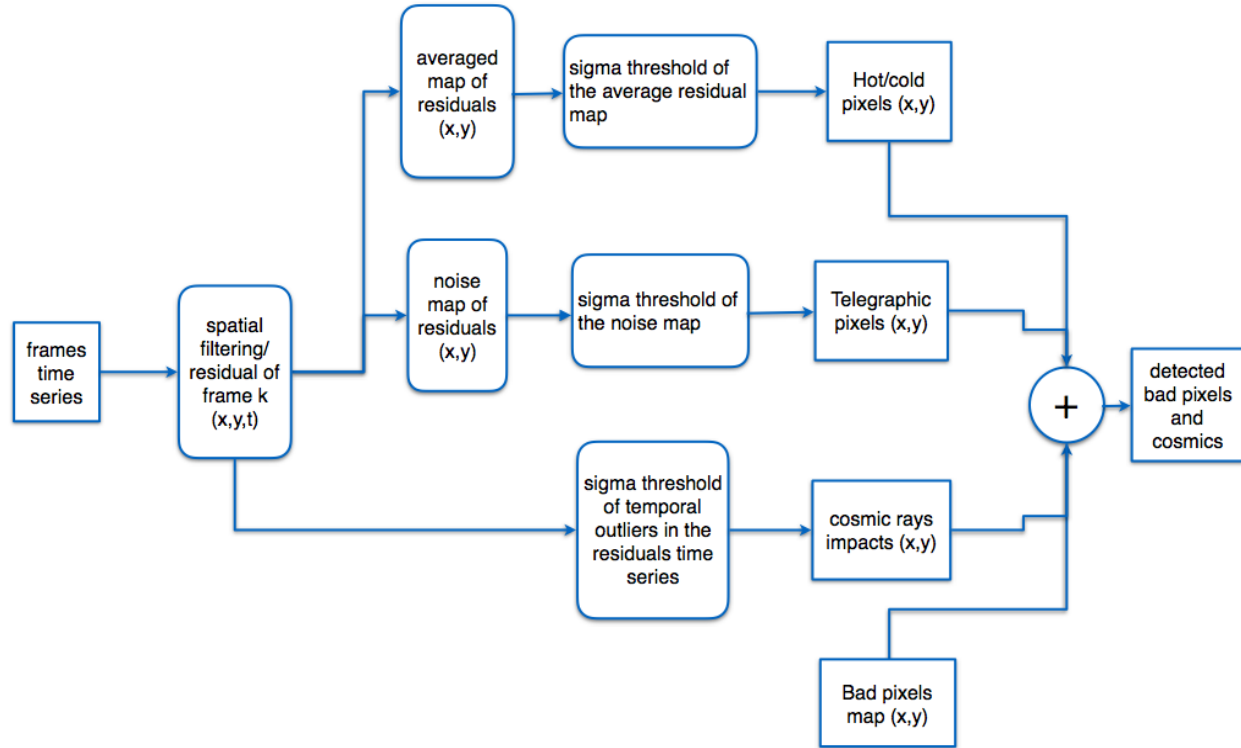


Figure 32: Flow chart for the bad pixel detection algorithm. Note the bad pixels map is one of the input reference files.

Whatever their nature, bad pixels are searched for and identified in the complete subarray, that is not only the pixels of the target PSF pixels but also those of the background. Figure 32 presents a flow chart describing the bad pixels identification algorithm. The outliers identification is done on the image time series. To remove the variations due to field motions and stellar signal, each image is filtered with a 2D median  $10 \times 10$  pixels filter and the residuals are then calculated as the difference between the time series and the filtered one. Two maps are then created: one is the time average of each residual, the second one is its dispersion in time. On the first map, positive and negative outliers are identified as hot/cold pixels by applying a threshold to the absolute value. Random telegraphic signals are identified from the second map as noisy pixels. Cosmic ray hits, which are sudden events that affect a single image in the series, are identified through a time-varying estimate of the residuals for each pixel. At the very last step, this dynamic bad pixel events identification is merged with the map that has been built from the characterisation of the CCD in laboratory. This map will be later updated with in-orbit characterisation and monitoring of the instrument. As a result of the detection step, a temporal series of maps of the sub-array is built, with all pixels flagged according to their status:

- -2 = totally dead pixel;
- -1 = partially dead pixel;
- 0 = ok (good pixel);
- 1 = hot pixel;
- 2 = saturated pixel;
- 3 = “telegraphic” pixel (random telegraphic signals; bad pixel serendipitously changing values).

