

Observational Techniques & Instrumentation for Astronomy

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Observational Astronomy – What?

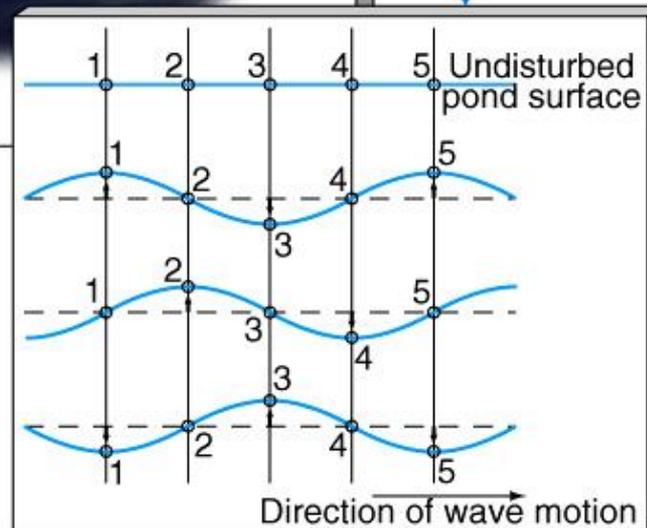
- Astronomy gathers the vast majority of its information from the LIGHT emitted by astrophysical sources
- The fundamental question asked/answered is “How Bright?”. Common modifiers to the question include:
 - Versus angular direction (α, β)
 - Versus light wavelength λ
 - Versus time t
 - Versus polarization state (Q,U,V)
- Telescopes/instruments are used to collect, manipulate, and sort the light
- That’s pretty much all there is to it ! 😊

Properties of Light - I

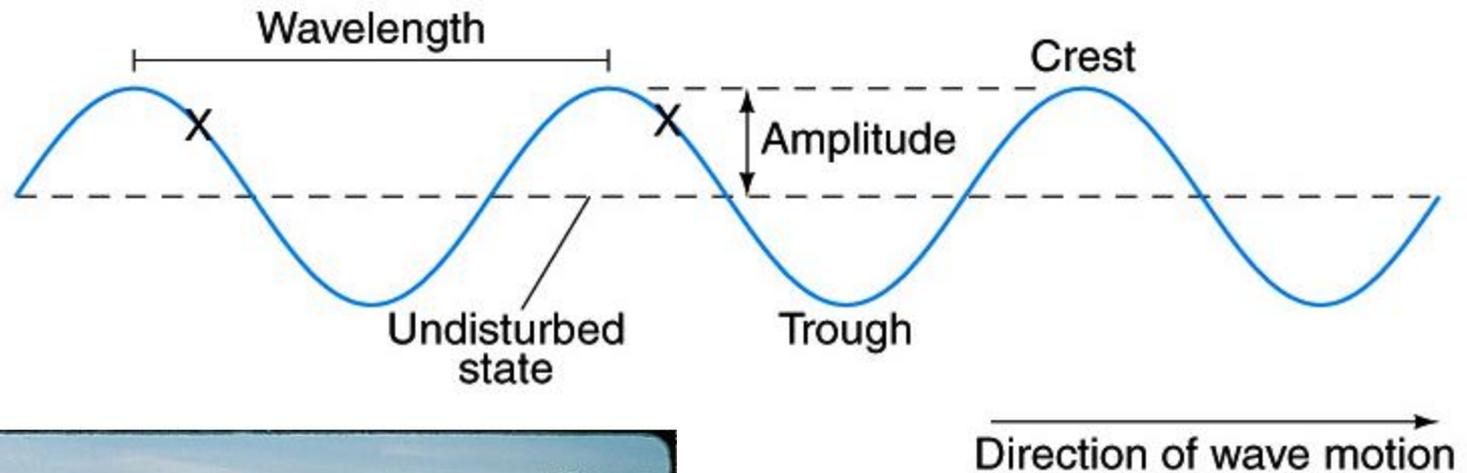


•“Information” is carried from place to place without physical movement of material from/to those places

Particles move up/down, but the wave pattern propagates left/right



Properties of Light - II



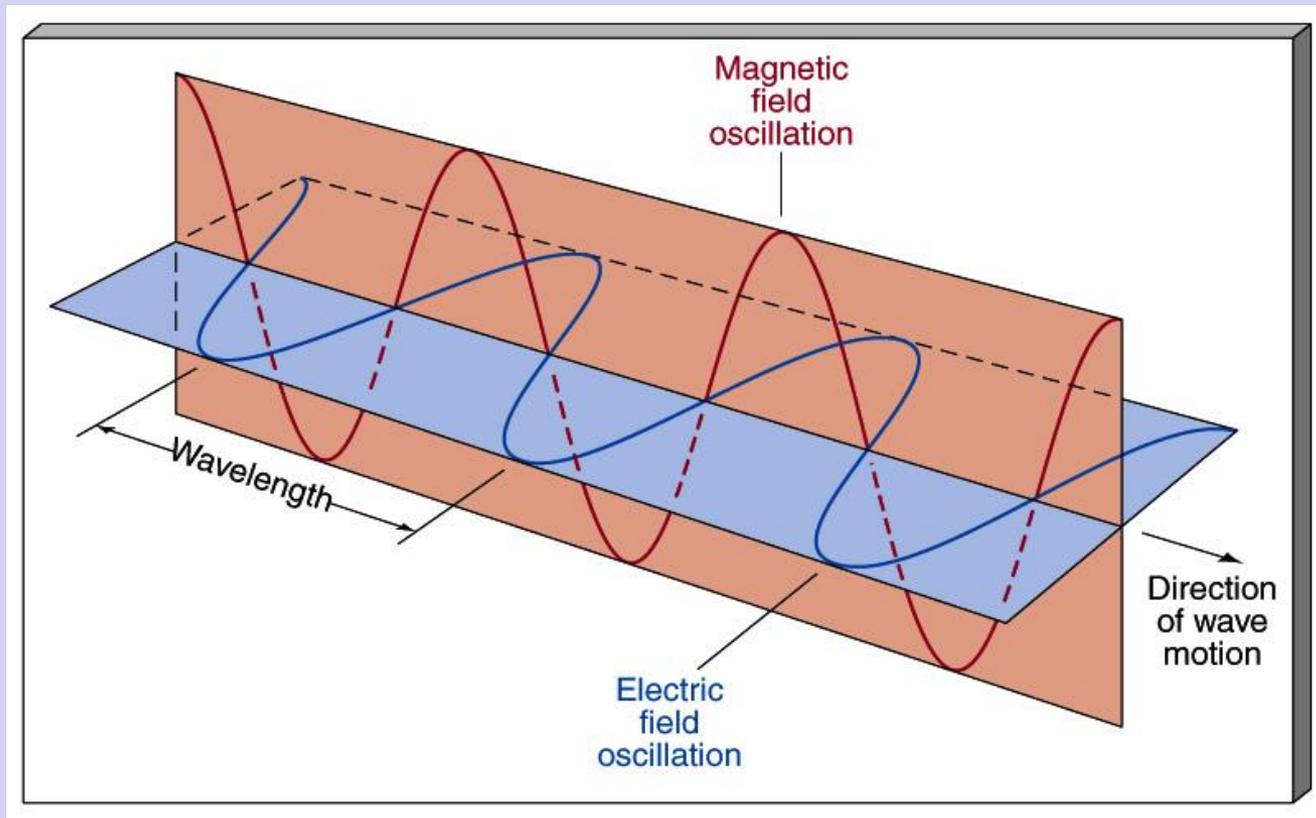
Wave Characteristics

Light Speed is 3×10^8 m/s

Properties of Light - III

Magnetic and Electric fields are coupled – a change in one creates the other!

**Ripples in the Electro-Magnetic field are
LIGHT**



Wave properties

- Light, as a wave, has “phase” as well as amplitude
- That means it also can have interference (destructive and constructive)

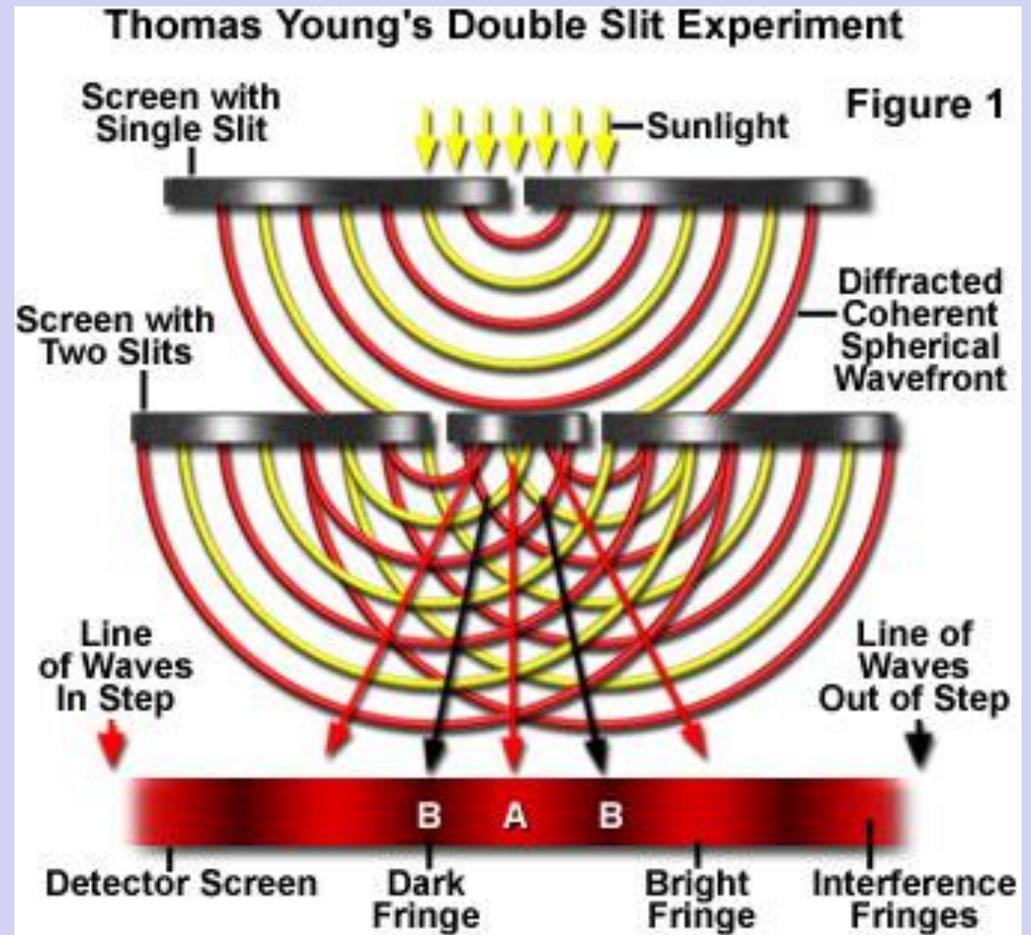
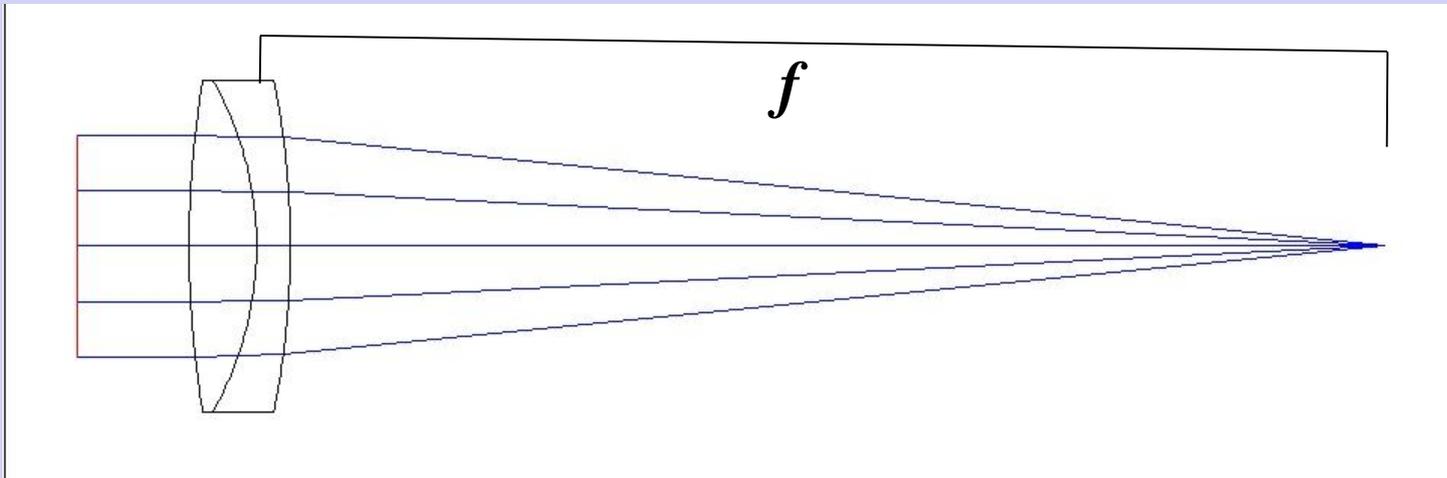


Image: National Magnet Lab

Optics & Focus

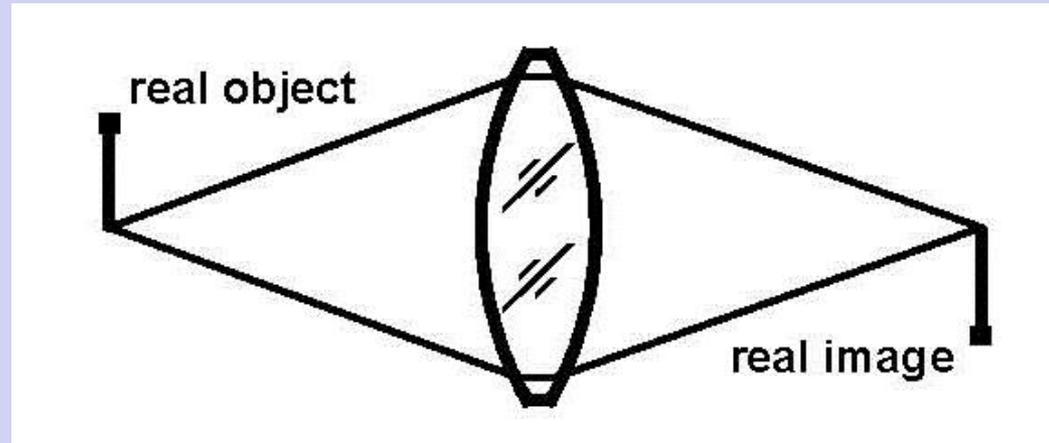
- Optics shown below is a doublet lens
- Parallel rays coming from left are made to converge



- Location where the rays cross the optical axis is the “focal point”
- Distance from a fiducial point in the lens to the focal point is the “focal length” (f)

Images

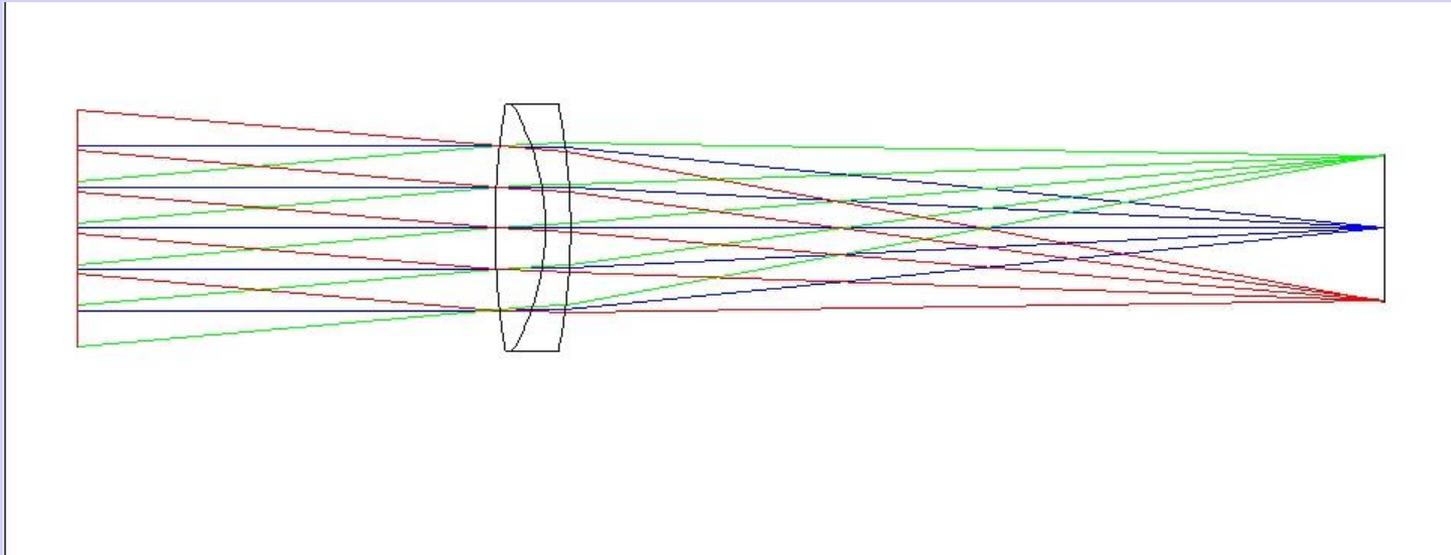
- Object plane (“source” for astronomers)
- Image plane
- These are “conjugates” of each other
- Conjugate distances are:
 - s_1, s_2
- $1/s_1 + 1/s_2 = 1/f$



