RED NOISE VersUS PLANETARY INTERPRETATIONS IN THE MICROLIGHTING EVENT OGLE-2013-BLG-446

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For the past ten years, gravitational microlensing has been used to detect cool planets around G, K and M-stars in the Milky Way, allowing access to a planetary regime distant from the solar system. Due to the increased field of view of OGLE-IV and MOA-II surveys, and the recently improved performance of follow-up teams, the number of planets detected by microlensing has gone up substantially (typically 10-20 planets detected per year and 33 published to date).

Another advantage of the microlensing method is that detection of planetary companions is possible over a larger mass-range including brown dwarfs, if the peak magnification is ≥10 (i.e., the classical "lensing zone"). Thanks to better photometric coverage of light curves, recent studies have advanced claims about the detection of small planets. Bennett et al. (2014). However, smaller mass-ratios tend to produce smaller deviations from a single lens model most of the time. Failing to account for photometric systematics can potentially lead to false detections. The analysis of photometric systematics has been important in transit searches and has substantially improved the reliability of detections (Kovács et al. 2005; Smith et al. 2012). This point is too often neglected by the microlensing community.

In this work, we present an extensive study of photometric systematics for the case of OGLE-2013-BLG-0446 and we compare the significance when different microlensing models are considered. Section 2 presents a summary of the observations of microlensing event OGLE-2013-BLG-0446 from multiple sites around the world. We present our modeling process in Section 3 and conduct a study of systematics in the data in Section 4. We present our conclusions in Section 5.

**ABSTRACT**

For all exoplanet candidates, the reliability of a claimed detection needs to be assessed through a careful study of systematic errors in the data to minimize the false positives rate. We present a method to investigate such systematics in microlensing datasets using the microlensing event OGLE-2013-BLG-0446 as a case study. The event was observed from multiple sites around the world and its high magnification (Amax ≈ 3000) allowed us to investigate its effects of terrestrial and annual parallax. Real-time modeling of the event while it was still ongoing suggested the presence of an extremely low-mass companion (≈3MJ) to the lensing star, leading to substantial follow-up coverage of the light curve. We test and compare different models for the light curve and conclude that the data do not favour the planetary interpretation when systematic errors are taken into account.

**Keywords:** gravitational microlensing-planet-photometric systematics

1. INTRODUCTION

For the past ten years, gravitational microlensing has been used to detect cool planets around G, K and M-stars in the Milky Way, allowing access to a planetary regime difficult to observe with the transit or radial velocity methods (i.e. microlensing is sensitive to planets beyond the snowline). Due to the increased field of view of the OGLE-IV and MOA-II surveys, and the recently improved performance of follow-up teams, the number of planets detected by microlensing has gone up substantially (typically 10-20 planets detected per year and 33 published to date).

Another advantage of the microlensing method is that detection of planetary companions is possible over a larger mass-range (≈1MJ, ≈13M⊙), including brown dwarfs, if the projected orbital radius is in the range 0.6-1.6 R⊙ (i.e. the classical "lensing zone"). Thanks to better photometric coverage of light curves, recent studies have advanced claims about the detection of small planets. Bennett et al. (2014). However, smaller mass-ratios tend to produce smaller deviations from a single lens model most of the time. Failing to account for photometric systematics can potentially lead to false detections. The analysis of photometric systematics has been important in transit searches and has substantially improved the reliability of detections (Kovács et al. 2005, Smith et al. 2012). This point is too often neglected by the microlensing community.

In this work, we present an extensive study of photometric systematics for the case of OGLE-2013-BLG-0446 and we compare the significance when different microlensing models are considered. Section 2 presents a summary of the observations of microlensing event OGLE-2013-BLG-0446 from multiple sites around the world. We present our modeling process in Section 3 and conduct a study of systematics in the data in Section 4. We present our conclusions in Section 5.
data set covers the entire light curve with light curve reveals that the un-
found (Paczyński (1986). The PSPL model allows the estimation of
the calibrated OGLE photometry, leading to a good approx-
modulus for this line of sight is $\mu_{i} = 8.2 \pm 1.0$ kpc, the B band extinction is $A_{B} = 0.804$ mag and the reddening is $E(V-I) = 0.683 \pm 0.036$ mag, leading to $R_{T} = A_{I}/E(V-I) = 1.177$, lower than the standard value of 1.5. This low extinction is known as the anom-
this Galactic Bulge, see Udalski (2003a). We derive the source properties as follows:
• Assuming that the source suffers the same extinction as the Red Giant Clump (i.e. the source is at the same distance), we have $M_{I} = 19.07 - 0.804 - 14.578 = 3.7$ mag, so the source star is most likely a main sequence star. We adopt $log g \sim 4.5$.
• We derive its effective temperature using the dered-
den color-magnitude relation for dwarfs and sub-
• From Claret (2000) and using $log g \sim 4.5$, we are able to find the linear limb-darkening coefficients $u_{I}$ (Milne (1921) for each filter. Following Albrow et al. (1999) and Yoo et al. (2004), we use the transformation :
$$\Gamma_{I} = \frac{2u_{I}}{3 - u_{I}} \quad (1)$$