Bad pixels are corrected by interpolation of adjacent pixels using a 2-D cubic spline.

Applying a threshold for outliers detection is not straightforward in the case of CHEOPS because (i) the noise is not stationary due the permanent roll, and (ii) shot noise is dominated by the jitter noise at pixel level, especially near the centre of the target PSF, which exhibit sharp gradients. To mitigate possible issues with long integration exposures, short exposure *imagettes* will be downloaded to increase the cosmic ray contrast. These imagettes are 35 pixels in diameter, centred on the target, made of sub-stacks of one or more readouts. They are processed by the pipeline the same way as the regular frames but without the dark correction and flat fielding, as they are not used for photometry purposes but for cosmic ray identification. For each imagette, a cosmic ray map is built. The sub-stack imagettes are then put in the same reference frame so that to identify which pixels have been flagged, as imagettes could be affected by the jitter. Once a pixel on the target PSF is identified as being impacted on one of the imagette by a cosmic, its value on the sub-array is replaced by its cosmic ray-cleaned pixel value and the associated bad pixels map is updated accordingly. Finally, the statistics of bad pixel detection per frame/image is given in detail in the DRP report.

**Background and straylight correction**— These two components are not evaluated separately but as a single quantity labeled as “background”. This estimation of the total background component does not rely on the interpolation of the flux of dark windows as usually implemented for high precision photometry because of the field rotation. Indeed, taking into account the rotation would involve a continuous adjustment of the windows position, generating an additional noise. Instead, a mask is generated on the sub-array which excludes the corners, in case of square image, and the central target (Figure 33, left). It follows the target centroid and is large enough so that to ensure that (i) it remains insensitive to the field motion, and (ii) it maximises the number of pixels used for the background flux estimate. The latter is done by calculating the histogram of the flux of all pixels inside the mask. A skewed Gaussian function is then fitted to this flux distribution to determine its maximum value as illustrated in Figure 33 (right). This produces an estimate of the local background robust to the field rotation, the target local environment and possible bad pixel correction residuals or cosmic ray impacts, if not fully corrected. In addition, the method is also immune to possible stray light gradient as the mask is symmetric. Once the background is measured for a given frame, the frame is corrected by subtracting the estimated value from the whole calibrated, bad pixel-corrected target pixels values. The corresponding background light curve is built and provided to the user.

