

## **David Buckley, SAAO**

NASSP OT1: Telescopes I-1



## **Telescopes I: Optical Principles**

What Do Telescopes Do?

- They collect light
- They form images of distant objects
- The images are analyzed by instruments
  - The human eye
  - Photographic plates/film
  - Digital detectors (e.g. CCDs)







**Telescopes I: Optical Principles** 

# Key parameters for an astronomical telescope:

• Light gathering power

Determined by the *area* of the collecting element (objective lens of mirror)

- ∝ telescope diameter<sup>2</sup>
- Resolution

Measure of the how much fine detail can be seen in an image

∝ telescope diameter (a)



$$\theta = 1.22 \frac{\lambda}{a}$$

24 Feb 2011



**Telescopes I: Optical Principles** 

# Key parameters for an astronomical telescope:

• Intrinsic image quality

Determined by the *figure* of the individual optical elements (how close they are to their ideal shape) and how well they are aligned.

• Field of view (FoV)

Determined by the optical design. Usually expressed as field diameter. Information content  $\infty$  area of FoV  $\infty$  diameter of FoV<sup>2</sup>

• Throughput

How efficiently photons are delivered to a focus. Determined by the transmissiveness of lenses and the reflectivity of mirrors.

## • Tracking & pointing capability

This determines overall performance in terms of observational efficiency and how well image quality is retained during an observation.



## **Telescopes I: Optical Principles**

# Other considerations:

• Instruments

A telescope is only as good as the instruments that are available on it.

• Telescope & building design

This can greatly affect the delivered image quality.

Local "seeing" effects by poorly design telescope tube, dome or building can compromise the optical performance (blurring effects of air currents).

• The etendue of a telescope

This is a <u>figure of merit</u> parameter related to both the light collecting area (A) and FoV ( $\Omega$ ):

## $E = A \cdot \Omega$

[N.B. this parameter does not factor in the resolving power of the telescope, another important parameter]



#### **Telescopes I: Optical Principles**

The Large Synoptic Survey Telescope

Etendue: a metric of survey capability







Homework: calculate SALT's etendue

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- Visible Ångstrom (Å). Traditional optical range unit (10<sup>-10</sup> m)
  - Nanometre commonly used (10<sup>-9</sup> m)
- Infrared Micron ( $\mu$ m). Near infrared 1 5  $\mu$ m (1 $\mu$ m = 10<sup>-6</sup> m).
- Radio mm "microwave".
- Radio cm. eg. 21cm line of neutral Hydrogen.
- Radio Frequency/Hertz (Hz). eg. 21cm = 1420 MHz.
- X-ray, -ray Energy (eV). eg. 1 keV = 2.4 × 10<sup>17</sup> Hz = 12.4 × 10<sup>-10</sup> m NASSP OT1: Telescopes I-1



## **Telescopes I: Optical Principles**

## **Ground-based Optical/IR Telescopes**

All of them look through the blanket of the Earth's atmosphere.

## So we need to take account of its effects:

- Attenuation of light due to absorption effects
  - by atoms & molecules
- Scattering of light
  - by dust & aerosols
- Emission
  - from atoms & molecules excited by Solar radiation
- Refraction & dispersion
- Wavefront perturbations causing optical aberrations of images
  - air has a wavelength dependent refractive index



## **Telescopes I: Optical Principles**

## • Transmission of the Earth's atmosphere





## **Telescopes I: Optical Principles**

# **Telescope Optics**

• What is a telescope system? With optics (lenses or mirrors) it produces an image of an object at a distance.