- Magnification of the system is given by $m = s_1/s_2$

Images

- **Object plane (“source” for astronomers)**
- **Image plane**



- **For astronomy, usually the object plane distance can be approximated as infinity**
 - **Then, object angle \Leftrightarrow image position**
 - **And, object position \Leftrightarrow image angle**

Focal length and f/#

- **Effective focal length (EFL)** is the distance from the optic to the focal point
- **f/#** is the ratio of the focal length to the optic diameter ($f/\# = f/D$)
- **f/1** (e.g.) is “fast” (typically difficult to make optics this fast to faster)
- **f/30** (e.g.) is “slow” (typically easy to make optics this slow)

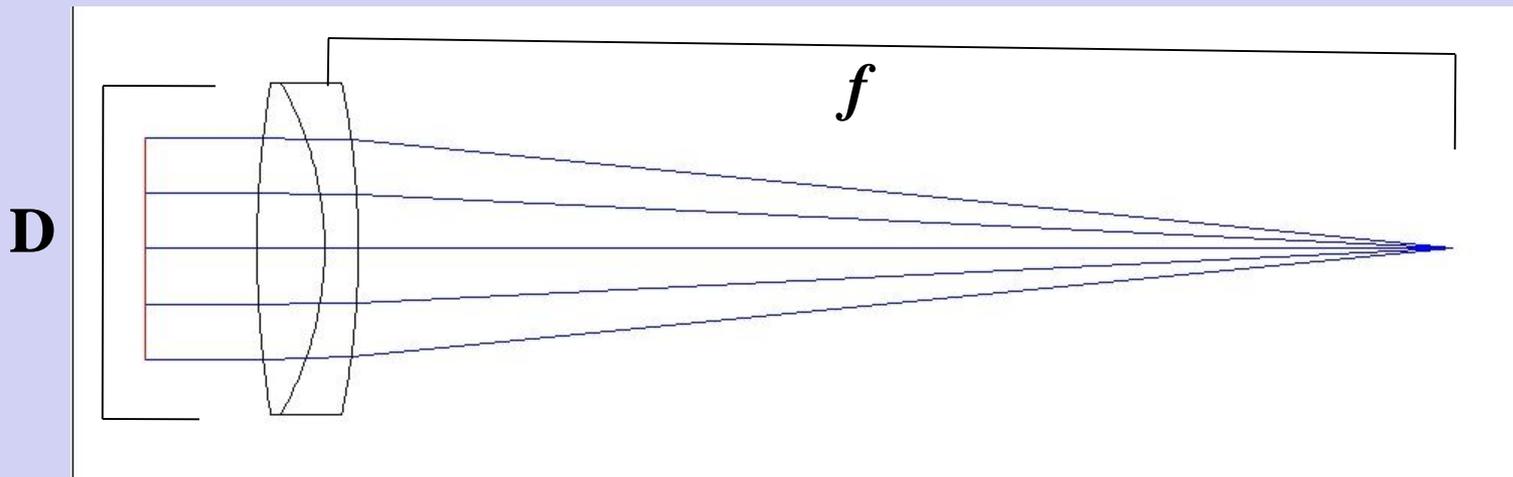


Plate Scale Calculation

- For a given optic with EFL = f , the image-plane scale is given by:
 - $PS = 1 \text{ radian}/f$ (radians/m)
 - $PS = 206265 / f$ (arcsec/mm)
- For instance, a telescope with EFL = 10-m (1.2-m at f/8), plate scale is:
 - $206265/10000 \cong 20.6 \text{ arcsec/mm}$
- A telescope with EFL = 170m (GTC 10-m at f/17) has plate scale of:
 - $206265/170000 \cong 1.2 \text{ arcsec/mm}$
- That's why it is MUCH easier to have a small wide-field telescope than a big wide-field telescope

Etendue

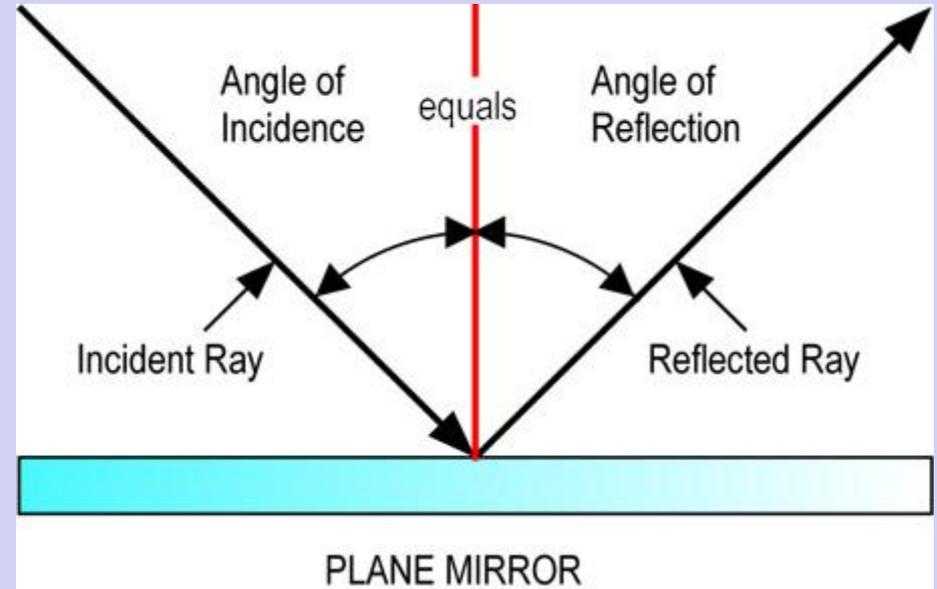
- Etendue = $A\Omega$ (area times solid angle)
- Etendue is conserved for any optical system
- This is the same as conservation of energy. So ... Believe it!
- High etendue is good. Why? Higher etendue means more energy passes through the system (and thus, more photons hit the detector!)

Mirrors

- Things that reflect light
- **This is not as simple as it seems – read Feynman’s book QED**
- For optical/IR astronomy, they are typically glass, ceramic, or metal (aluminum) substrates with a reflective coating (gold, silver, aluminum, etc.)
- Light rays hit the mirror surface and “bounce” off (albeit with less than 100% efficiency; why? See QED)

Law of Reflection

- Incidence angle i
- Reflected angle r
- $i = r$
- That is (almost) all you need to know
- Now ... go design a 3-mirror anastigmat!



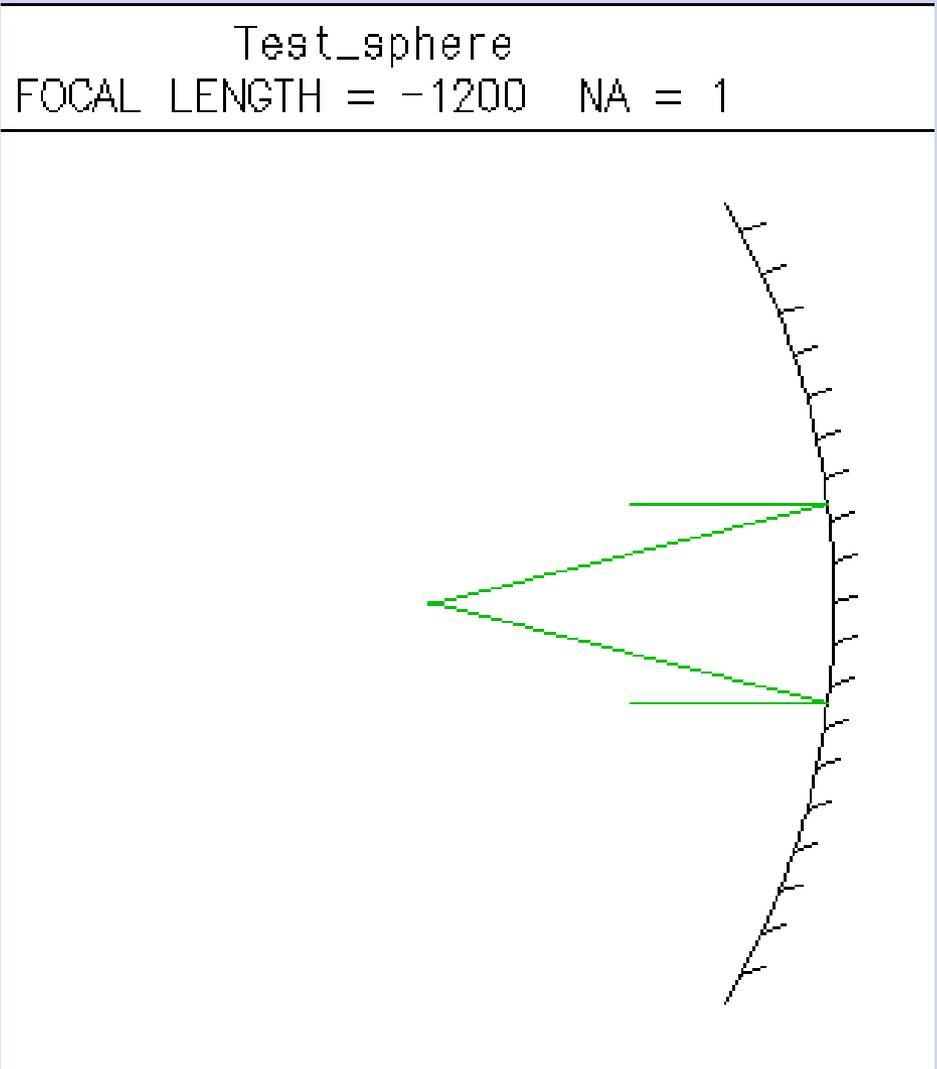
<http://laser.physics.sunysb.edu/~amy/wise2000/websites/Mirror348.jpg>

Flat mirrors

- **Change direction; not much else**
- **Useful for “folding” in optical systems, but not collecting, sorting light (by themselves)**
- **(Draw on board)**

Spherical mirrors

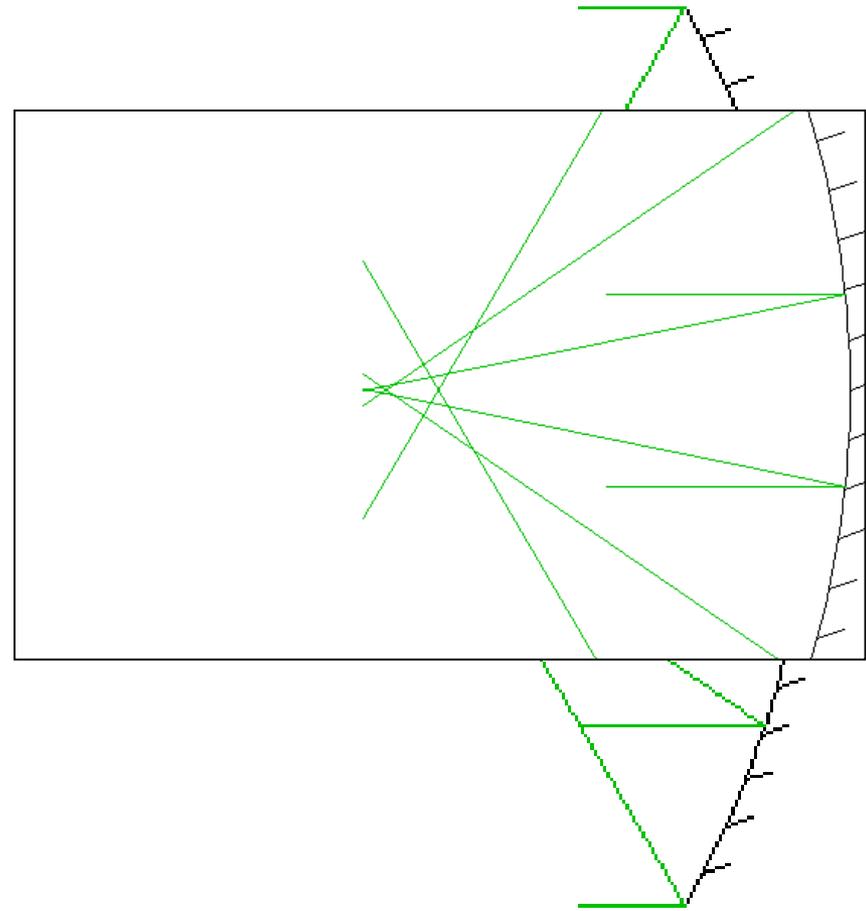
- Simplest “focusing” mirror
- Easy to make (planetary polishing)
- Focal length $f = R/2$ (derive this)



Spherical mirrors

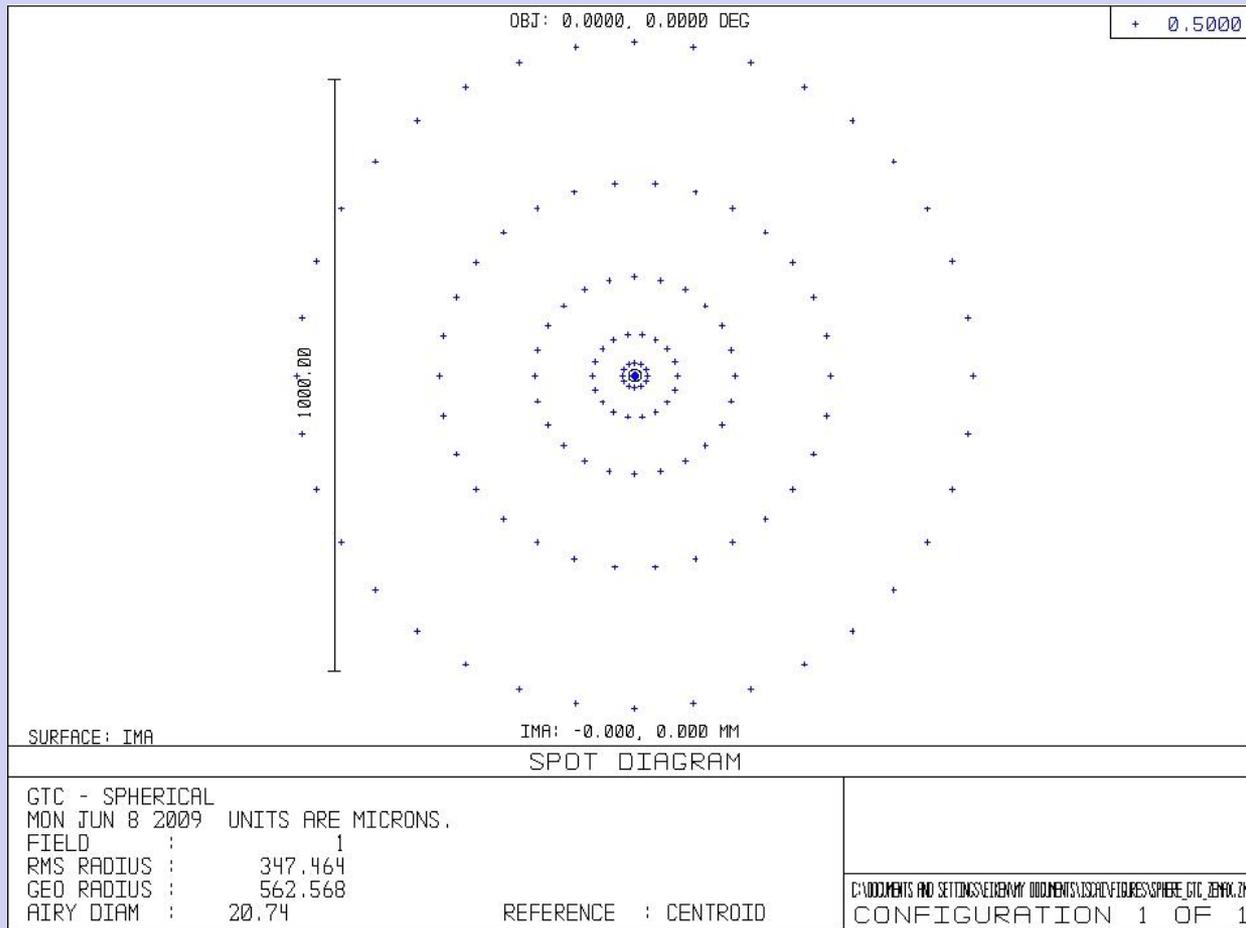
- **But ... I cheated on the math!**
- **Same mirror – more rays**
- **Spherical Aberration**
- **Math to describe it**
- **How bad is it?? Try “Spherical GTC”**

Test_sphere
FOCAL LENGTH = -1200 NA = 1



Spherical GTC - I

- 10.4-meter diameter mirror
- $f/17 \Rightarrow$ Focal length = $17 * 10.4\text{m} = 176.8\text{m}$
- So ... ROC = $2f = 353.6\text{m}$