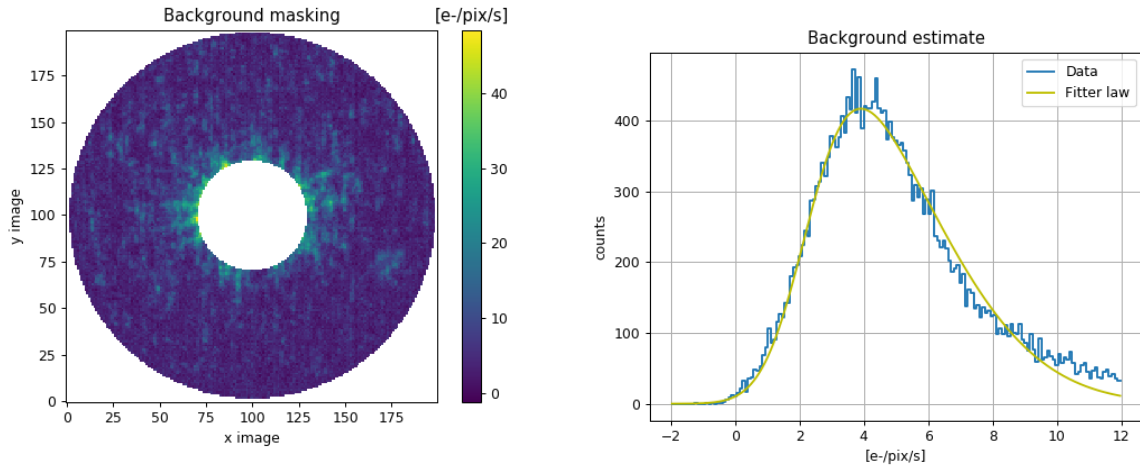


Figure 33: (Left) Example of a mask used for the background estimation. The target and the corners of the square sub-array are excluded from the mask. (Right) Histogram of the flux of all the pixels encompassed by the background mask (blue) and the best skewed Gaussian fit. Possible contaminating stars will contribute to the tail of the distribution.

### 3.2.3.3 Photometry

The last step in the data flow is the extraction of photometric signal of the target. It is done using an aperture photometry method. The latter uses a binary mask, centred on the target photocenter to follow the pointing jitter. The border of the mask is properly weighted at subpixel level. For all targets, the pipeline provides the light curve derived using a default aperture of 33 pixels in radius. However, as the size of the aperture that will optimise the signal-to-noise ratio depends in fact on a number of factors such as the target magnitude and the local crowding, three additional light curves, derived with different aperture radii, are also provided.

To that purpose, simulated CHEOPS images of the field-of-view corresponding to the sub-array are calculated (Figure 34). These images include not only the target but also all stars that are in the catalogue and encompassed in the sub-array. They are built considering the roll angle, to follow the instantaneous motion of the platform. The PSF is calculated using the reference PSF, the flux being scaled according to the CHEOPS magnitude of the stars and the exposure time of the frames, using Vega as reference for the magnitude system. From these images, the pipeline computes the signal-to-noise ratio as a function of the aperture radius,

$$\text{SNR}(r) = \frac{\bar{F}_{\text{target}}}{\sqrt{\bar{F}_{\text{target}} + \bar{F}_{\text{cont}} + \sigma_{\text{cont}}^2 + \sigma_{\text{RON}}^2}}$$

where

- $r$  is the radius of the aperture;
- $\bar{F}_{\text{target}}$  is the median of the simulated flux of the target within the aperture;
- $\bar{F}_{\text{cont}}$  and  $\sigma_{\text{cont}}$  are the median and standard deviation of the simulated flux of background stars;

- $\sigma_{\text{RON}}^2$  is the noise term corresponding to the read-out noise within the aperture. It is estimated as  $N_{\text{pix}} N_{\text{stack}} \text{RON}^2$ , where
  - $N_{\text{pix}}$  is the number of pixels encompassed by the aperture;
  - $N_{\text{stack}}$  is the number of individual stacked frames in the science image;
  - RON is the read-out noise in units of electrons per pixel.

The radius at which the SNR is maximum is then automatically determined (Figure 35). It corresponds to the so-called *optimal* aperture. This optimal aperture is not focused on the RMS criteria of the light curve but accounts for the effect of close contaminating stars, which might affect the transit depth in the case of crowded fields. Two other light curves are also provided to give the user an idea of how the RMS of the light curve evolves with the aperture size.