These calculations form the starting point for an iterative fit of the FSPL (finite source point lens) model, together with error bar rescaling as described in Section 3.3. Our best FSPL model converges to source magnitude and color ($I_{e} (V - I_{e})$ = (19.00, 1.49). Correcting for extinction and reddening we have $I_{e} = (19.07, 1.49)$. The corresponding effective temperature of the source is $T_{eff} \sim 5400$ K, leading to $\Gamma_{I} = 0.63$ ($u_{I} = 0.72$), $\Gamma_{R} = 0.55$ ($u_{R} = 0.65$) and $\Gamma_{I} = 0.46$ ($u_{I} = 0.56$) for $log g \sim 4.5$. Note that we also use $\Gamma_{I} = 0.46$ for the RoboNet telescopes (SDSS-i filter).

Finally, given the dereddened magnitude and colour of the source from our best FSPL model, we are able to estimate the angular source star radius $\theta_{s}$ using (Kervella & Fouqué (2008):
$$\log_{10}(\theta_{s}) = 3.1982 + 0.4895(V-I)_{0} - 0.0657(V-I)_{0}^{2} - 0.2I_{0} \quad (2)$$

The uncertainty of this relation is 0.0238. The errors on our magnitude estimates are ($\Delta I, \Delta V$) = (0.02, 0.02) mag. Assuming a conservative estimate of the error on $A_{I}$ (0.1 mag) and using standard error propagation gives 9% precision: $\theta_{s} = 0.82 \pm 0.07$ $\mu$as. With the adopted source distance (8.234 kpc), the source star radius is $R_{*} = 1.4 \pm 0.3$ $R_{\odot}$. Therefore the source is a G6 or K0 star (Bessell & Brett (1988)).

3. Single lens model

The PSPL model is described by the standard single-lens parameters : $\theta_{E}$ the Einstein crossing time, $u_{s}$ the minimum impact parameter and $t_{s}$, the time of this minimum. The nor-
aming angular source radius $\rho = \theta_{E}/\theta_{s}$ (Nemiroff & Wickramasinghe (1994), Witt & Mao (1994), Gould (1994), Bennett & Rhie (1996), Vermaak (2000), where $\theta_{E}$ is the angular Einstein ring radius, is included in the model along with the prev-
parameters to take into account finite-source effects close to the magnification peak. We used the method described in (Yoo et al. (2004)) to take into account the change in magnification due to the extended source. The FSPL model significa-
 improves the fit (see Table 5). The best FSPL model is shown in Figure 1. Using the value of $\rho$ from the FSPL model, we are able to estimate the angular radius of the Einstein ring $\theta_{E} = \theta_{s}/\rho = 1.57 \pm 0.1$ mas and the lens-source proper motion $\mu = \theta_{s}/t_{E} = 7.4 \pm 0.7$ mas yr$^{-1}$.

3.3. Treatment of photometric uncertainties and rejection of outliers

Because of the diversity of observatories and reduction pipelines used in microlensing, photometric uncertainties need careful rescaling to accurately represent the real dispersion of each data set. This is an important preliminary step in modeling the event. Following Bachelet et al. (2012b; Miyake et al. (2012); Yee et al. (2013);, we rescale the uncertainties using :
$$e'_{i} = \sqrt{(f_{i} e_{i})^{2} + e_{min}^{2}} \quad (3)$$

where $e_{i}$ are the original magnitude uncertainties, $f$ is the rescaling parameter for low magnification levels, $e_{min}$ is a minimal uncertainty to reproduce the practical limitations of photometry and $e'_{i}$ are the adjusted magnitude uncertainties. The classical rescaling method is to adjust $f$ and $e_{min}$ to force $\chi^{2}/dof$ to be unity.