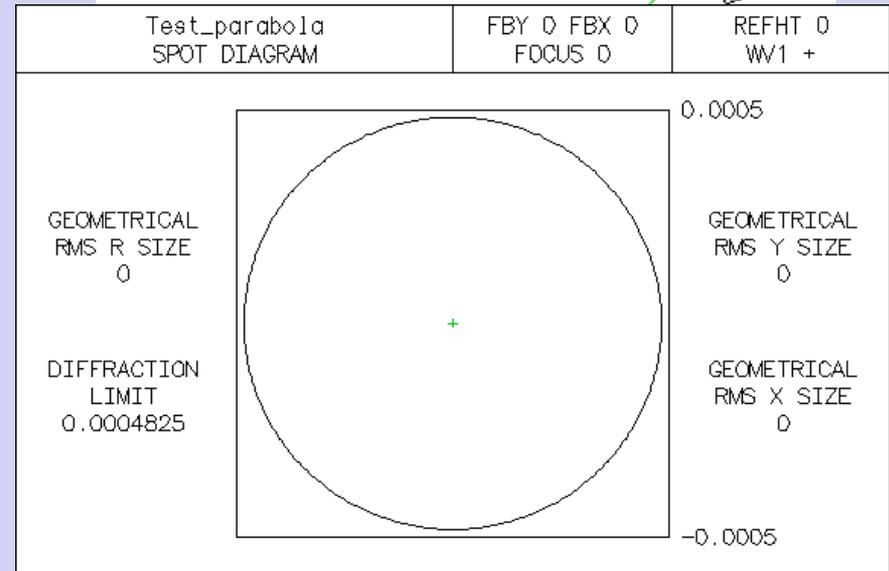
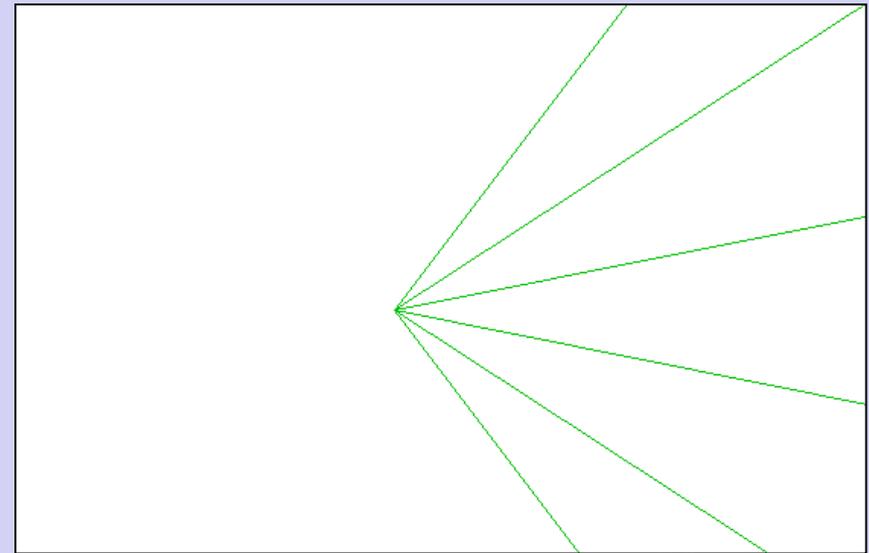
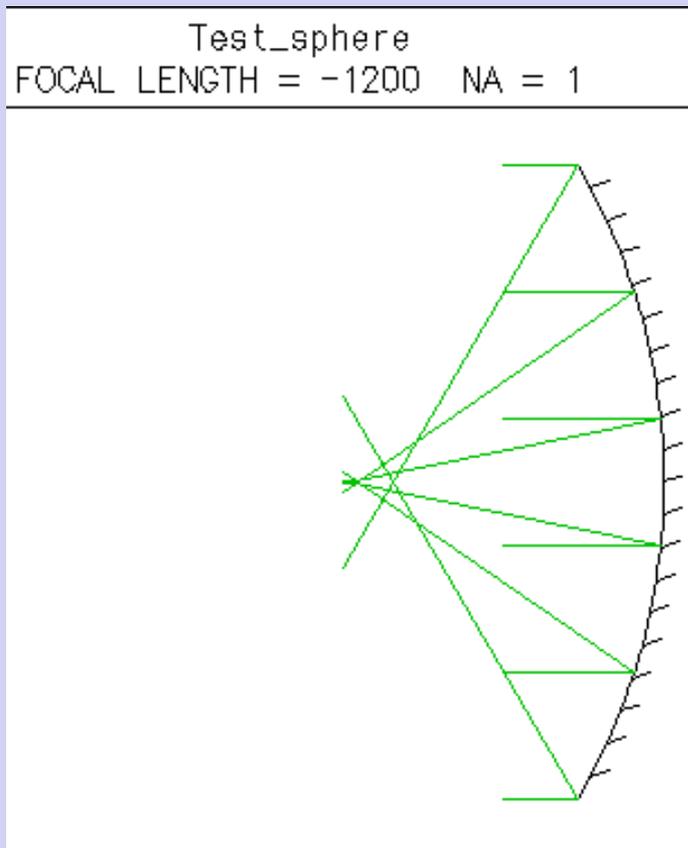


Parabolic mirrors

- $h^2 = 2rz - (1+\delta)z^2$
- Above is the equation for a “surface of revolution” for a conic section (i.e. take a curve by slicing a cone, then rotate about its vertex to create a solid surface)
- Surfaces of revolution are mathematically very important for optics
- δ is the “conic constant”
 - **Spheroid: $\delta=0$**
 - **Oblate Ellipsoid: $\delta > 0$**
 - **Prolate Ellipsoid: $-1 < \delta < 0$**
 - **Paraboloid: $\delta = -1$**
 - **Hyperboloid: $\delta < -1$**
- Math of parabolas & conic sections (derive focal length of parabola)

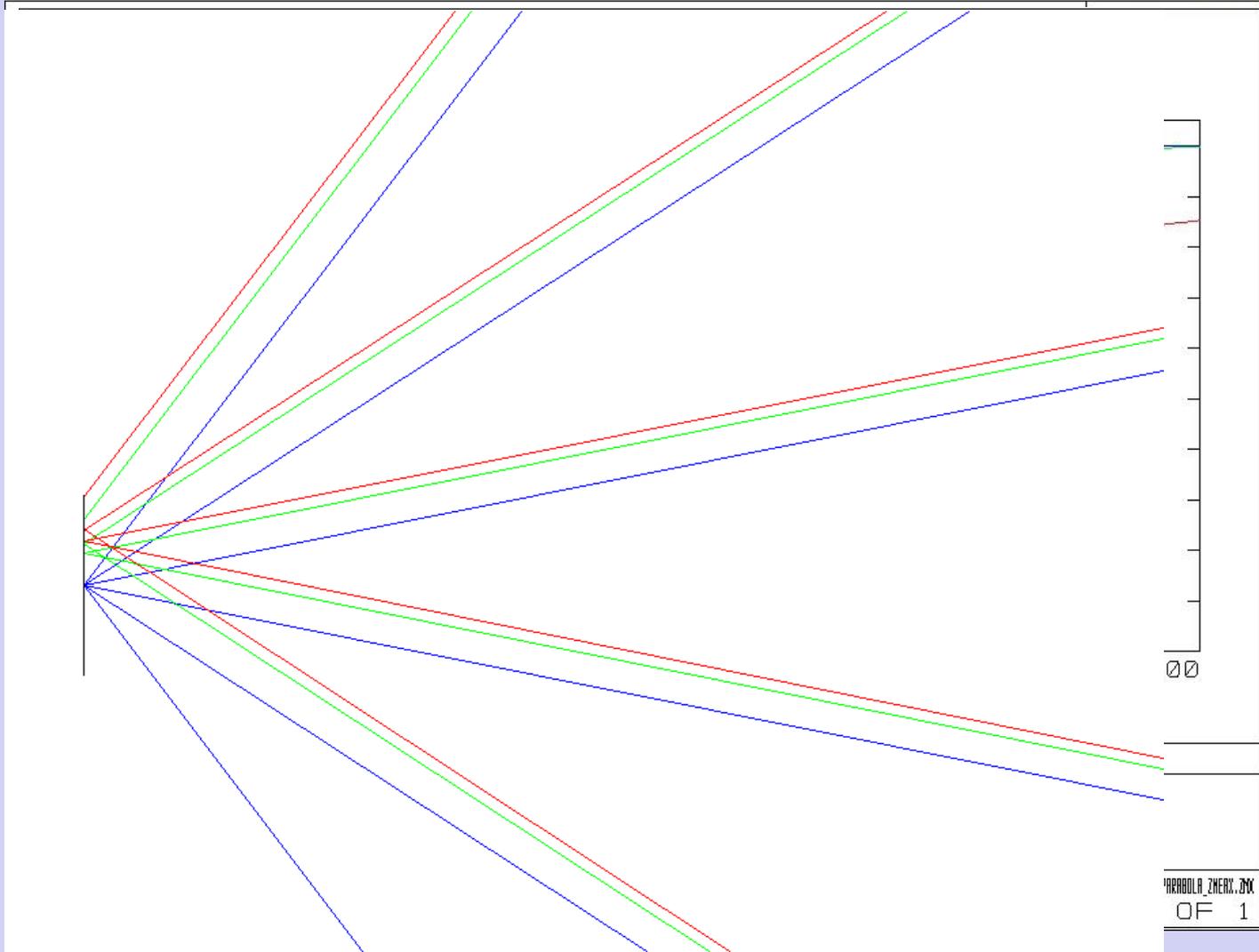
Parabolic mirrors

- More complex (mathematically) than spheres
 - $y = a x^2$
- Free from spherical aberration
 - (In fact, perfect!)



Parabolic mirrors

- Parabolas -> perfect “on-axis”
- Off-axis aberrations (coma!)

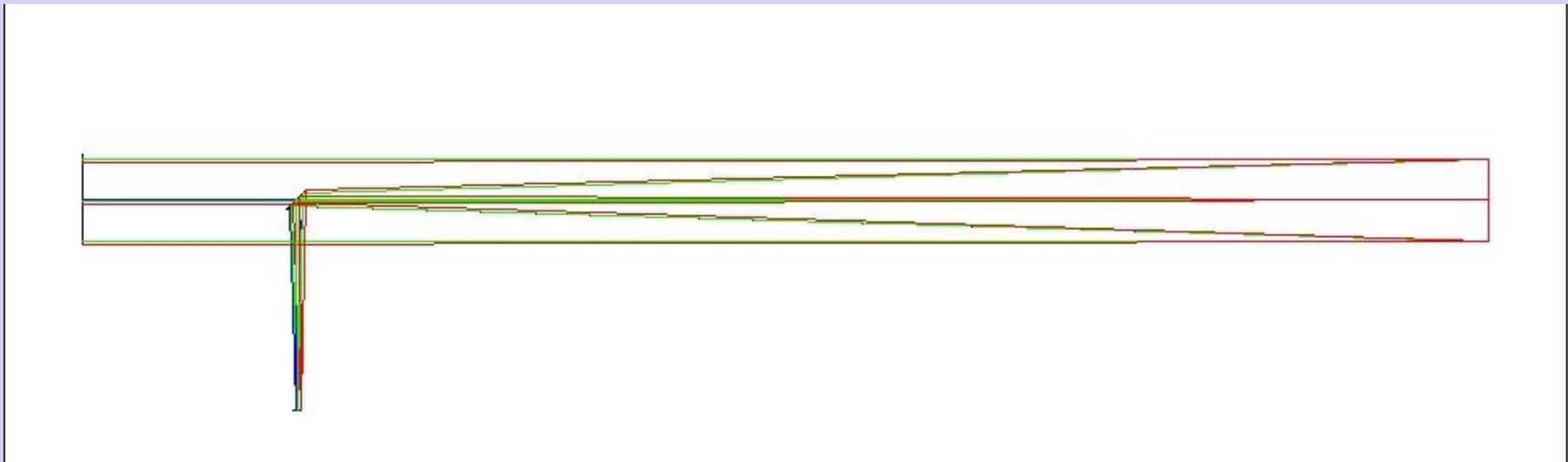
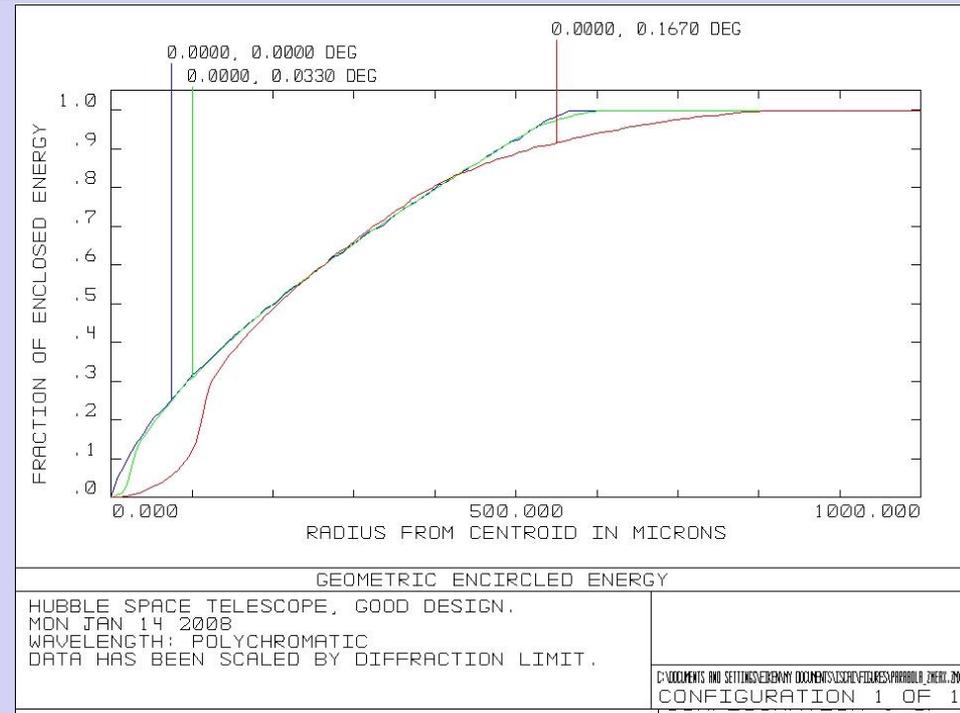


Telescopes

- **Collect light (improves S/N for information extraction)**
- **Also sets limiting resolution ($\theta_{\text{lim}} = \lambda/D$)**
 - **For 5m telescope at 500nm, $\theta_{\text{lim}} = 0.021$ -arcsec, for instance**
 - **So ... “seeing-limited” requires performance <0.2 -arcsec or so**
 - **“Diffraction-limited” typically will be ~ 0.005 -arcsec \Rightarrow ~ 40 times harder (and this gets worse for bigger telescopes!!)**

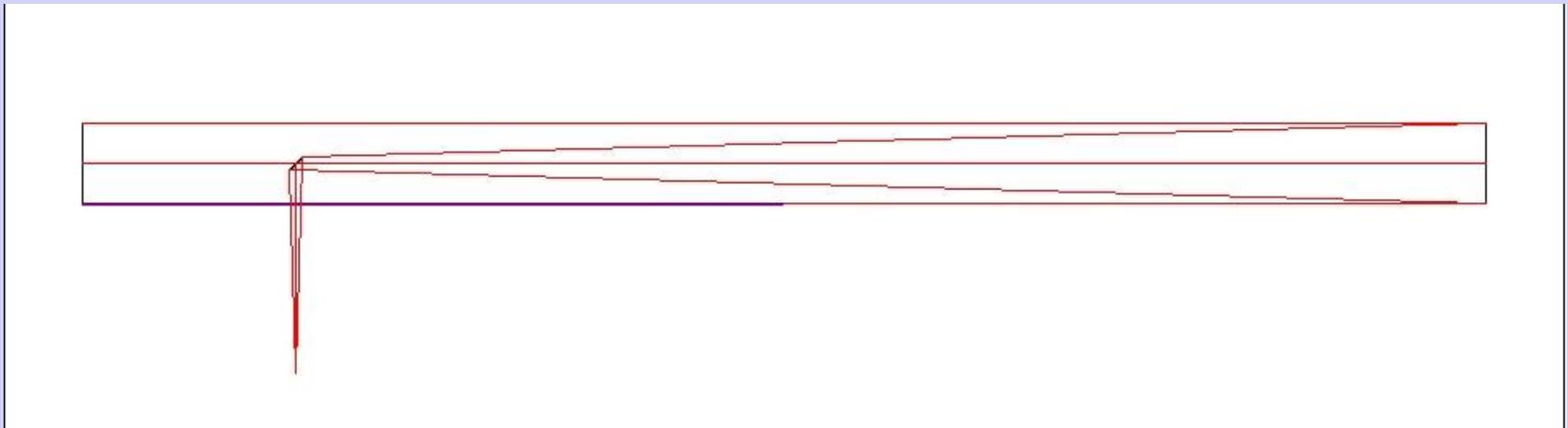
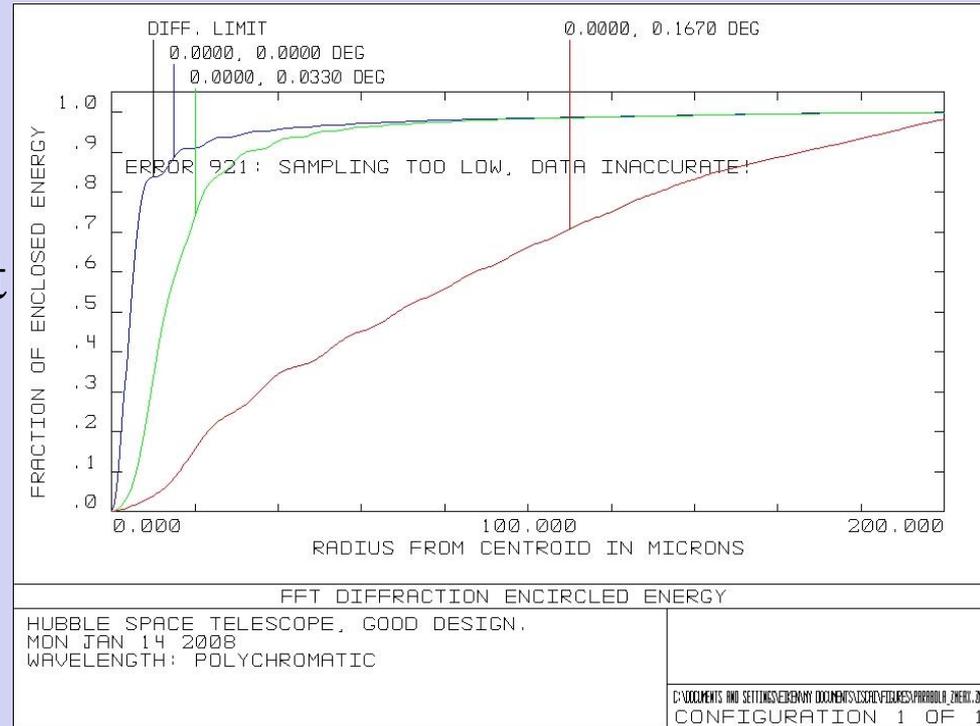
Telescopes: Newtonian

- Spherical primary (f/17 “GTC”)
- Flat fold mirror (why? To get focal plane out of obscuring path)
- ZEMAX example
- Aberrations (GTC-scale example?)