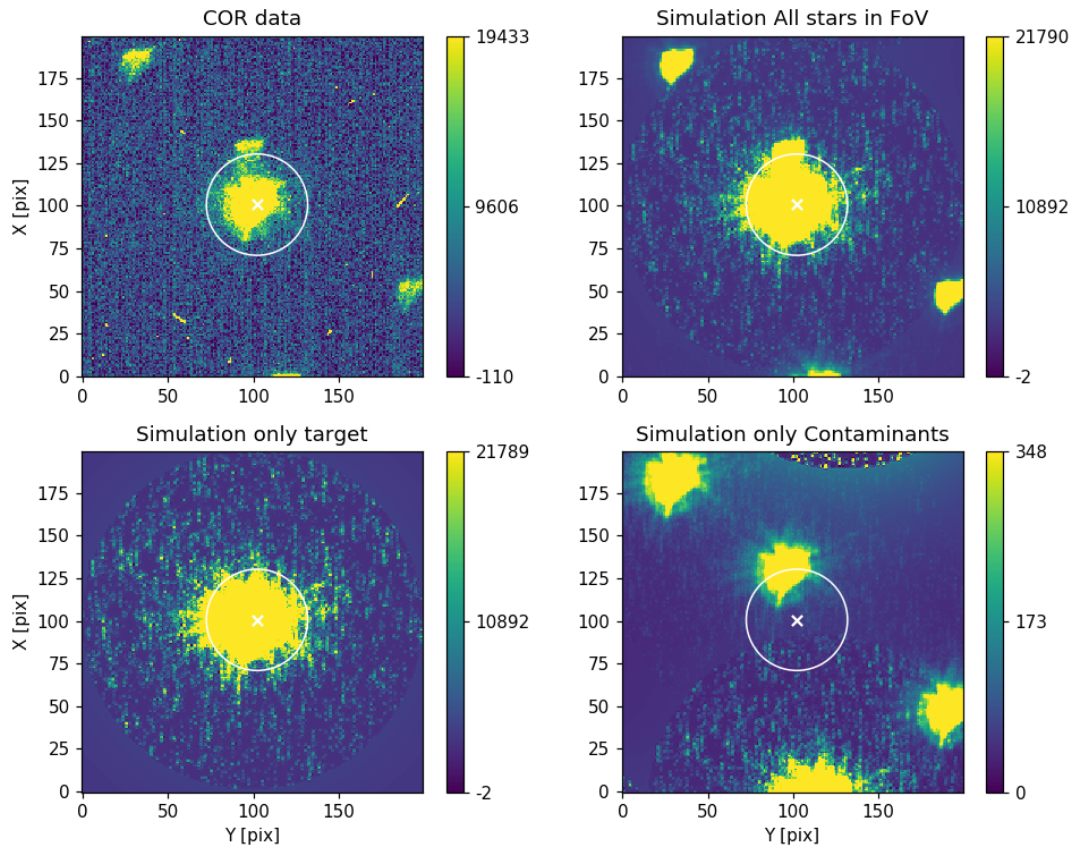


Figure 34: Top left: image of CHEOPSim treated as the observed image. Other images are simulated field-of-views calculated in the pipeline using all stars in the catalogue (top right). The bottom images show these simulated images with just the target (left) and contaminants only (right) which are set on a different scale for clarity.

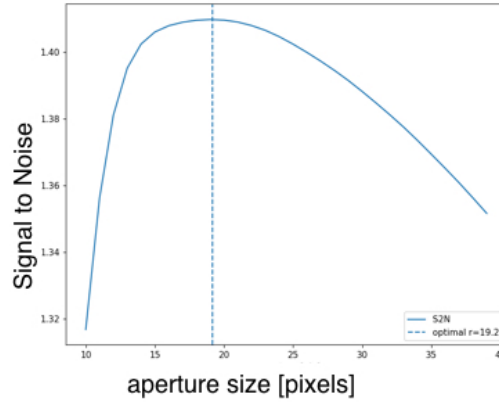


Figure 35: The SNR as a function of the aperture size. The vertical dashed line indicates the optimal aperture size that maximises the SNR.

Because of the non-symmetric shape of the PSF and of the rotation of the platform, a contaminant close to the target could have part of its flux entering and exiting the aperture. As a consequence, the *contamination factor* is not necessarily constant but can vary in time (Figure 36). A contamination light curve is thus also derived from the simulated images for each of the light curves that are provided to the users.