In this paper, we follow an alternative method of first adjusting $f$ and $e_{min}$ to force the residuals, normalized by $e'_{i}$, to follow a Gaussian distribution around the model. If possible, we also aim to obtain a $\chi^{2}/dof \sim 1$. Note that these two methods lead to the same results, except for the OGLE-I dataset. For OGLE-I, the distribution without rescaling shows some data points with large residuals. This is not surprising because the OGLE-I data set covers the entire light curve with a large number of points, especially the faint baseline magnitude ($I \sim 17.8$), with a constant exposure time in order of 100 s. Inspection of the OGLE-I light curve reveals that the un-
certainties during high magnification are underestimated, so we adjust the $e_{min}$ parameter. We tried to force $\chi^{2}/dof \sim 1$
for this dataset, but this generated large uncertainties for the 2011) is described by the vector $\pi_{E,a} = AU/r_E = (\pi_{EN}, \pi_{EE})$, where $r_E$ is the angular radius of the Einstein ring of the lens projected onto the observer plane and $\pi_{EN}$ and $\pi_{EE}$ are the components of this vector in the North and East directions respectively. In practice, the introduction of this parameter slightly changes the value of the impact parameter and $\tau = (t - t_o)/t_E$. Strong modifications of the light curve can be seen far from the peak of the event, i.e. in the wings of the light curve, with few changes around the peak, see for example Smith et al. (2003). To model this effect, the constant $t_{o,par}$ (Skowron et al., 2011) is added to give an invariant reference time for each model. We choose $t_{o,par} = 2456446.0$ HJD for our models.

Since this event is so highly magnified, it should also be possible to measure the terrestrial parallax. Hardy & Walker (1995) first introduced the idea that for an 'Extreme Microlensing Event' (EME), the difference in longitudes of observatories should result in light curves where tiny changes in the line-of-sight towards the target become apparent, allowing a measurement of the Einstein ring Holz & Wald (1996); Dong et al. (2007). Again, this effect is described by the parallax vector $\pi_{E,a} = AU/r_E(M_o/1_E, U_o)$, where $r_E$ is the Earth radius. Gould & Yee (2013) estimated that the condition $\rho r_E \leq 50 r_E$ is required to expect a measurable difference in terms of magnification. This condition leads to $\pi_{E} > 0.24$ for this event by using an approximate value for the normalized source star radius $\rho \sim 5 \times 10^{-4}$. A summary of longitudes and latitudes of the observatories is in Table 1 and results are summarized in Table 2.

Note that we also compute the annual parallax model for a positive impact parameter ($t_o > 0$) and found no significant difference with the model reported in the Table 3. This is the $t_o$ degeneracy described in the literature Smith et al. (2003); Gould (2004); Skowron et al. (2011). For the terrestrial parallax, a positive impact parameter leads to a better fit ($\chi^2 \sim 60$) for equivalent $\pi_{EN}$ and $\pi_{EE}$ values, which is a similar result to Yee et al. (2009).

### 3.4. Annual and terrestrial parallaxes

We looked for second-order effects in the light curve. First, the relatively long Einstein-ring crossing-time ($t_E \sim 80$ days) should allow the measurement of the displacement of the line-of-sight towards the target due to the Earth’s rotation around the Sun. This annual parallax Gould & Loeb (1992); Gould (2000); Smith et al. (2003); Gould (2004); Skowron et al. (2011) is described by the vector $\pi_{E,a} = AU/r_E = (\pi_{EN}, \pi_{EE})$, where $r_E$ is the angular radius of the Einstein ring of the lens projected onto the observer plane and $\pi_{EN}$ and $\pi_{EE}$ are the components of this vector in the North and East directions respectively. In practice, the introduction of this parameter slightly changes the value of the impact parameter and $\tau = (t - t_o)/t_E$. Strong modifications of the light curve can be seen far from the peak of the event, i.e. in the wings of the light curve, with few changes around the peak, see for example Smith et al. (2003). To model this effect, the constant $t_{o,par}$ (Skowron et al., 2011) is added to give an invariant reference time for each model. We choose $t_{o,par} = 2456446.0$ HJD for our models.

### Table 2

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<th>Name</th>
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The transmission curve for this filter is close to a Johnson Cousin I, see Skottfelt et al. (2015). We select a bandpass between I and V.