## **Telescopes I: Optical Principles**

# **Telescope Optics**

• Review basic knowledge of geometric optics



1/u + 1/v = 1/f



## **Telescopes I: Optical Principles**

# **Telescope Optics**

- For astronomical telescopes we can assume that the 'object' is at infinity (*u* = ∞)
- Example of a basic *refractor* using a *positive* lens (e.g. biconvex)





## **Telescopes I: Optical Principles**

## **Telescope Optics**

**Refractors:** 

- The lens has to be supported around the edge (like spectacles)
- As lenses become bigger (light grasp  $\propto d^2$ ), the mass increased as the cube of the size ( $m \propto d^3$ )
- Supporting the lens became harder (bigger and more complex)
- Flexure (bending) of the lens itself cause 'figure' to change, resulting in optical *aberrations*
- Largest refractor ever made is the Yerkes telescope in the US (1 m diameter)



Yerkes refractor in 1895



## **Telescopes I: Optical Principles**

Different wavelengths

#### **Refractors:**

- Lenses bend light to a focus through refraction
- As refraction is wavelength dependent, certain chromatic aberrations occur







Correction achieved with achromat doublet



Yerkes today



- Reflection is *wavelength* independent
- Avoids chromatic effects
- Can support them from behind, so they can be *much bigger* than any lens (up to 8.3 m diameter current limit for single *monolithic* mirror)



## **Telescopes I: Optical Principles**

# **Optical Aberrations**

## Departures from *ideal* image caused by *optical aberrations*.

- Simple lens formula derived under the assumption of infinitely thin element and rays parallel to the optical axis (axis of symmetry)
  - This is called the *paraxial* case
- Next level of complexity allowed for small angles of incidence to real lens surface and refractive indices.
  - Rays are close to paraxial
- Off-axis effects were calculated with the assumption of small enough incidence angle such that the approximation  $\sin \theta = \theta$  and  $\cos \theta = 1$  is valid.
- This is referred to as *first order* or *Gaussian theory*



## **Telescopes I: Optical Principles**

## **Optical Aberrations**

To have a better approximation to reality:

- We abandon the approximation  $\sin \theta = \theta$
- Instead use the standard McClaurin expansion:

$$\sin \theta = \theta - \frac{\theta^3}{3!} + \frac{\theta^5}{5!} - \frac{\theta^7}{7!} - \dots$$

• This provides a much better approximation for higher incidence angles

$\theta$	$\sin \theta$	$\theta$	$\theta^3/3!$	$\theta^5/5!$	2 terms	3 terms
$10^{\circ}$	0.17365	0.17453	0.00089	0.00001	0.17364	0.17365
$20^{\circ}$	0.34202	0.34907	0.00709	0.00004	0.34198	0.34202
$30^{\circ}$	0.50000	0.52360	0.02392	0.00033	0.49968	0.50001
$40^{\circ}$	0.64279	0.69813	0.05671	0.00138	0.64142	0.64280

• Use of 2 terms is called *third order* (up to  $\theta^3$ ) and is used to define the Seidel aberrations



## **Telescopes I: Optical Principles**

**Optical Aberrations** 

#### The Seidel aberrations:

#### 1. Spherical Aberration

Different focus points between paraxial (passing along optical axis) and marginal (furthest from optical axis) rays.







## **Telescopes I: Optical Principles**

**Optical Aberrations** 

# 1. Spherical Aberration Different focus point





Spherical because a sphere images just like this.

- perfect image only of centre of curvature
- any optic (spherical or not) can show exhibit it

• ideal mirror to image on-axis object at  $\infty$  is a *paraboloid* (as used in most telescope primary mirrors).

## <u>SALT</u>

Since SALT is deliberately designed to have a *spherical primary mirror* it suffers from severe spherical aberration

• circle of least confusion ~10 arcmin (1/3<sup>rd</sup> Lunar diameter)

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## **Telescopes I: Optical Principles**

**Optical Aberrations** 

#### 1. Spherical Aberration







## **Telescopes I: Optical Principles**

# **Optical Aberrations**

#### 2. Coma





## **Telescopes I: Optical Principles**

**Optical Aberrations** 

#### 2. Coma

Image at a particular field position is produced by overlapping images produced by annular zones centred on the optical axis.

Because their angular displacement is a function of annulus size, the images are spread out along a radius vector to the field centre.