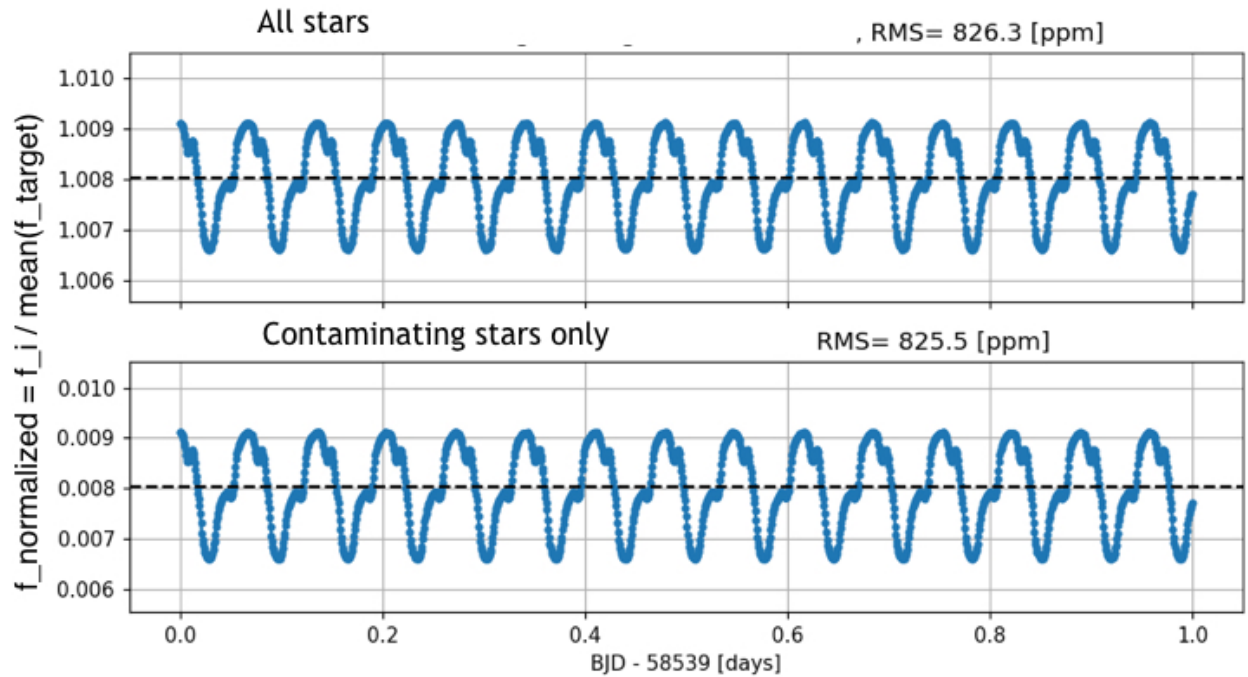


Figure 36: (Top) Target and contaminants flux normalized to the average of the target flux. There is a clear modulation with the rotation period of the platform. (Bottom) Flux of the contaminants only. The modulation is due to contaminants only.

### 3.2.4 Data reduction products, report and reference files

From the processing of a given visit, the DRP issues several products that the user will retrieve from the archive. In particular, there are four light curves calculated with different apertures size:

- the 33-pixel default aperture;
- the optimal aperture based on the optimization of the SNR;
- the 26-pixel, that is 80% of the default aperture;
- the 39-pixel, that is 120% of the default aperture.

Each of these light curves comes with its own contamination curve. In addition to these final products, the user will have the possibility to get additional by-products of the processing, such as, for example, bad pixel maps or the background light curve.



## Data Reduction Report

May 04, 2018

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*Figure 37:* First page of one Data Reduction Report that will be automatically generated for the user each time a visit will be processed.

Finally, the DRP generates a report for the user (Figure 37). This report provides a summary of the observations carried out in a given visit but also of the CHEOPS DRP used for the data reduction. It also shows the evolution of the data through the pipeline from the raw images to the final reduced light curves. For each step of the processing, some figures and the derived light curves are shown with a measure of the dispersion of the target light curve before and after. This will allow the user to follow what treatment has been done on the data, the quality of the

processing and of the final result. Examples of data reduction report can be found with the simulated data sets presented in Section 2.2.2.