For this unfiltered data, we choose the filter closest to the CCD spectral response.

for the dataset, but this generated large uncertainties for the low magnification part (i.e. the baseline) leading to a non-Gaussian distribution (lots of normalised residuals too close to the mean).

We finally checked isolated points far away from this Gaussian distribution, and reject as outliers (> 3σ) two data points in the Auckland_R dataset. The rescaling coefficients are presented in Table 2.

### 3.5. Binary model

We looked for second-order effects in the light curve. First, the relatively long Einstein-ring crossing-time ($t_E \sim 80$ days) should allow the measurement of the displacement of the line-of-sight towards the target due to the Earth’s rotation around the Sun. This annual parallax Gould & Loeb (1992); Gould (2000); Smith et al. (2003); Gould (2004); Skowron et al. (2011) is described by the vector $\pi_{E,a} = AU/r_E = (\pi_{EN}, \pi_{EE})$, where $r_E$ is the angular radius of the Einstein ring of the lens projected onto the observer plane and $\pi_{EN}$ and $\pi_{EE}$ are the components of this vector in the North and East directions respectively. In practice, the introduction of this parameter slightly changes the value of the impact parameter and $\tau = (t - t_o)/t_E$. Strong modifications of the light curve can be seen far from the peak of the event, i.e. in the wings of the light curve, with few changes around the peak, see for example Smith et al. (2003). To model this effect, the constant $t_{o,par}$ (Skowron et al., 2011) is added to give an invariant reference time for each model. We choose $t_{o,par} = 2456446.0$ HJD for our models.

Since this event is so highly magnified, it should also be possible to measure the terrestrial parallax. Hardy & Walker (1995) first introduced the idea that for an 'Extreme Microlensing Event' (EME), the difference in longitudes of observatories should result in light curves where tiny changes in the line-of-sight towards the target become apparent, allowing a measurement of the Einstein ring Holz & Wald (1996); Gould (1997); Dong et al. (2007). Again, this effect is described by the parallax vector $\pi_{E,a} = AU/r_E(M_o/1_E, U_o)$, where $r_E$ is the Earth radius. Gould & Yee (2013) estimated that the condition $\rho r_E \leq 50 r_E$ is required to expect a measurable difference in terms of magnification. This condition leads to $\pi_{E} > 0.24$ for this event by using an approximate value for the normalized source star radius $\rho \sim 5 \times 10^{-4}$. A summary of longitudes and latitudes of the observatories is in Table 1 and results are summarized in Table 2.

Note that we also compute the annual parallax model for a positive impact parameter ($t_o > 0$) and found no significant difference with the model reported in the Table 3. This is the $t_o$ degeneracy described in the literature Smith et al. (2003); Gould (2004); Skowron et al. (2011). For the terrestrial parallax, a positive impact parameter leads to a better fit ($\chi^2 \sim 60$) for equivalent $\pi_{EN}$ and $\pi_{EE}$ values, which is a similar result to Yee et al. (2009).
Figure 1. Light curve of OGLE-2013-BLG-0446 with our best FSPL model. The top panel shows the full 2013 light curve with a maximum magnification at HJD - 2450000 ~ 6446.0 d. The insert on the right is a zoom of the peak. The pink model light curve is for $\Gamma I = 0.46$ and the orange dashed model light curve is for $\Gamma V = 0.63$. The cyan model for the R band is not shown for clarity. The cyan arrow indicates the position of the possible planetary anomaly. The middle panel shows residuals of the FSPL model close to the peak. The radius of each point is proportional to the inverse square of the error bar (bigger points have smaller error bars). The bottom panel is a closer view of the possible anomaly. For the bottom two panels, vertical dashed black lines indicate the time window corresponding to the insert in the top figure.
At the end of the 2013 observing season, several planetary models circulated (private communication) indicating the presence of the smallest microlensing planet ever detected ($q \sim 2 \times 10^{-5}$). In order to investigate these claims of the existence of a very low-mass ratio planetary companion to the primary lens, and to exclude the possibility of a false alarm, we used a finite-source binary lens model (FSBL) with three extra parameters: the projected separation (normalized by $\theta_E$) between the two bodies $s$, the mass ratio $q$ using the convention described in Bachelet et al. (2012a) (the most massive component on the left) and $\alpha$ the source trajectory angle measured from the line joining the two components (counterclockwise angle). We first used a grid search and we finally explore minima with a full Markov-Chain Monte Carlo algorithm (MCMC). Please see for example Dong et al. (2009) or Bachelet et al. (2012a) for more details. We find two local minima which correspond to the known theoretical degeneracy $s \leftrightarrow s^{-1}$. We only explore the ‘wide’ solution, which gives the best grid-search $\chi^2$, for three reasons. First, as explained in the next section, the reliability of the planetary model is not clear. Second, we expect a strong degeneracy in terms of $s \leftrightarrow s^{-1}$, so models should converge to solutions with similar shapes for the central caustic and therefore similar residuals. Finally, due to the really small value of $\rho$, modeling this event is very time consuming. We present our results in Table 5 our best caustic-crossing geometry in Figure 2 and residuals to the FSPL model for data sets covering the magnification peak are plotted in Figure 3.