Telescopes: Parabolic

- Parabolic primary (f/17 “GTC”)
- Flat fold mirror (why? To get focal plane out of obscuring path)
- ZEMAX example
- Performance

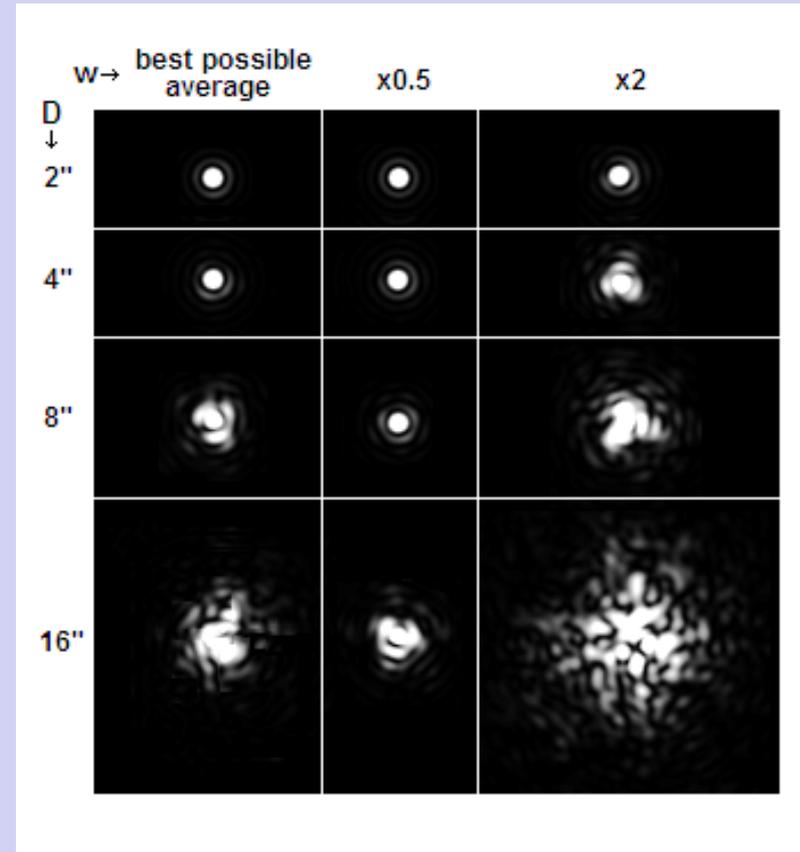


Imaging

- What good is it?
- The fundamental question asked/answered is “**How Bright?**”.
- Common modifiers to the question include:
 - Versus angular direction (α, β)
 - Versus light wavelength λ
- This is “basic imaging”
- But, in the real world you get neither infinite coverage nor infinite resolution (in angular-space nor in wavelength-space)
- How are these typically handled?

Angular Resolution

- “Natural” limitations: Seeing
- “Seeing” = atmospheric turbulence
- Typically <1 -arcsec for good astronomical sites (sometimes as sharp as ~ 0.3 -arcsec)
- Results in “Gaussian”-like profile



Angular Resolution

- **Natural limitations: Diffraction**
- **Atmosphere is not the limit with space instruments, nor with good adaptive-optics correction**
- $\theta_{\text{lim}} \cong \lambda/D_{\text{tel}}$
- **Airy disk profile (inner portion not TOO far from Gaussian either!)**

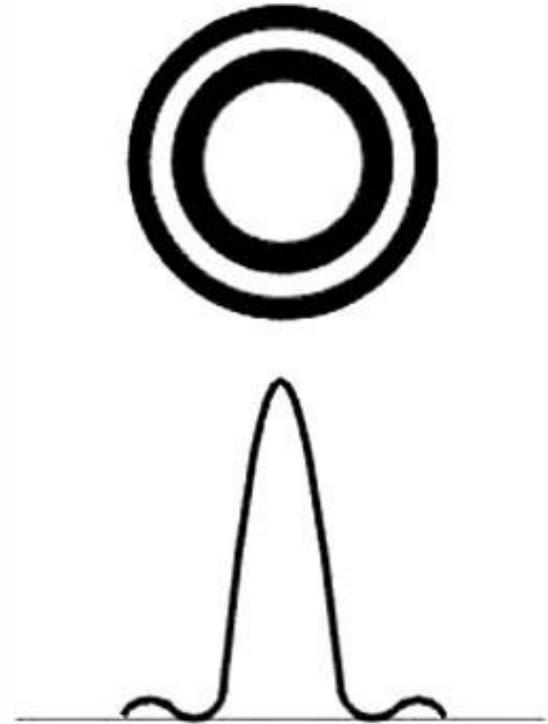
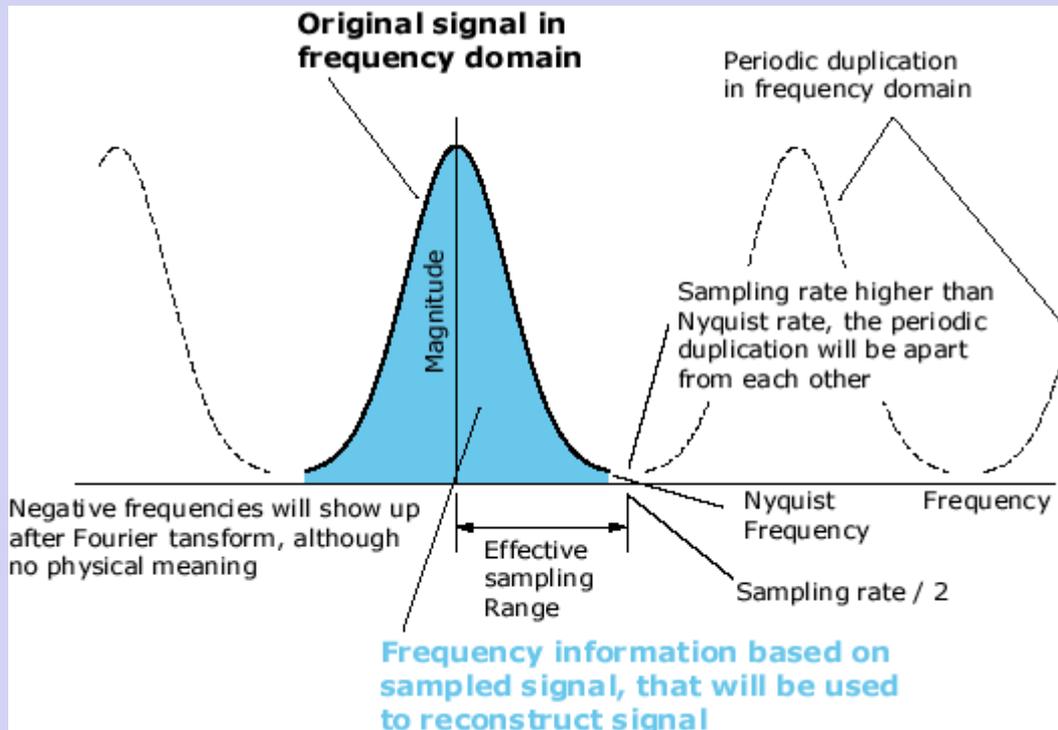


Figure 9. Point spread function (Airy disk pattern) of a point source. The upper component represents the perception of the light distribution when viewing an Airy disc (shown below).

Angular Resolution: Nyquist

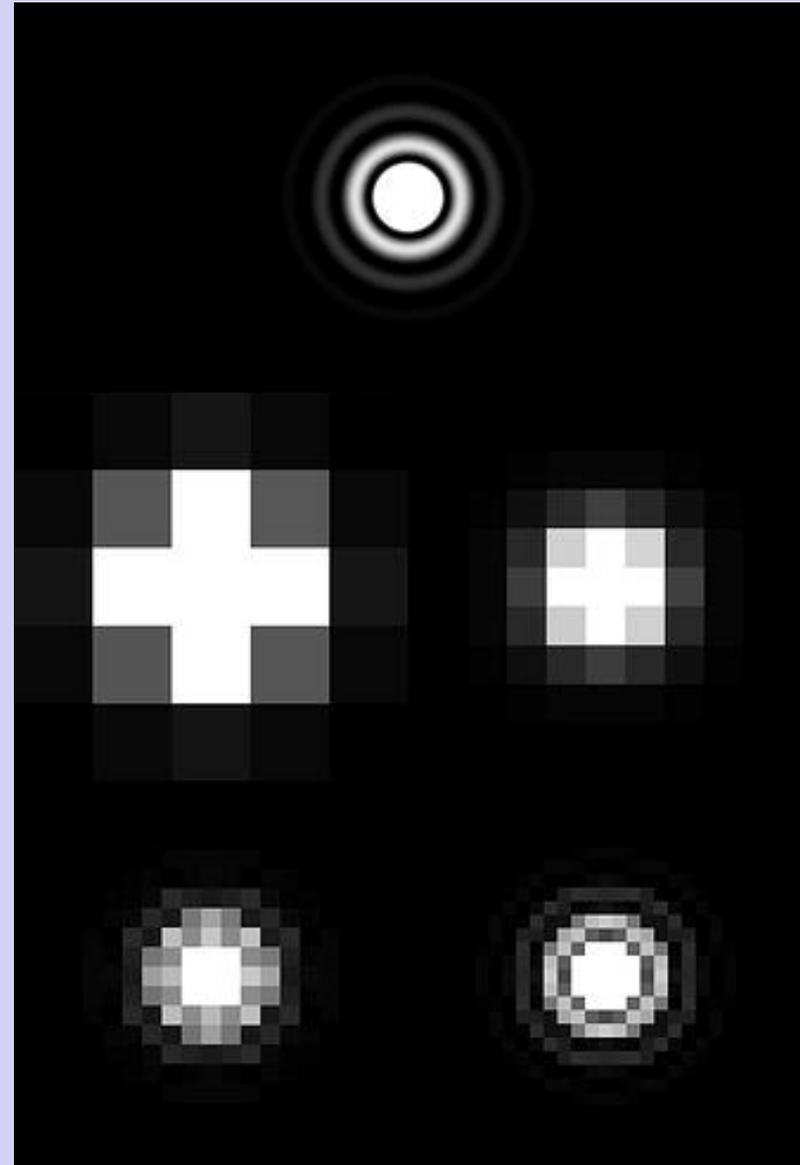
- Sampling for an image:
 - Nyquist sampling requires 2 pixels per resolution element ($N_{\text{samp}} = 2$)
- This is 2 samples per Full-Width at Half-Maximum (FWHM)



http://www.efunda.com/designstandards/sensors/methods/images/Aliasing_B.gif

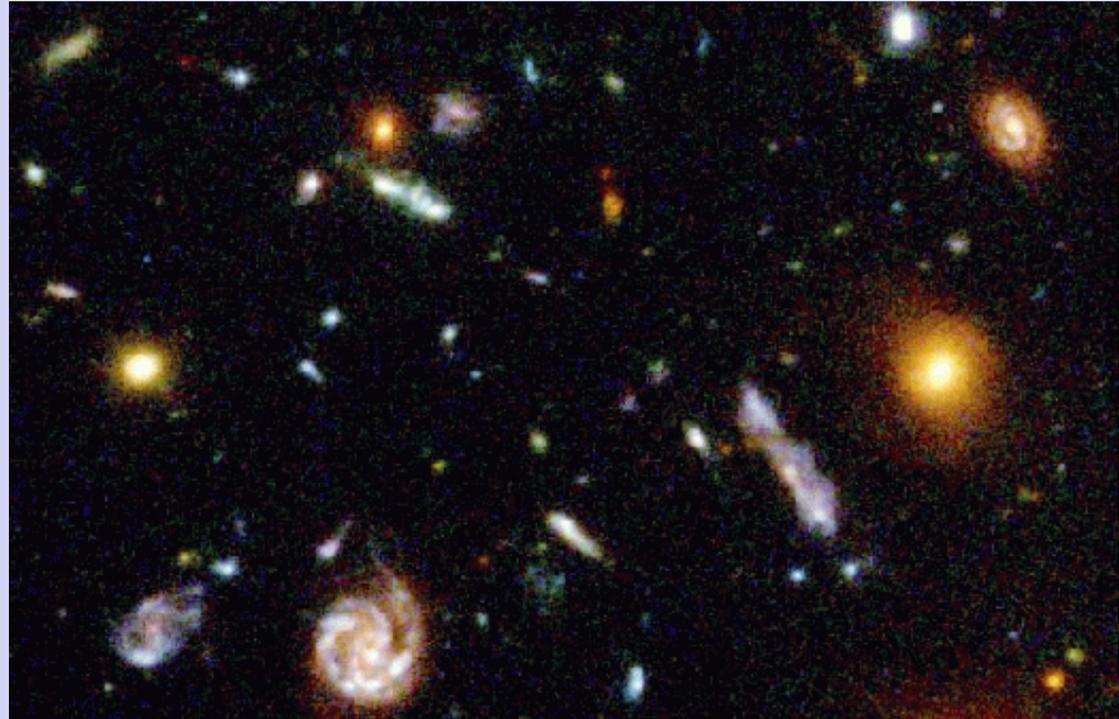
Angular Resolution: Nyquist (cont)

- Note that Nyquist sampling is the hard **MINIMUM** required
- Often want finer sampling (i.e. **3-5 pixels per FWHM**) to obtain better information



Field of View

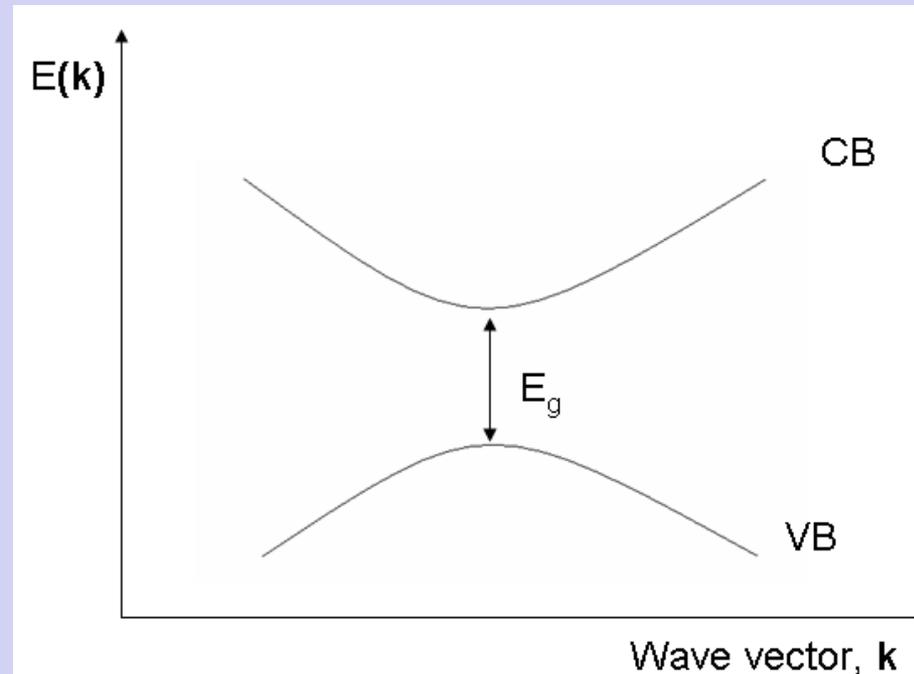
- Often want to look at more than one target at a time (!!)
- Minimum number of pixels needed $\propto (\text{FOV}/\text{seeing})^2 * N_{\text{samp}}^2$
- Detector cost proportional to N_{pix}
- Optics diameter roughly proportional to N_{pix} (for given detector scale); Optics cost typically $\propto D^2$ or D^3 (!)