Called "coma" due to their comet-like appearance





![](_page_24_Figure_0.jpeg)

![](_page_25_Picture_0.jpeg)

#### 3. Astigmatism

![](_page_25_Figure_2.jpeg)

![](_page_26_Figure_0.jpeg)

Modern large & flat detectors require lacksquareadditional field-flattening optics

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![](_page_27_Figure_0.jpeg)

- across the FoV
- Can "stretch" (pin cushion) or "squeeze" (barrell) images.
- Need to map out distortion in order to do astrometry (accurate position measurement)

![](_page_27_Figure_4.jpeg)

Distortion

![](_page_28_Figure_0.jpeg)

![](_page_29_Picture_0.jpeg)

## **Telescopes I: Optical Principles**

**Optical Aberrations: Zernike polynomials** 

- Can describe optical aberrations as a wavefront perturbation
- Consider the *entrance pupil* (e.g. objective lens in a refractor) and the imperfections of this surface
- Can describe aberrations as phase changes that change with position over such a pupil

![](_page_29_Figure_7.jpeg)

![](_page_30_Picture_0.jpeg)

## **Telescopes I: Optical Principles**

**Optical Aberrations: Zernike polynomials** 

• Wavefront perturbations

![](_page_30_Figure_5.jpeg)

![](_page_31_Picture_0.jpeg)

## **Telescopes I: Optical Principles**

**Optical Aberrations: Zernike polynomials** 

• Example of an aberration (de-focus)

![](_page_31_Picture_5.jpeg)

#### What is this aberration commonly know as?

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![](_page_32_Picture_0.jpeg)

![](_page_33_Picture_0.jpeg)

## **Telescopes I: Optical Principles**

## **Optical Aberrations: Zernike polynomials**

• Can describe the phase variations as a *surface* showing departure from the ideal wavefront

![](_page_33_Figure_5.jpeg)

![](_page_34_Picture_0.jpeg)

## **Telescopes I: Optical Principles**

**Optical Aberrations: Zernike polynomials** 

• Mathematically, describe as a surface in  $\rho$ ,  $\theta$  coordinates

![](_page_34_Figure_5.jpeg)

![](_page_35_Picture_0.jpeg)

## **Telescopes I: Optical Principles**

## **Optical Aberrations: Zernike polynomials**

• Zernike polynomials:

n = order	m = frequency	$Z_n^m(\rho, \theta)$		
0	0	1		
1	-1	2 ρ sin θ		
1	1	2 ρ cos θ		
2	-2	$\sqrt{6} \rho^2 \sin 2\theta$	Coord order	
2	0	$\sqrt{3}(2\rho^2-1)$	Second order	
2	2	$\sqrt{6} \rho^2 \cos 2\theta$ —	- aberrations	
3	-3	$\sqrt{8} \rho^3 \sin 3\theta$		
3	-1	$\sqrt{8}$ (3 $\rho^3$ -2 $\rho$ ) sin $\theta$		
3	1	$\sqrt{8}$ (3 $\rho^3$ -2 $\rho$ ) cos $\theta$		
3	3	$\sqrt{8} \rho^3 \cos 3\theta$		
4	-4	$\sqrt{10} \rho^4 \sin 4\theta$		
4	-2	$\sqrt{10}$ (4p <sup>4</sup> -3p <sup>2</sup> ) sin 20		
4	0	$\sqrt{5}(6\rho^4-6\rho^2+1)$	Higher order	
4	2	$\sqrt{10}$ (4p <sup>4</sup> -3p <sup>2</sup> ) cos 2θ	aberrations	
4	4	$\sqrt{10} \rho^4 \cos 4\theta$		
5	-5	$\sqrt{12} \rho^5 \sin 5\theta$		
5	-3	$\sqrt{12}$ (5p <sup>5</sup> -4p <sup>3</sup> ) sin 30		
5	-1	$\sqrt{12}$ (10p <sup>5</sup> -12p <sup>3</sup> +3p) sin $\theta$		
5	1	$\sqrt{12} (10\rho^5 - 12\rho^3 + 3\rho) \cos \theta$		
5	3	$\sqrt{12} (5\rho^5 - 4\rho^3) \cos 3\theta$		

![](_page_36_Figure_0.jpeg)