In the early days of planet hunting using the transit method, researchers were confounded as to why they were not finding as many planets as predicted. The predictions were of course based on simulated light curves taking into account stochastic noise from the photons (sky and star) and the CCD, but ignoring the effects of sub-optimal data calibration/reduction that introduce correlated noise (e.g. Mallén-Ornelas et al. 2003 and Pepper & Gaudi 2005). It was soon realised that transit detection thresholds were severely affected by systematic trends in the light curves Pont et al. (2006); Aigrain & Pont (2007) with the knock-on effect of reducing the predicted planetary yield of a transit survey, and at least partially explaining the unexpectedly low rate of transiting planet discoveries. The microlensing planet hunters face a similar problem for detecting low-amplitude ($\lesssim 1\%$) planetary deviations in microlensing light curves, especially when no “sharp” light curve features, caused by caustic crossing events, are predicted/observed. However, the microlensing community is now aiming for really low amplitude signal detection which requires extra care in the treatment of systematic errors Yee et al. (2013).

Systematic trends in light curve data can be caused by an imperfect calibration of the raw data and sub-optimal extraction of the photometry. For instance, on the calibration side, flat fielding errors which vary as a function of detector coordinates can induce correlated errors in the photometry as the telescope pointing drifts slightly during a set of time-series exposures. On the software side, systematic errors in the photometry can be caused by errors in the PSF model used during PSF fitting for example. Also the airmass and transparency variations in the datasets should be modeled in the DIA procedure by the photometric scale factor. However, there is no guarantee that the DIA modeling is perfect and this can create systematic trends in the data. As recently discussed by Bramich et al. (2015), an error $\epsilon_p$ in the estimate of the photometric scale factor leads directly to an error $\epsilon_p$ in the photometry. For example, the passage of clouds during data acquisition can create inhomogeneous atmospheric transparency in the frames and lead to a spatially varying photometric scale factor. The estimation of the photometric scale factor in DIA by using a ‘mean’ value for the whole frame will produce different systematic trends for each star in the field of view. In practice, the expected error $\epsilon_p$ is of order of a few %, which is non-critical for the majority of microlensing deviations, but can easily imitate the smallest such as in OGLE-2013-BLG-0446.

Obtaining a photon-noise limited data calibration and photometric extraction is not always feasible. Therefore complementary techniques have been developed to perform a relative calibration of the ensemble photometry after the data reduction (i.e. a post-calibration). These techniques can be divided into two broad groups; namely, detrending methods that do not use any a priori knowledge about the data acquisition or instrumental set up (e.g. Tamuz et al. (2005)), and photometric modelling methods that attempt to model the systematic trends based on the survey/instrumental properties (e.g. Honeycutt (1992), Padmanabhan et al. (2008), Regnault et al. (2009)). Each data point is associated with a unique object and a unique image (epoch), and carries associated metadata such as magnitude uncertainty, airmass, $(x, y)$ detector coordinates, PSF FWHM, etc. To investigate the systematic trends in the photometry, we firstly identified a set of object/image properties which we suspected of having influenced the quality of the data reduction. For each of these quantities, we

**Figure 2.** Lens geometry for our best fit planetary model. The yellow disc represents the source, the red line indicates the source trajectory and the black closed curve represents the central caustic. The caustic signature in the light curve is highly ‘diluted’ by the relatively large source star.