Detector Noise: Dark Current

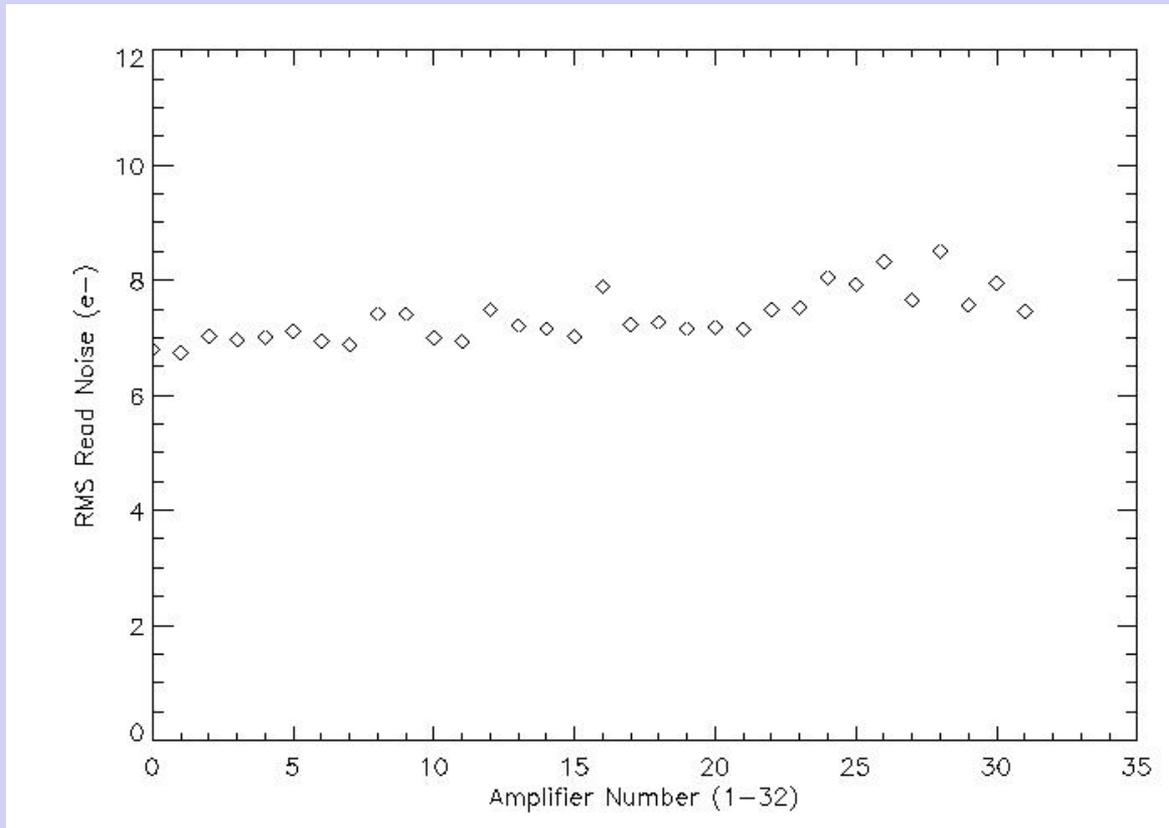
- **Real-world detectors typically have some signal produced even in the ABSENCE of light**
- **This is generically referred to as “dark current”**
- **Often, related to thermal noise exciting electrons into the conduction band in semiconductor detectors (i.e. CCDs, IR arrays, etc.)**
- **This add shot noise**

[http://org.ntnu.no/solarcells/pics/chap3/Bandgap%20wave vector.png](http://org.ntnu.no/solarcells/pics/chap3/Bandgap%20wave%20vector.png)



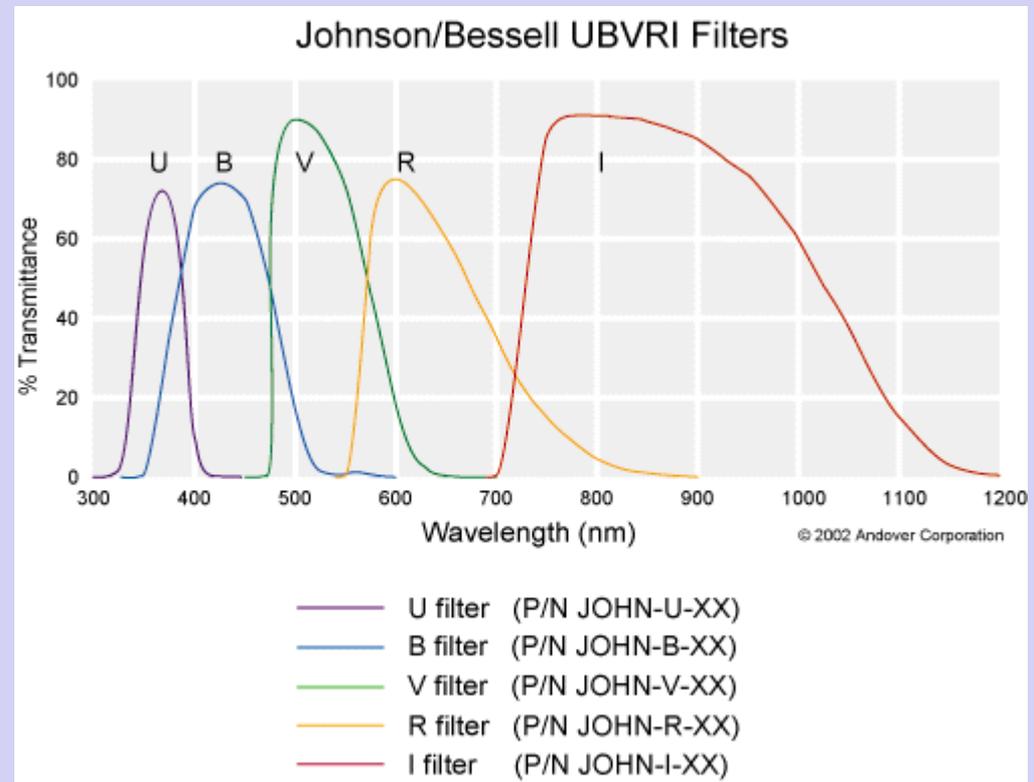
Detector Noise: Read Noise

- Readout amplifiers of real-world detectors also have some typical noise called “read noise”
- Typically expressed in electrons (RMS)
- “noise-equivalent signal” is RN^2



At what wavelength range?

- **Broader bandpass means more photons (means more signal!)**
- **But, broader bandpass means less spectral resolution (means more confusion about physical meaning of brightness)**
- **And, broader bandpass means more sky background (means more noise)**



http://www.andovercorp.com/web_store/Images/Graphs/UBVRI_Johnson.gif

Signal –to-Noise for Imaging

- **Combine all of this to determine equation for maximum signal-to-noise**
- **Instrument design requires careful balancing of spatial/spectral resolution, field of view, image quality, noise, cost – ALL compared with ultimate scientific information extraction**

“Real” Telescopes

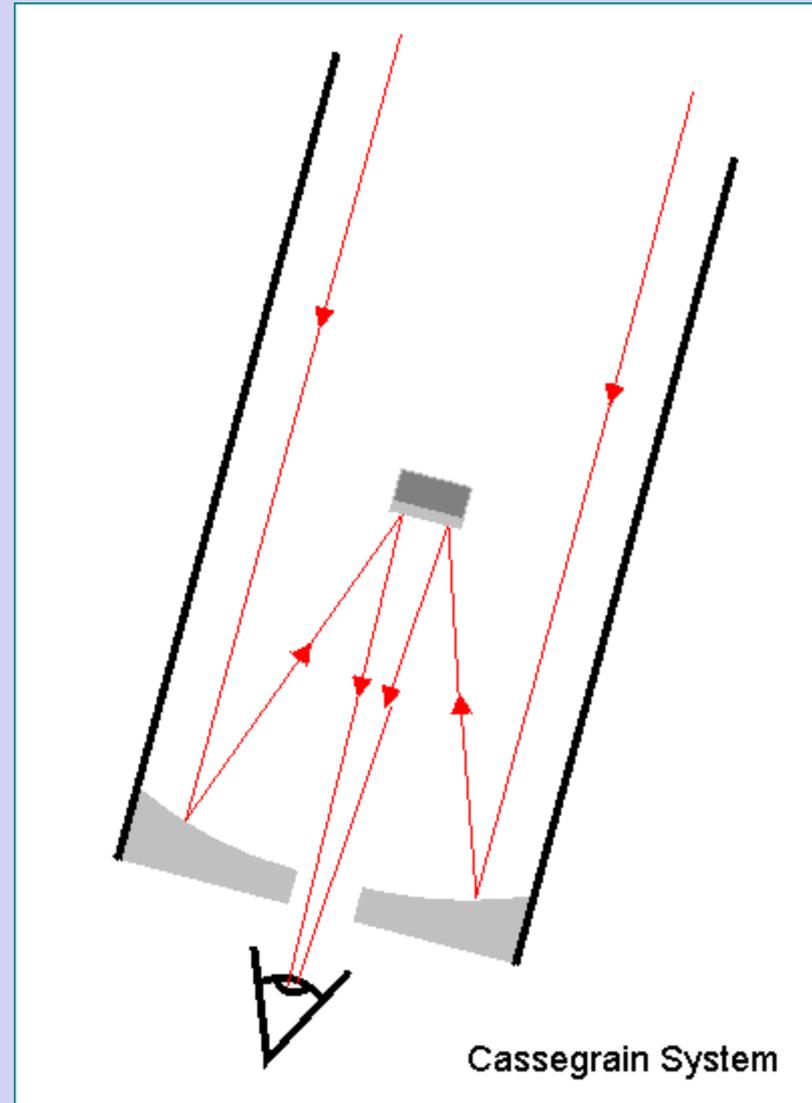
- **Research observatories no longer build Newtonian or Parabolic telescopes for optical/IR astronomy**
 - **Aberrations from their single powered optical surface are too large**
- **More advanced telescopes available**
- **Typically, for us, these are “2-mirror” (meaning 2 powered mirrors) telescopes**
- **The secondary mirror is curved, as well as the primary**
- **Two powered surfaces means that we can use the combination to “correct” aberrations from a single-mirror approach**

Common 2-Mirror Scopes

| Telescope | Primary | Secondary |
|--|------------------|------------------------|
| Cassegrain | Parabola | Hyperbola |
| Gregorian | Parabola | Prolate Ellipse |
| Ritchey-Chretien (Aplanatic Cass) | Hyperbola | Hyperbola |
| Aplanatic Gregorian | Ellipse | Prolate Ellipse |

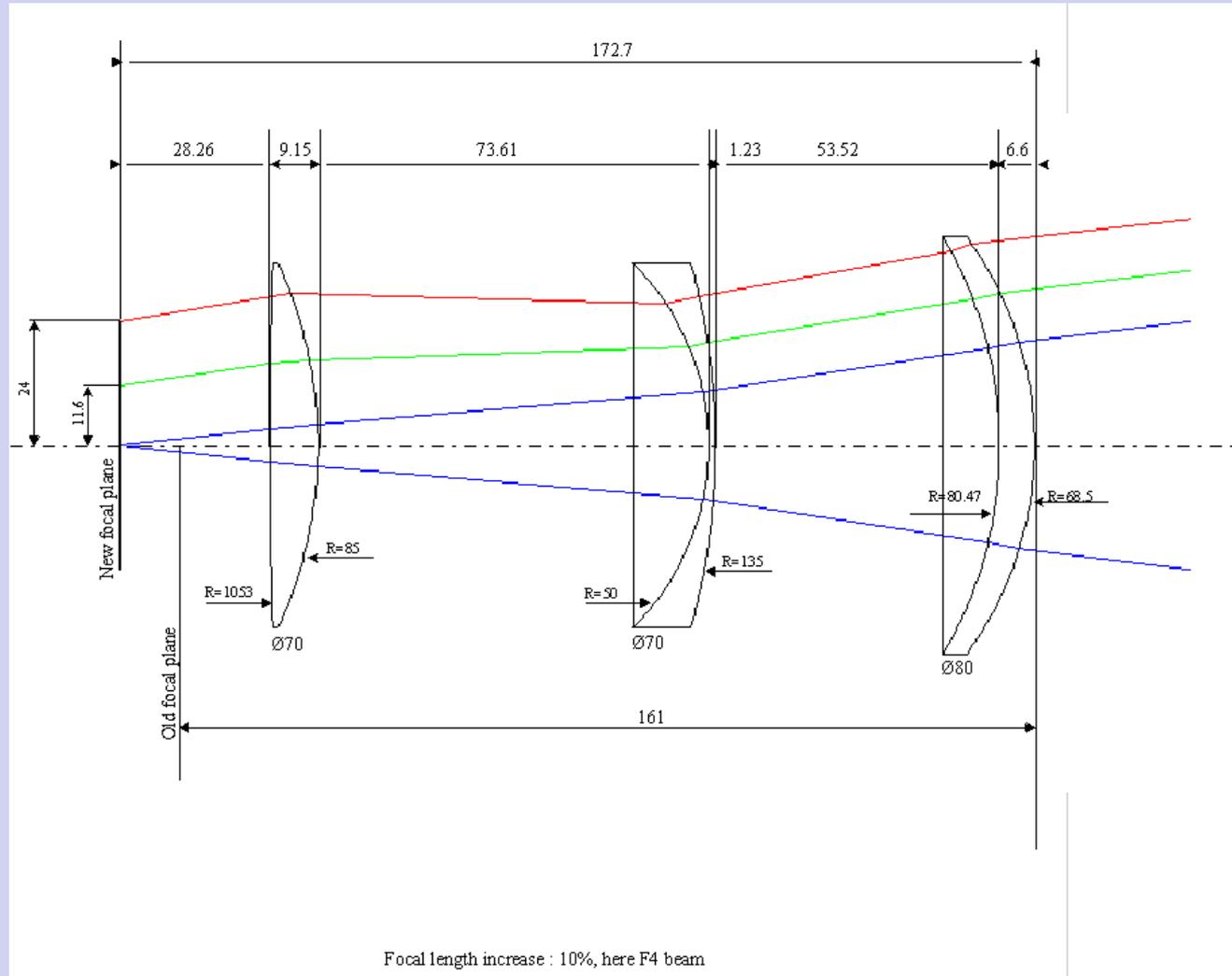
Cassegrain

- All well-designed 2-mirror scopes of this sort have good performance on/near-axis
- Cass field-of-view is typically limited by coma
- Field curvature also an issue



Cameras: Prime Focus

- Prime Focus Corrector
- Wynne solution



Sampling, etc.

- **Sampling for an image:**
 - Nyquist sampling requires 2 pixels per resolution element ($N_{\text{samp}} = 2$)
 - Typical experience is that for high-accuracy photometry, often want 3-5 pixels per resolution element ($N_{\text{samp}} = 3-5$)
- **Field-of-View:**
 - Number of pixels needed $\propto (\text{FOV/seeing})^2 * N_{\text{samp}}^2$
 - Detector cost proportional to N_{pix}
- **Detector noise:**
 - Read noise and detector noise add in quadrature for independent pixels
 - So ... noise $\propto N_{\text{samp}}$

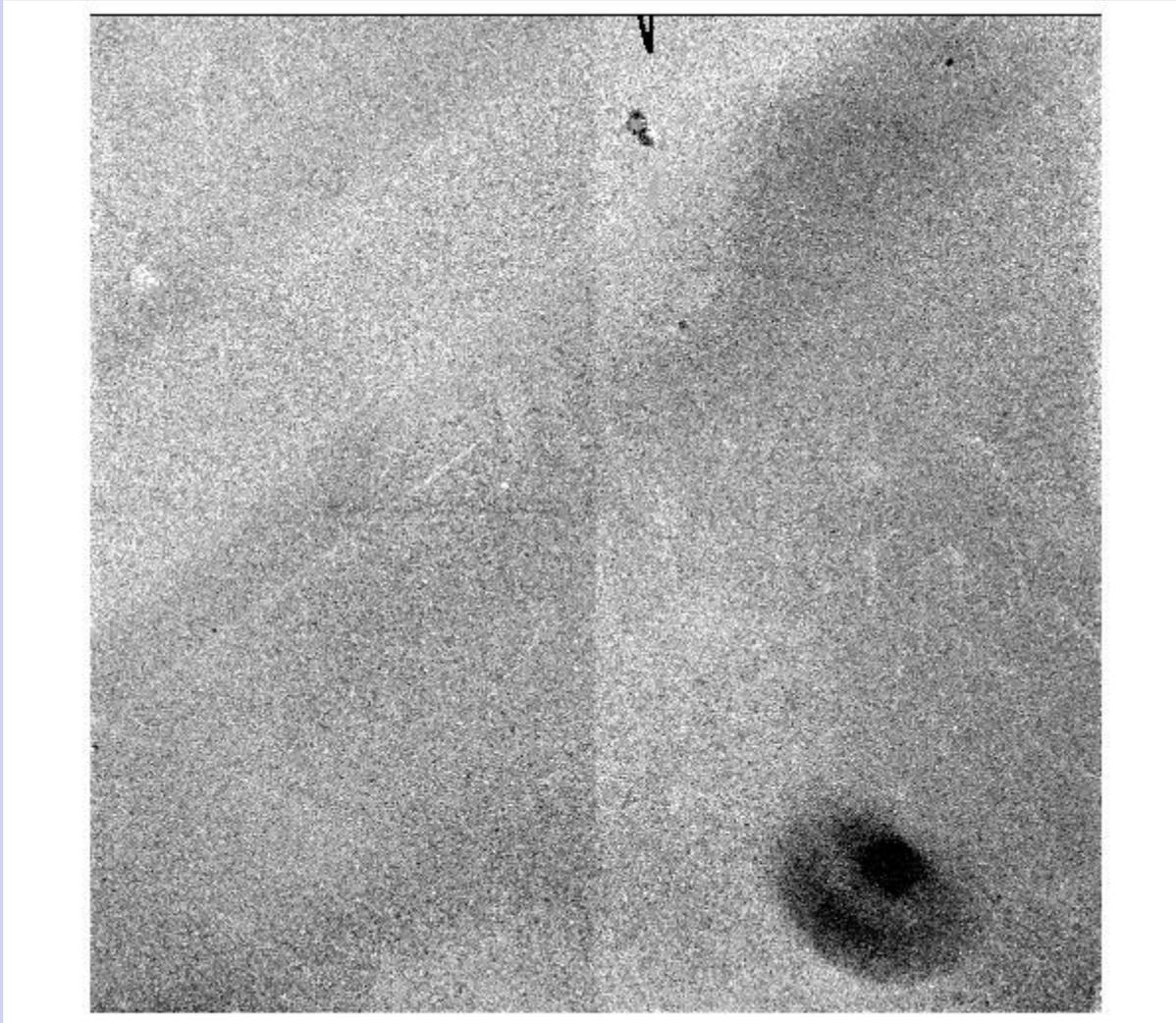
Focal Reducers

- Also known as “beam accelerator”
- Variation on direct imaging
- If we **KNOW** we want a certain pixel scale, then we know the resulting EFL we need for the system
- Insert a lens of appropriate focal length to modify the EFL of the telescope to match this

What's Wrong with Reduction?