Finally, and for reference, the DRP uses the following reference files:

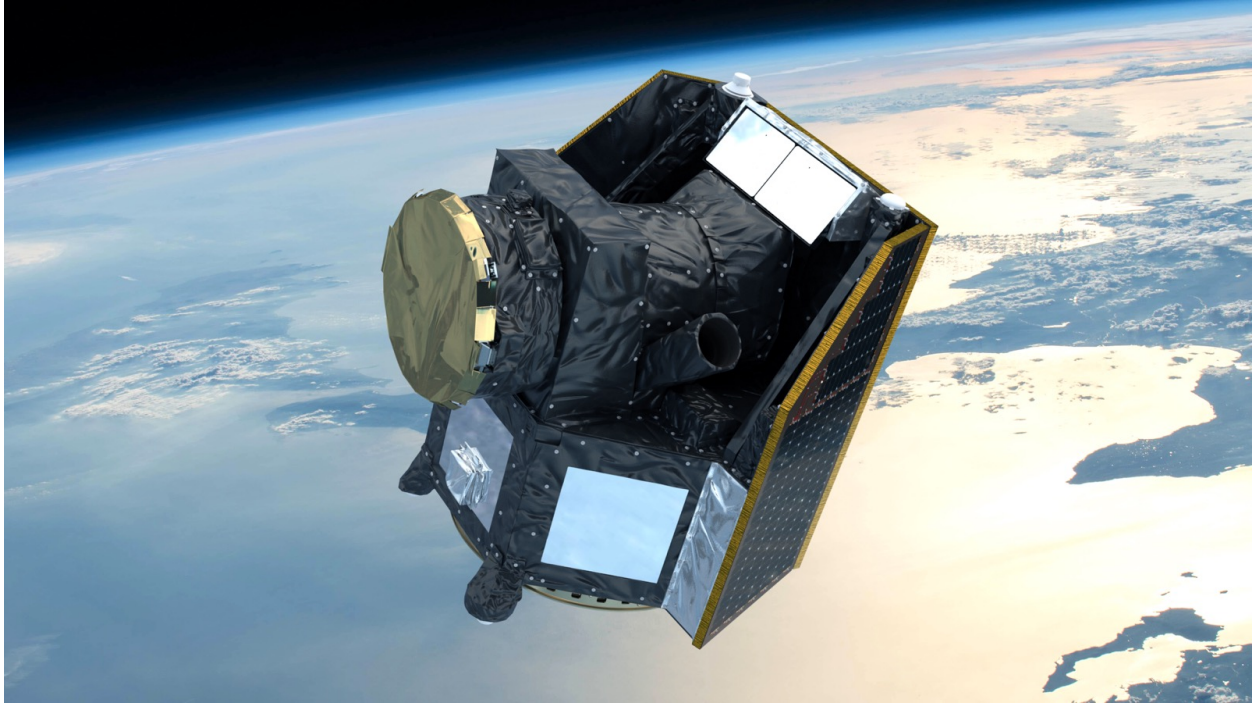
- EXT\_APP\_DE1
- EXT\_PRE\_StarCatalogue
- REF\_APP\_BadPixelMap
- REF\_APP\_BiasFrame
- REF\_APP\_DarkFrame
- REF\_APP\_FlatField
- REF\_APP\_WhitePSF
- REF\_APP\_OversampledWhitePSF
- REF\_APP\_CCDLinearisation
- REF\_APP\_GainCorrection
- REF\_APP\_Throughput
- REF\_APP\_SED
- REF\_APP\_PixelScale
- REF\_APP\_QE
- REF\_APP\_VisitConstraints
- REF\_APP\_Limits-ScienceHk
- REF\_APP\_ObtReset

A detailed description of these reference files with all header keywords is provided in the Data Product Definition Document.

### 3.2.5 What the DRP does not correct for (aka, systematic errors)

Because of the short duration of a given visit, and at this stage of the mission where the corrections are relying only on simulated data, only well-defined and identified effects are corrected for. As a consequence, no systematic correction, nor aging correction algorithms, are implemented today. This could be added later on, once real data will be available, and a detailed monitoring of the instrument will allow to clearly identify how relevant their correction would be and how it should be implemented.





End of document. Thank you for reading.