### 4. STUDY OF SYSTEMATIC TRENDS IN THE PHOTOMETRY

#### 4.1. Generality and method

Our best planetary model claims the detection of smooth deviations in the light curve away from the FSPL model at a peak-to-peak level of $\lesssim 1\%$, which is supposedly caused by the source passing over the central planetary caustic. It is well known to photometrists, however, that from ground-based telescopes the photometric precision at this level can be affected by systematic trends (or red noise) in the data.
Table 3
Model parameters.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>FSPL</th>
<th>FSPL+Annual parallax</th>
<th>FSPL+Terrestrial parallax</th>
<th>Wide planetary (FSBL)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$t_0$(HJD)</td>
<td>6446.04790 ± 3 $10^{-5}$</td>
<td>6446.04678 ± 3 $10^{-5}$</td>
<td>6446.04681 ± 3 $10^{-5}$</td>
<td>6446.04659 ± 3 $10^{-5}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$U_0(\theta_E)$</td>
<td>$-4.21 \times 10^{-4}$ ± 7 $10^{-6}$</td>
<td>$-4.02 \times 10^{-4}$ ± 8 $10^{-6}$</td>
<td>$-4.22 \times 10^{-4}$ ± 8 $10^{-6}$</td>
<td>$-4.31 \times 10^{-4}$ ± 5 $10^{-6}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$t_E$(days)</td>
<td>76.9 ± 1.3</td>
<td>80.4 ± 1.5</td>
<td>76.5 ± 1.4</td>
<td>76.0 ± 0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\rho(\theta_E)$</td>
<td>$5.22 \times 10^{-4}$ ± 9 $10^{-6}$</td>
<td>$4.99 \times 10^{-4}$ ± 1 $10^{-5}$</td>
<td>$5.24 \times 10^{-4}$ ± 9 $10^{-6}$</td>
<td>$5.31 \times 10^{-4}$ ± 5 $10^{-6}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$I_0$(mag)</td>
<td>19.00 ± 0.02</td>
<td>19.05 ± 0.02</td>
<td>19.00 ± 0.02</td>
<td>18.99 ± 0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$I_0$(mag)</td>
<td>20.49 ± 0.02</td>
<td>20.54 ± 0.02</td>
<td>20.49 ± 0.02</td>
<td>20.48 ± 0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_0$(mag)</td>
<td>22.72 ± 0.11</td>
<td>22.35 ± 0.11</td>
<td>22.76 ± 0.13</td>
<td>22.85 ± 0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Pi_{EN}$</td>
<td>0.37 ± 0.15</td>
<td>0.07 ± 0.02</td>
<td>0.01 ± 0.02</td>
<td>1.68 ± 0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Pi_{EE}$</td>
<td>0.27 ± 0.005</td>
<td>0.01 ± 0.02</td>
<td>1.68 ± 0.05</td>
<td>3.1 $10^{-5}$ ± 2 $10^{-6}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$s(\theta_E)$</td>
<td>3900.781</td>
<td>3839.267</td>
<td>3877.241</td>
<td>3551.217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\alpha$(rad)</td>
<td>$-2.39 \times 10^{-5}$ ± 7 $10^{-6}$</td>
<td>$-2.39 \times 10^{-5}$ ± 7 $10^{-6}$</td>
<td>$-2.39 \times 10^{-5}$ ± 7 $10^{-6}$</td>
<td>$-2.39 \times 10^{-5}$ ± 7 $10^{-6}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\chi^2$</td>
<td>3900.781</td>
<td>3839.267</td>
<td>3877.241</td>
<td>3551.217</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3. FSPL residuals close to the peak. The curves represent the best planetary model.

defined a binning that covers the full range of values with an appropriate bin size. For each bin, we introduced an unknown magnitude offset to be determined, the purpose of which is to model the mean difference of the photometric measurements within the corresponding bin from the rest of the photometric measurements. We constructed our photometric model by adopting the unknown true instrumental magnitude of each object\(^3\) and the magnitude offsets as parameters. Since the model is linear, the best-fit parameter values corresponding to the minimum in $\chi^2$ may be solved for directly (and in a single step using some matrix algebra - see Bramich & Freudling 2012). Iteration is of course mandatory to remove variable stars and strong outliers from the photometric data set. A valid criticism of this method is that the systematic trends are derived from the constant stars but then applied to all stars including the variable stars (the microlensing event in our case).

\(^3\) Except for one object where we fixed the true instrumental magnitude to an arbitrary value to avoid degeneracy.
The question arises as to whether this approach is consistent? To argue our case, we are limited to showing that the method works in practice and we direct the reader to Figure 1 of Kains (2015), where RR Lyrae light curves in M68 are much improved by this self-calibration method. We used this method to analyse systematic trends in three data sets. They are listed below.