- Perfectly fine for many applications
- Where do the filters go? Right in front of the detector
- Why? Cost often proportional to diameter²⁻³
- What does that mean for filter defects or dust spots? They are projected onto the detector (!!)
- This means that the system throughput can change dramatically from point to point
- Why is that bad? We can use a “flatfield” image to correct this
- But ... flatfield accuracy seldom much better than ~0.1-1%
- So ... if we introduce large spatial variations into the camera response function, **we introduce photometric noise** (even for differential photometry)

Dust Example

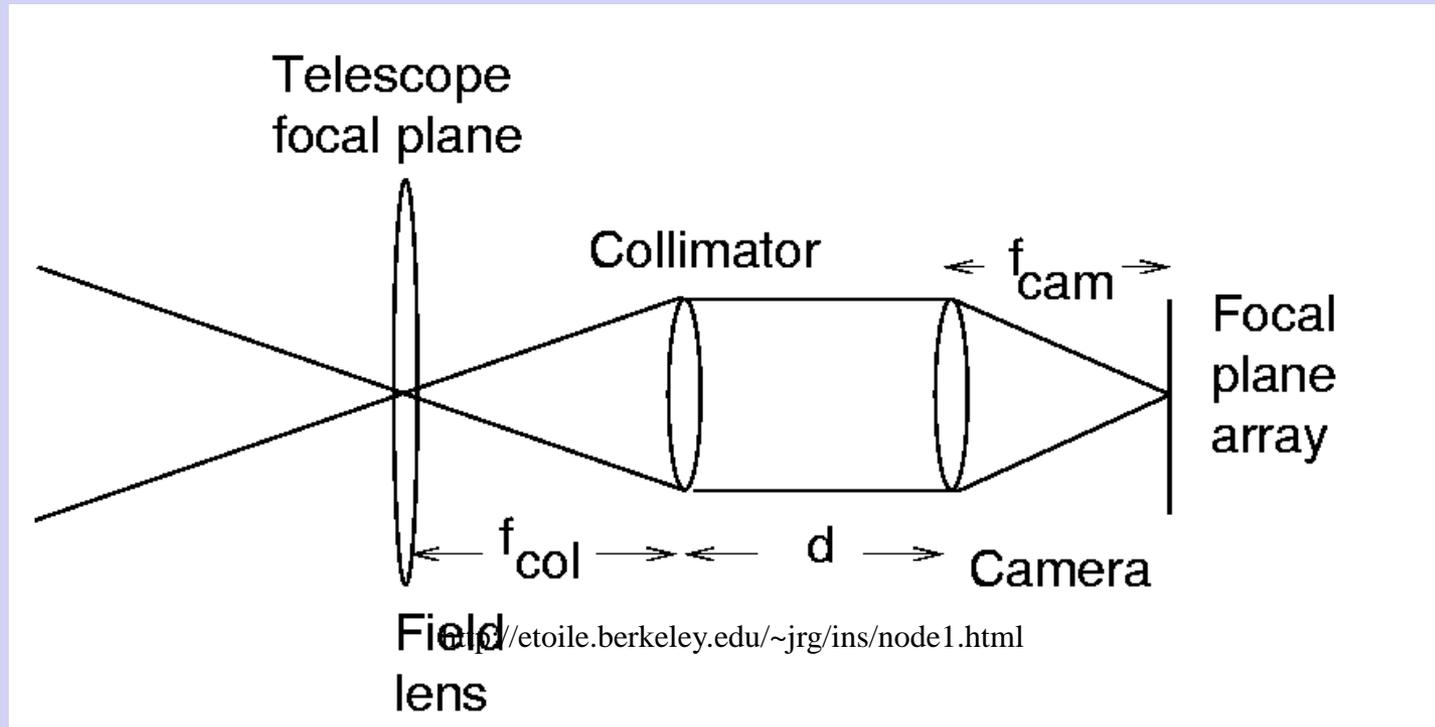


- <http://www.not.iac.es/instruments/notcam/guide/dust.jpg>

Camera/Collimator Approach

- These systems use a “collimator” to create an image of the telescope exit pupil
- Light rays from a given field point are parallel (“collimated”) after the collimator optics
- Another optical system (the “camera”) accepts light from the collimator and re-focuses the image plane onto a detector

<http://etoile.berkeley.edu/~jrg/ins/node1.html>

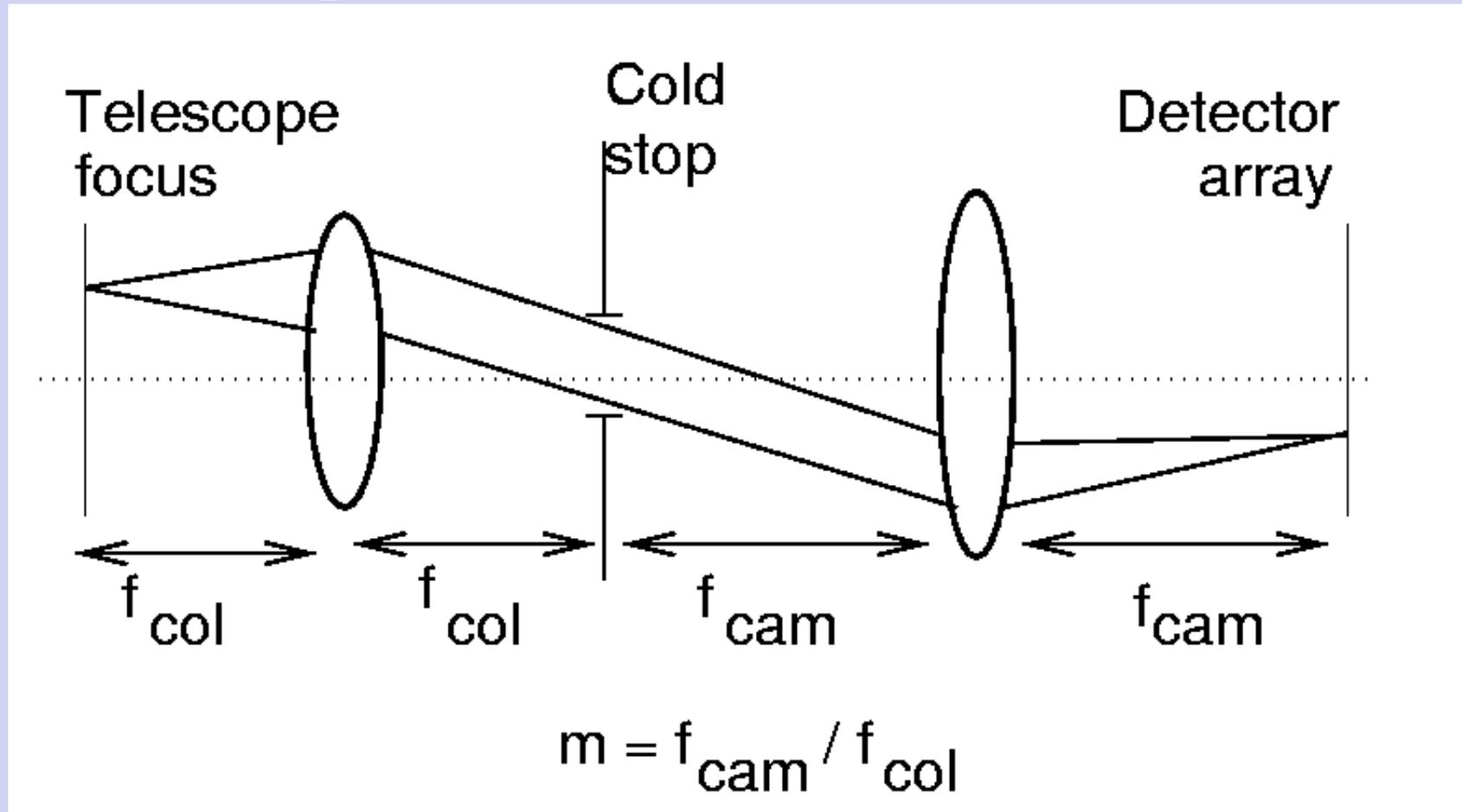


Camera/Collimator & Filters

- **Pupil image is where the parallel rays from different field points cross**
- **A filter can now be placed at the pupil image**
- **Any dust spots on the filter reduce the total system throughput**
- **However, they are now projected onto the pupil, NOT the image plane**
- **Thus, this light loss is now IDENTICAL for all field points**
- **This eliminates the contribution to flatfield “noise”!!**

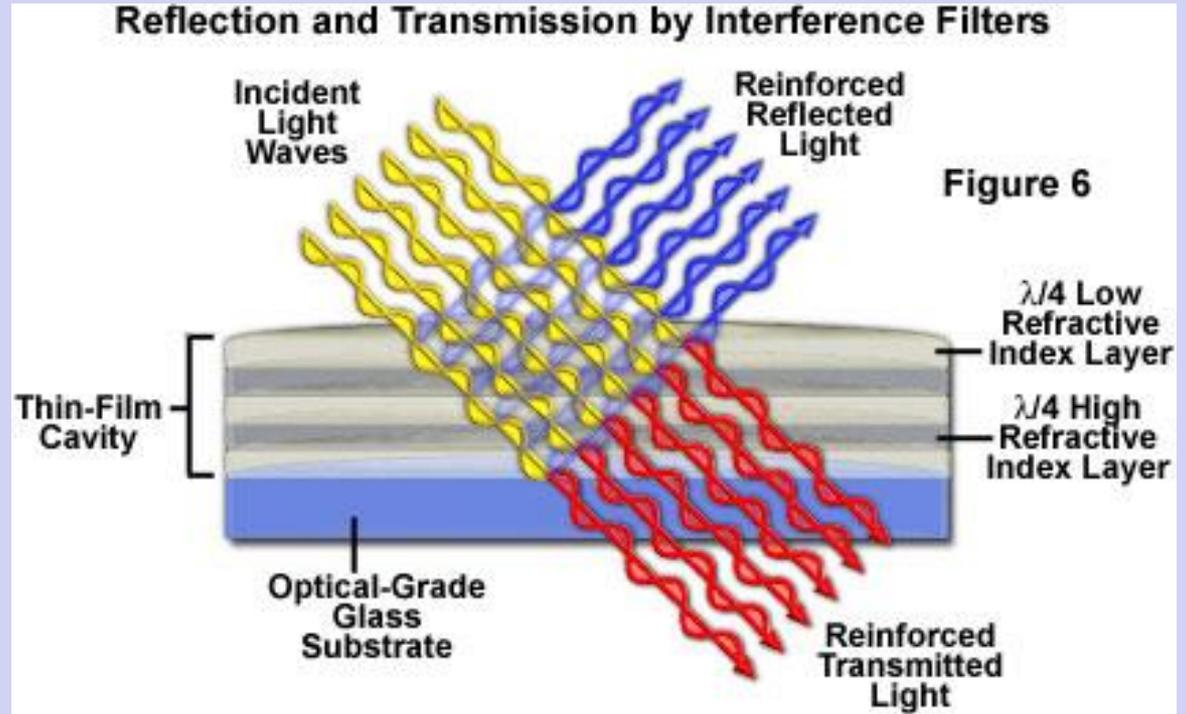
Infrared Cameras

- Need for cold stop



Interference Filters

- How they work (roughly)
- Angular dependence
- Field dependence versus wavelength spread
- Example



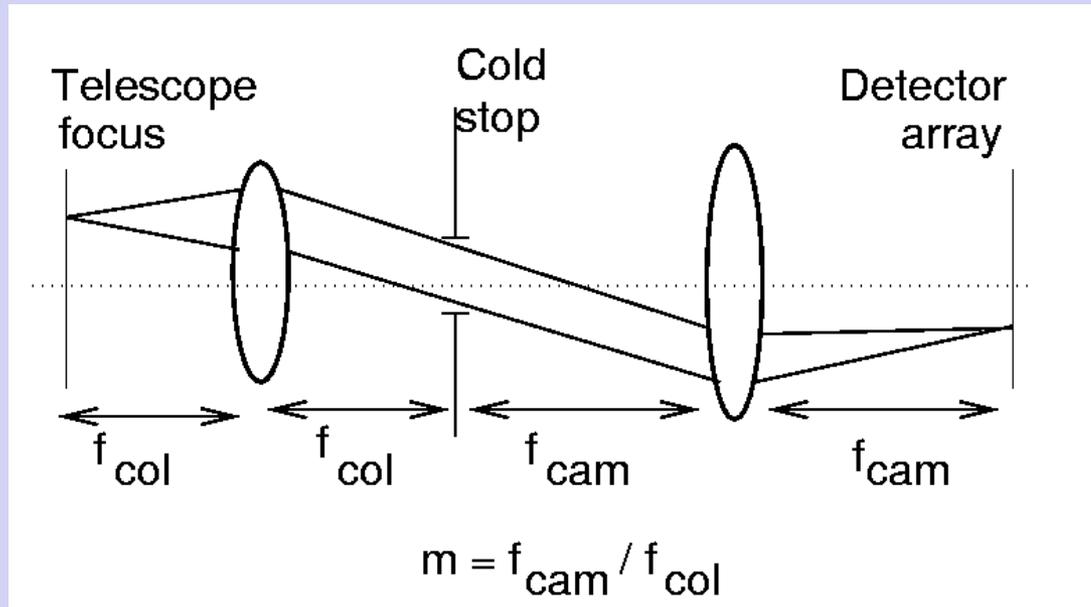
Spectroscopy: What is it?

- **How Bright?** (our favorite question):
 - Versus position on the sky
 - Versus wavelength/energy of light
 - Typically “spectroscopy” means $R = \lambda/\Delta \lambda > 10$ or so ...
- **One approach: energy-sensitive detectors**
 - Works for X-rays! CCDs get energy for every photon that hits them!
 - Also STJs for optical; but poor QE & R, plus limited arrays
- **Another approach:**
 - Spread (“disperse”) the light out across the detector, so that particular positions correspond to particular λ
 - “Standard” approach to optical/IR spectroscopy

Conjugate, conjugate, conjugate

- Conjugates table for collimator/camera

| Plane | X | θ | Conjugate To |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-----------------|
| Telescope pupil | Position on pupil | Angle on Sky | - |
| Telescope focus | Angle on sky | Position on primary | - |
| Collimator focus (Pupil Image) | Position on pupil | Angle on sky | Telescope pupil |
| Camera focus (detector) | Angle on Sky | Position on pupil | Telescope focus |



Dispersion Conundrum

- Hard to find dispersers that map wavelength to position
- Easy to find dispersers that map wavelength to angle (prisms, gratings, etc.)
- Hard to find detectors that are angle-sensitive
- Easy to find detectors that are position-sensitive (CCDs, etc.)

- We want an easy life! \Rightarrow find a way to use angular dispersion to map into position at detector
- Solution: place an angular disperser at a place where angle eventually gets mapped into position on detector \Rightarrow at/near the image of the pupil in a collimator/camera design!