4.2. LSCA,i and LSCB,i: the twins paradox

We opted to employ the above methodology in order to investigate and understand the systematic trends in the LSCB,i and LSCA,i data sets using the algorithms described in Bramich & Freudling (2012)4. These telescopes are twins: both are LCOGT 1m telescope clones, both supporting SDSS-i prescription filters manufactured at the same time. We were use to observe OGLE-2013-BLG-0446 during the same period of observation, although not precisely synchronously.

We first chose to study LSCB,i because this telescope most strongly favors the planetary model (Δχ2 ∼ 128.3, see Table 6). For LSCB,i, the DanDIA pipeline extracted 4272 light curves from the images in the LSCB,i data set, each with 378 data points (or epochs), which yields a total of 164816 photometric data points. We investigated each object/image property in turn using the above method, and determined the peak-to-peak amplitude of the magnitude offsets in each case. The results are reported in Table 4. The trends in the photometry were found to be at the sub-mmag level for all correlating properties except for the epoch (2.0 mmag). The magnitude offsets determined for each epoch (or image) serve to correct for any errors in the fitted values of the photometric scale factors during DIA. The magnitude offsets as a function of detector coordinates (commonly referred to as an illumination correction - e.g. Coccato et al. (2014)) were modelled using a two-dimensional cubic surface (as opposed to the binning previously described) so as to better capture the large-scale errors in the flat-fielding. The peak-to-peak amplitude of the cubic surface over the full detector area was found to be ~60 mmag, but since the LSCB,i observations only drifted by ~50 pixels in each coordinate, we found that the magnitude offsets applicable to the OGLE-2013-BLG-446 light curve have a peak-to-peak amplitude of only ~0.2 mmag. This can be seen in Figure 4. The overall level of systematic trends in the LSCB,i data set for OGLE-2013-BLG-446 is ~0.0mmag. To conclude, this analysis reveals that the illumination correction is not sufficient to explain the observed systematics.

We chose also to study the LSCA,i data set because this telescope observed the target at the same time but does not show any planetary significance (Δχ2 ∼ 20.7). We conduct the same study and the results are summarized in Table 4 and Figure 4. The peak-to-peak amplitudes of the magnitude offsets are ten times bigger than for the LSCB,i dataset. It is surprising to see how two similar instruments can lead to such different data quality. A more careful check of the frames clearly shows a problem in the focus of the LSCA,i telescope. Because the Galactic Bulge fields are very crowded, this is a critical point for microlensing observations (e.g. increasing the blending). A plausible explanation of this difference between the twins is that during the time of observations, the telescopes were under commissioning, leading to non-optimal performance for LSCA,i.

4.3. Auckland,R

We conducted the same study for the Auckland,R dataset because this telescope presents the clearest feature that mimics a planetary deviation, around $HJD \sim 6446.02$ as can be seen in Figure 3. Results can be seen in Table 4 and Figure 5. The photometric scale factor shows variations during the night. This indicates the passage of clouds which can lead to systematics errors, as described previously. For example, the FSPL residuals in the interval $6446.02 \leq HJD \leq 6446.06$ clearly share the pattern with the photometric scale factor.

4.4. Correction of systematics

For the three studied datasets (LSCA,i, LSCB,i and Auckland,R), we corrected the systematics for the quantity that yielded the largest peak-to-peak amplitude in the magnitude offsets: namely the epoch. Moreover, this quantity is correlated with other quantities (airmass for example) and so the epoch correction should decrease the systematic trends measured for the other parameters listed in Table 4. We checked this and found that for the three datasets, the epoch correction leads to a significant improvement (order of a factor ten) for the systematics of the correlated quantities. This is a first order correction and we wanted to see the impact of the different models we analyzed. We repeated our modeling process with these new datasets using the previous models as starting points. The results are presented in Table 5. The new Auck-
Table 4
The peak-to-peak amplitude of the magnitude offsets for each object/image property that we investigated for causing systematic trends in the photometry for the LSCB,i, LSCA,i and Auckland,R data sets. We also list a possible underlying cause for any systematic trends that are found as a function of the corresponding object/image property.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlating Quantity</th>
<th>Possible Underlying Cause</th>
<th>Peak-To-Peak Amplitude (mmag)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>LSCA,i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exposure time</td>
<td>CCD non-linearities</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Airmass</td>
<td>Varying extinction</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSF FWHM</td>
<td>Varying seeing disk</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photometric scale factor</td>
<td>Reduction quality at different transparencies</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epoch</td>
<td>Errors in photometric scale factor</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Detector coordinates</td>
<td>Flat-field errors</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Background</td>
<td>Reduction quality</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5. a: Residuals of the FSPL model for the Auckland,R dataset. b: Light curves of the two other brightest stars in the field. c: Systematics magnitude offsets as a function of the epoch computed for this dataset, see text. d: Photometric scale factor (normalised to a single exposure). Auckland,R residuals can be seen in Figure 6. After correction, the amplitude of the ‘anomaly’ is smaller but still exists. This is probably due to the fact that the amplitude of this feature in the light curves is brightness dependent, and the microlensing target is much brighter than all of the other stars, leading to an insufficient correction for the microlensing event.

As can be seen in Table 4, the correction of the systematics has a significant impact on the LSCA,i and Auckland,R data sets, which appear to suffer the most systematics. Note also that the planetary model is more significant after systematics correction, especially for these two telescopes. Even though the planetary model changes slightly before and after correction (the new s and q values are outside the error bars of the uncorrected data sets model), the caustic crossing is virtually unchanged (e.g. the central caustic is similar). However, the clearest signature of the planetary anomaly is still in the Auckland,R dataset around HJD ~ 6446.02.

4.5. Discussion

Due to strong finite source effects around a very small central caustic, the suspected planetary signature in OGLE-2013-BLG-0446 is very small. First of all, the low χ² improvement (Δχ² ~ 350 and Δχ² ~ 389 before and after the systematics correction respectively) of the planetary model is far from the minimum value generally adopted in microlensing for a safe detection [Yee et al. (2013)]. Note also that even though the caustic crossing is similar, the two planetary models are not fully equivalent. As defined by Chung et al. (2005), the R_c parameter is the ratio of the vertical length and the horizontal length of a central caustic. This caustic parameter before and
after correction is significantly different (∼30%). Secondly, the highest Δσ^2 contributor (LSCB_i) presents photometric systematics at the same level as the planetary deviations (2 mmag versus 6 mmag). As can be seen in Figure 6, the systematics correction decreases the amplitude of the ‘anomaly’ in the Auckland_R dataset and it is therefore better fit by the planetary model. However, the increase in the FSPL residuals after HJD ~ 6446.02 (from 1% to zero) is not explained by the planetary model, but similar behaviour is seen in other bright stars. This clearly indicates that bright stars suffer from systematic effects in this dataset which were not revealed by the different quantities we studied.

The planetary model is highly favoured by the Canopus_I dataset (Δσ^2 ~ 60). However, a closer look at Figure 5 reveals that the planetary deviations are at a very low level (≤0.5%). It can not be excluded that the FSPL model correctly fits this data set and that this telescope also suffers from low level systematics errors. We however decided to not realize the same study of photometric systematic errors for the Canopus_I dataset because there is no obvious deviations in the FSPL residuals and also because enough doubt has already been placed in the planetary model.

All these points reveal strong doubts about the reality of the planetary signature in OGLE-2013-BLG-0446. Even if we cannot firmly guarantee that the planet is not detected, we prefer to stay conservative and claim that we do not detect a planet in this event.

5. CONCLUSIONS

We presented the analysis of microlensing event OGLE-2013-BLG-0446. For this highly magnified event (A ~ 3000), several higher-order effects were investigated in the modeling process: annual and terrestrial parallax and planetary deviations. The study of photometric systematics for several data sets leads to various levels of confidence in the photometry. Moreover, a closer look at the data residuals and a precise study of photometric systematics reveals enough doubt to question any potential signals. Regarding the level of planetary signal (∼1%) versus the various levels of systematics, we are not confident about the planetary signature in OGLE-2013-BLG-0446. Unfortunately, the clearest signature of the planetary signal was observed only in a single dataset which presents some unexplained behaviour for the brightest stars at the time of the anomaly. These doubts in addition to the relatively low improvement in χ^2 (Δχ^2 ≤ 400) encourage us to remain conservative and not to claim a planetary detection. This study stresses the importance of studying and quantifying the photometric systematic errors down to the level of 1% or lower for the detection of the smallest microlensing planets.

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Table 6
$\chi^2$ and RMS of FSPL residuals for each data set before and after correction of systematics. The three corrected data sets are rendered in bold. Numbers in parentheses are the degrees of freedom for each model/data set.