Slits and Spectroscopy

- **Problem:**
 - **Detector position $[x_1, y_1]$ corresponds to sky position $[\alpha_1, \beta_1]$ at wavelength λ_1**
 - **Detector position $[x_1, y_1]$ ALSO corresponds to sky position $[\alpha_2, \beta_2]$ at wavelength λ_2 !!**
 - **Need to find some way to eliminate this confusing “Crosstalk”**
- **Common Solution:**
 - **Introduce a small-aperture field stop at the focal plane, and only allow light from one source through**
 - **This is called a spectrograph “slit”**

Angular dispersion

- Define $d\beta/d\lambda$ for generic disperser (draw on board)
- Derive linear dispersion on detector
 - Shift $x = \theta * f_{\text{cam}}$
 - $dx/d\lambda = d\beta/d\lambda * f_{\text{cam}} = A * f_{\text{cam}}$

Limiting resolution

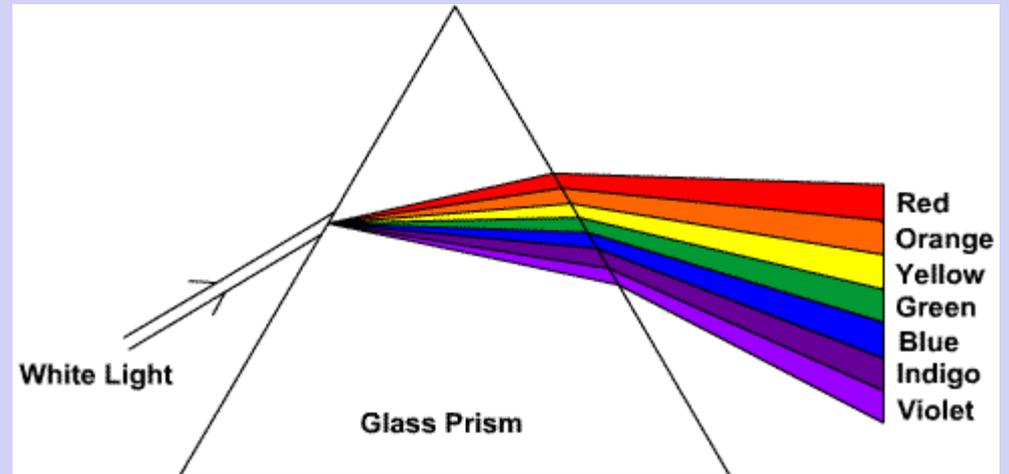
- **Derive relation for limiting resolution**
 - $\mathbf{R} \equiv \lambda / (\Delta\lambda)$
 - $\mathbf{R} = \lambda \mathbf{A} \mathbf{D}_{\text{pupil}} / (\theta_{\text{slit}} \mathbf{D}_{\text{tel}})$
- **Note that this is NOT a “magic formula”**

Slit width: I

- **Note impact of slit width on resolution:**
 - **Wide slit \Rightarrow low resolution**
 - **Skinny slit \Rightarrow high resolution**
- **How wide of a slit? Critical issue for spectrograph design (draw on board)**
- **Higher width \Rightarrow**
 - **Higher throughput (and thus higher S/N)**
 - **But lower resolution**
 - **And higher background/contamination (and thus lower S/N)**

Dispersers: Prisms

- **Derive dispersion relation**
 - $A = \alpha \, dn/d\lambda$
 - $A = t/a \, dn/d\lambda$
- **Limiting resolution of prisms**



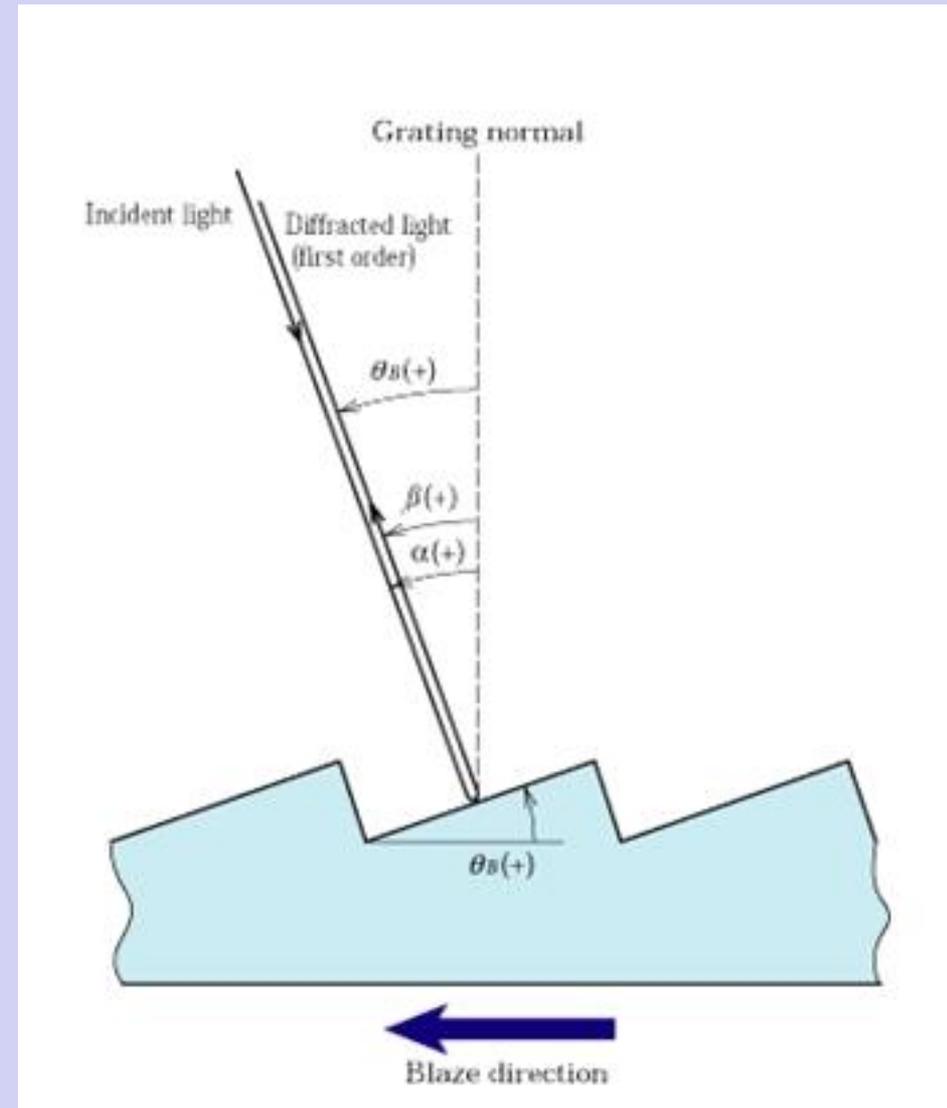
Dispersers: Diffraction Gratings

- Grating equation: $m\lambda = \sigma (\sin\alpha + \sin\beta)$
- Angular dispersion: $A = (\sin\alpha + \sin\beta) / (\lambda \cos\beta) = m/(\sigma \cos\beta)$
- Note independence of relation between A , λ and m/σ



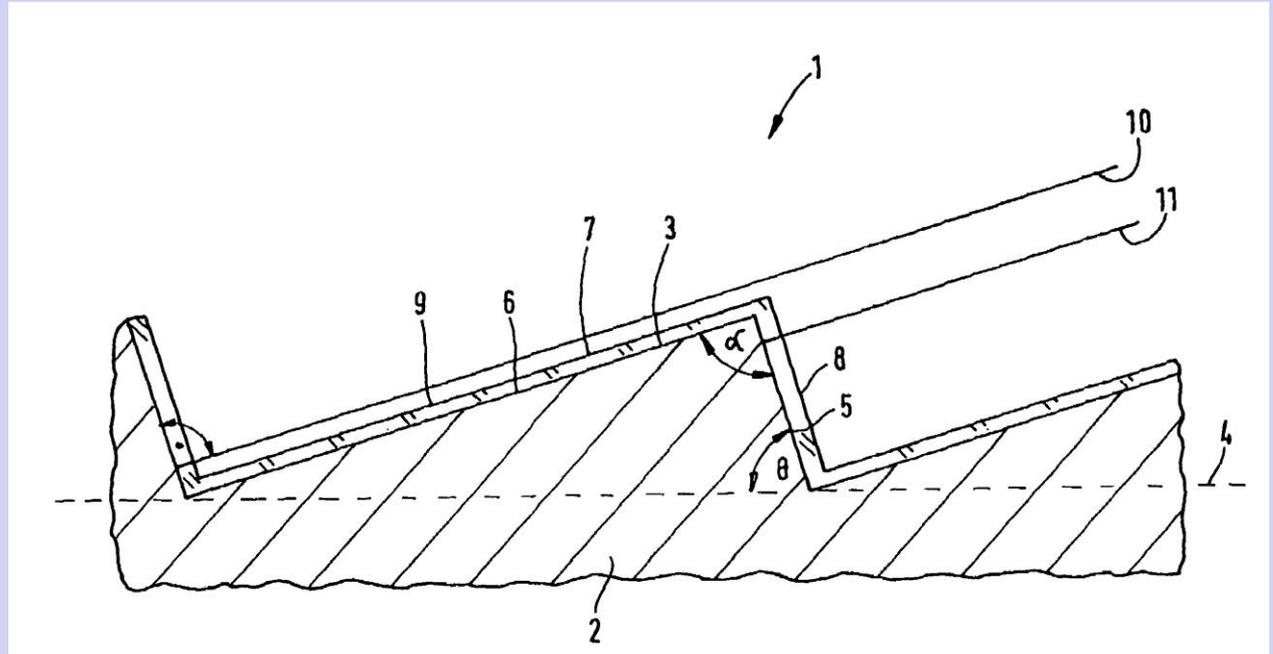
Dispersers: Diffraction Gratings

- Note order overlap/limits, need for order-sorters
- Littrow configuration ($\alpha = \beta = \delta$)
- Results:
 - $A = 2 \tan \delta / \lambda$
 - $R = m W \lambda / (\sigma \phi D)$
 - $R = m N \lambda / (\phi D)$
- Quasi-Littrow used (why?)
- Do some examples



Blaze Function

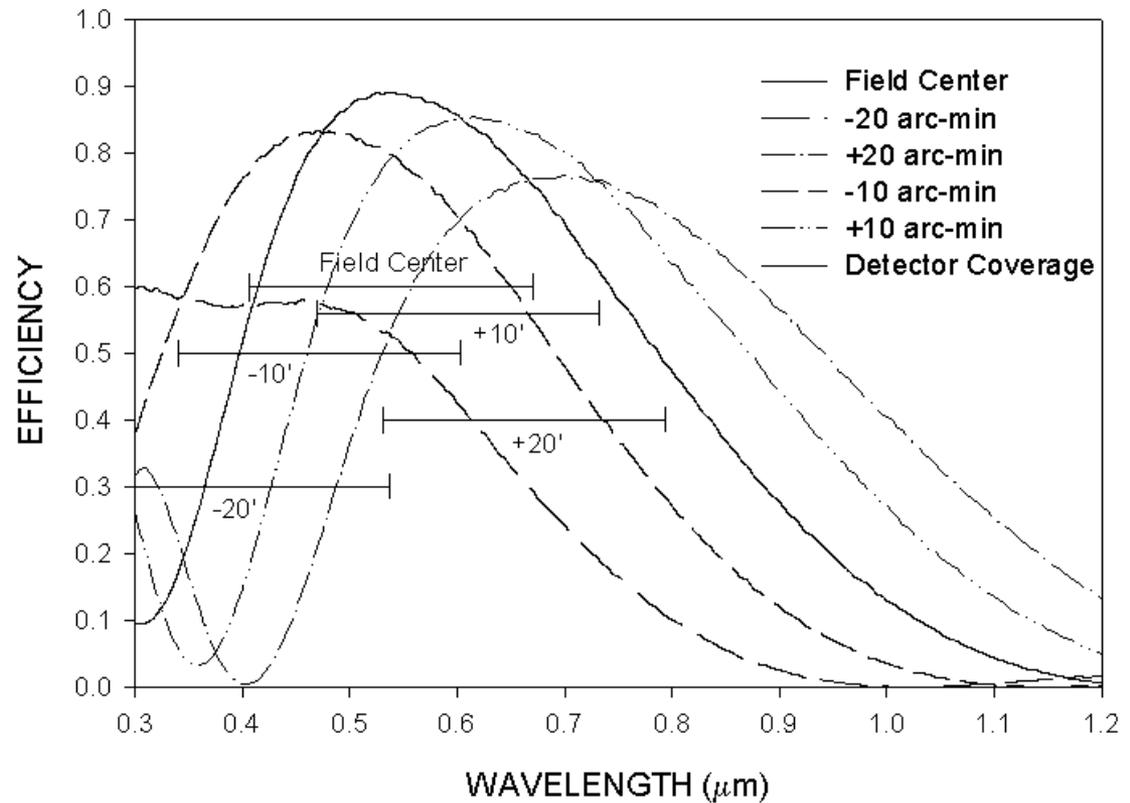
- Define and show basic geometry



<http://www.freepatentsonline.com/7187499-0-large.jpg>

Blaze Function

- Impact
- How we can “tune” this

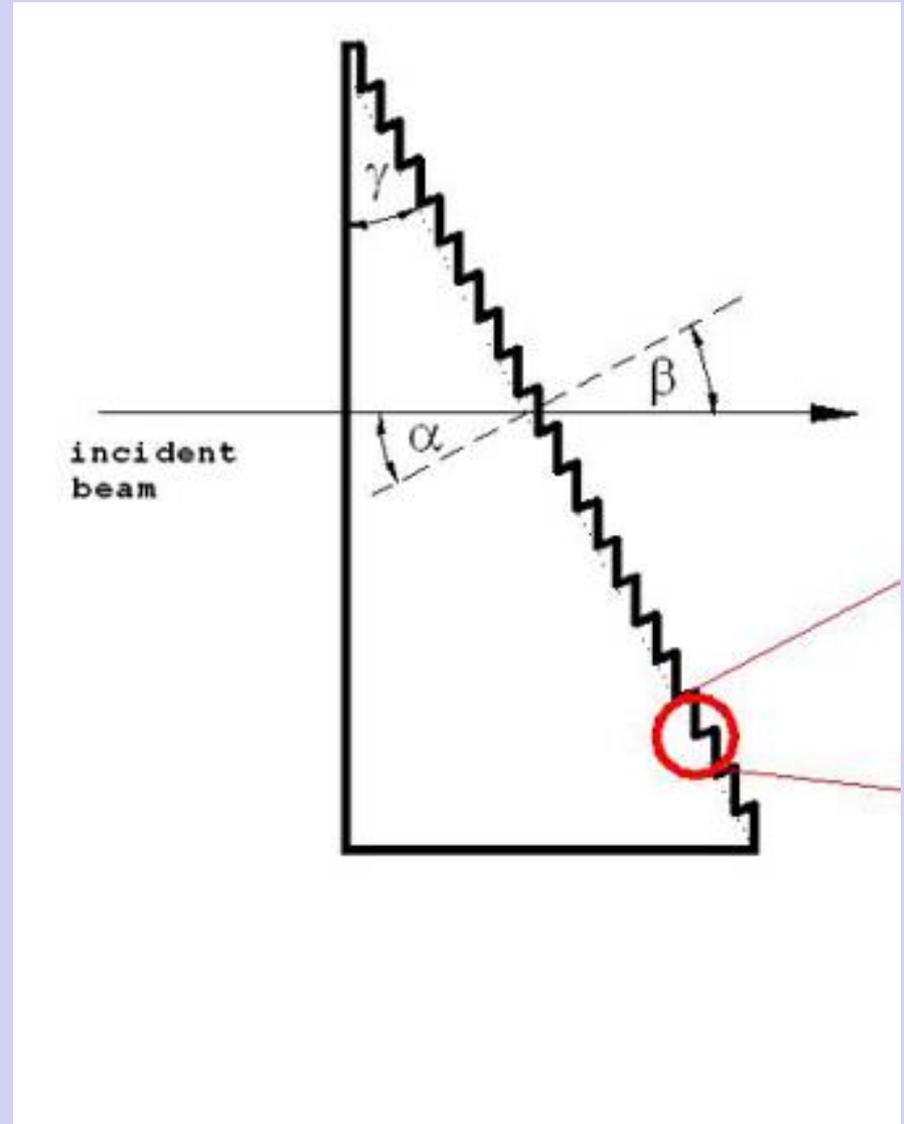


Free Spectral Range

- **Blaze function and order number**
- **Define & give rule of thumb:**
 - **FSR = “high-efficiency” wavelength range of grating**
 - **FSR $\approx \lambda/m$ (VERY crude approximation)**

Dispersers: Grisms

- Transmission grating + prism = “grism”
- Dispersion is done by the grating, typically quasi-Littrow
- Treat grating as always
- Prism angle is chosen so that the “blaze wavelength” is deviated EXACTLY opposite to the angular deviation of the grating

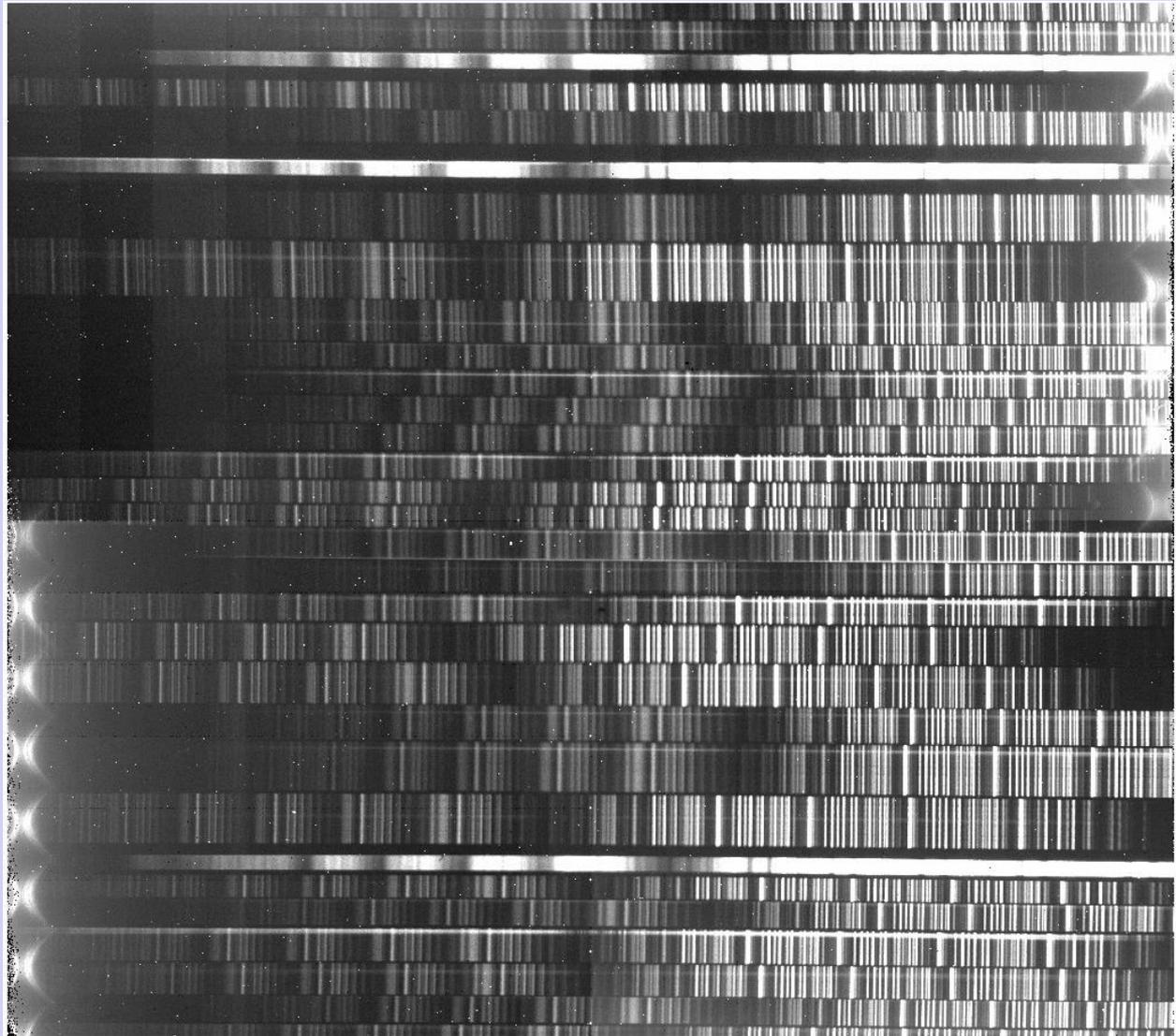


Dispersers: Grisms

- **Combination means you get the dispersion of the grating, but without having to “tilt” the post-grating optics \Rightarrow “straight-through” collimator/camera (just like imaging)**
- **Allows combination of a collimator/camera to be used for imaging as well as spectroscopy (nice advantage)**
- **Can’t tilt grism to adjust central wavelength (drawback)**
- **Typically limited to low resolutions ($R \sim 1000$ up to ~ 3000)**

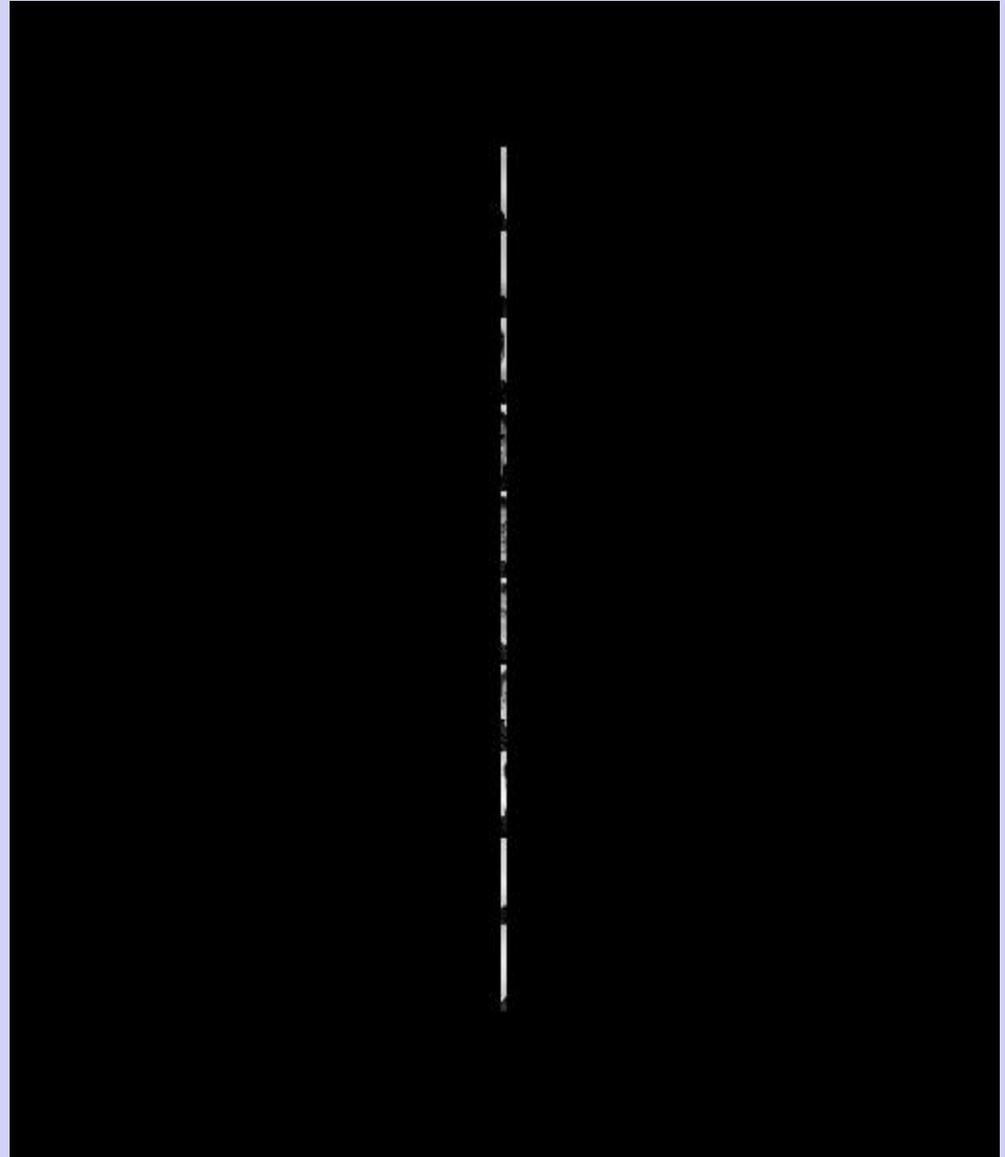
Multi-Object Spectroscopy

- **Imaging MOS**
- **Fiber-fed MOS**
(pseudo-longslit)



Integral field Spectroscopy

- Image slicer



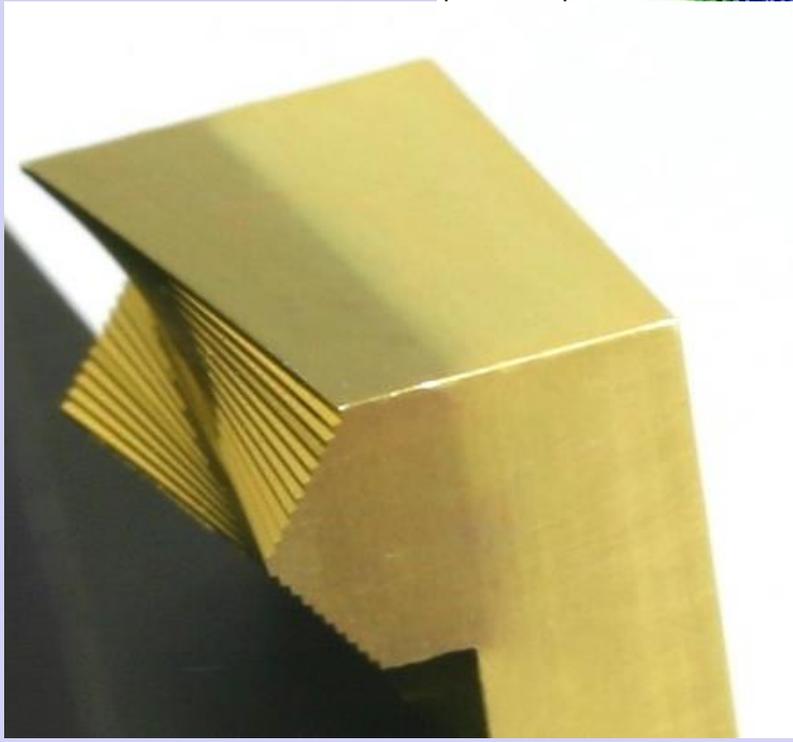
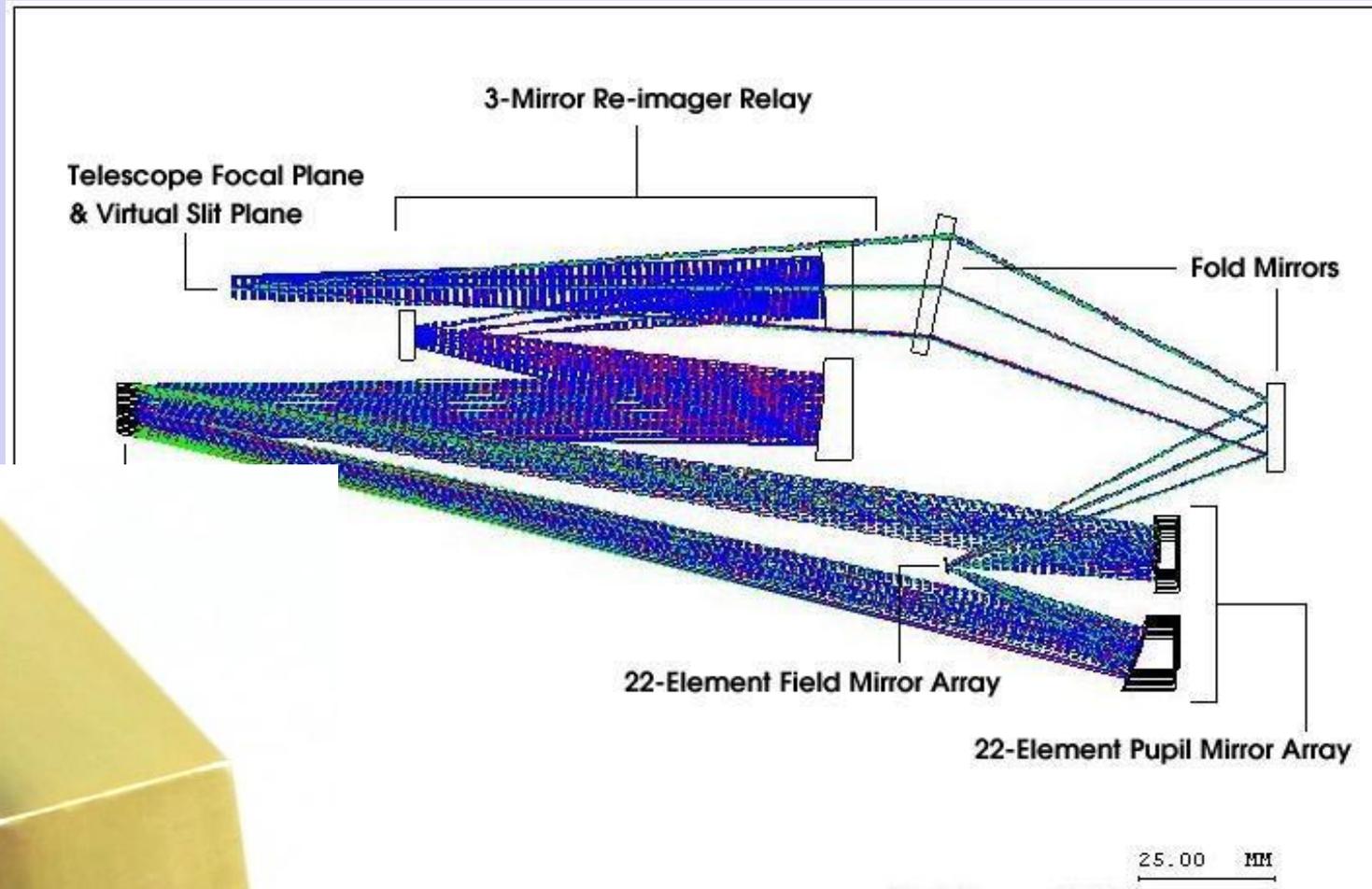
Optical Fiber Feeds

- **Optical fibers can be used as flexible “light pipes” to intercept light at the telescope focal plane and feed to the input focal plane of the spectrograph**
- **Why?**
 - **Move the fibers to have adjustable target positions, but maintain fixed input to the spectrograph**
 - **Fibers can be used to cover a HUGE (degrees) field even on large telescopes, while keeping a simple/small input to the spectrograph**
 - **Can move the spectrograph far from the telescope focal plane (allows for relatively large/massive floor-mounted spectrograph)**

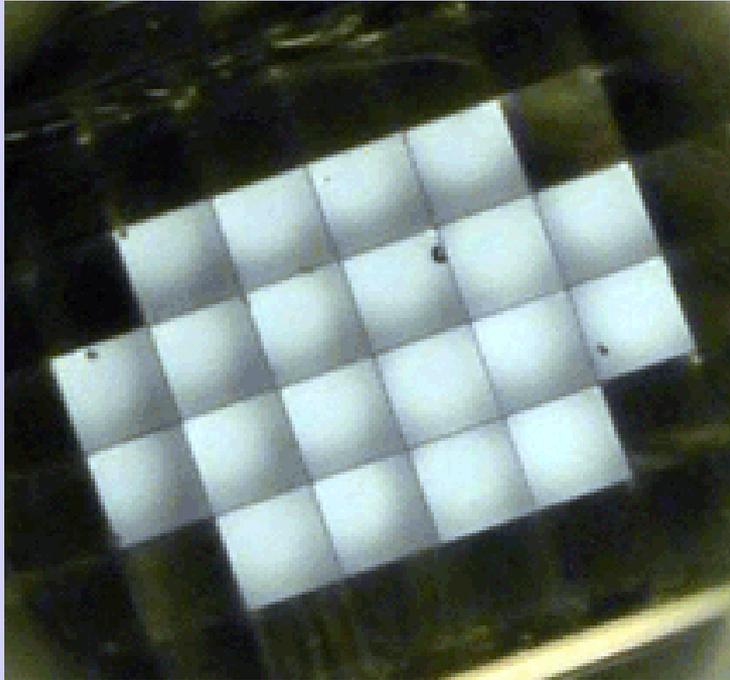
Optical Fiber Feeds - Issues

- **Fiber transmission is generally good in the optical, but not perfect; transmission not always high for large bandpasses, nor in the IR bandpass**
- **Focal Ratio Degradation (FRD) – effective f/# at fiber output is larger than input beam from telescope (drives up the collimator and grating size compared to a “standard slit” of the same width)**
- **Coupling at the telescope – fiber sizes are limited in range (i.e. no 800 μm fibers to cover 1-arcsec at GTC), and in minimum f/# (about f/4 –ish or slower)**
 - **Microlenses can be placed on the fiber tip to couple larger focal plane area onto small fiber (miniature focal reducer!)**
 - **Fabrication/alignment are not easy (often result in reduced throughput)**
 - **Sometimes limited by f/#**

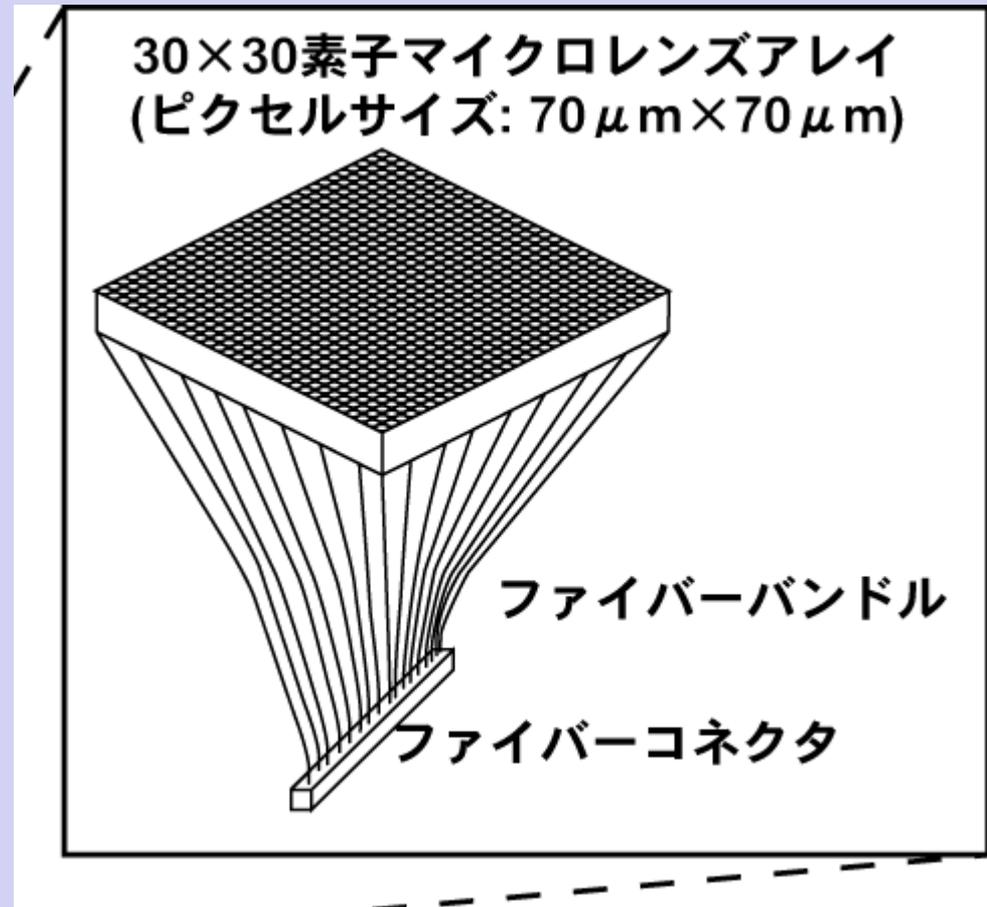
Image Slicer



Fiber IFU



http://www.eso.org/instruments/flames/img/IFU_zoom.gif



http://www.kusastro.kyoto-u.ac.jp/~maiara/Faculty/Maiara_70tel_ifu_v1.gif