

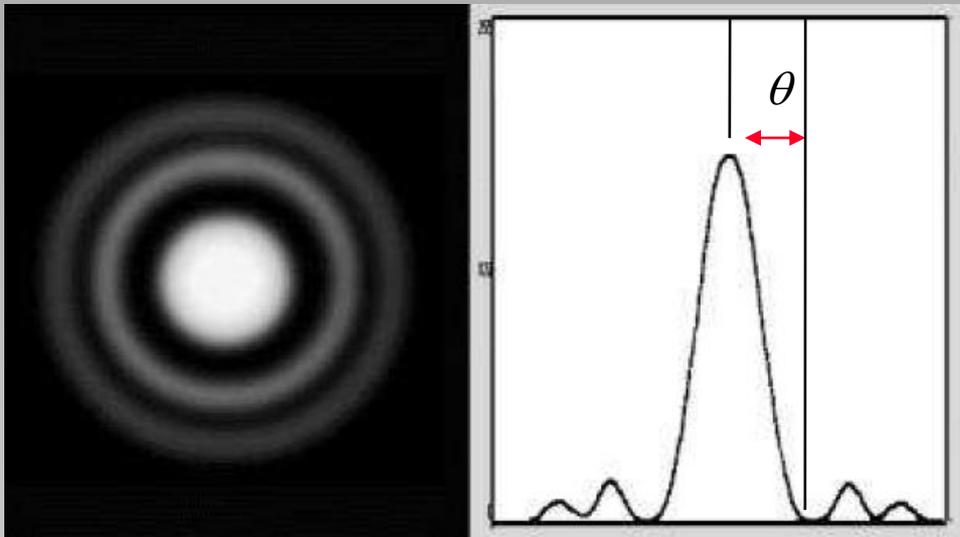


"I've seen out to the limit of the observable universe, and believe me, it's no better out there than it is here."

David Buckley, SALT

Key parameters for an astronomical telescope:

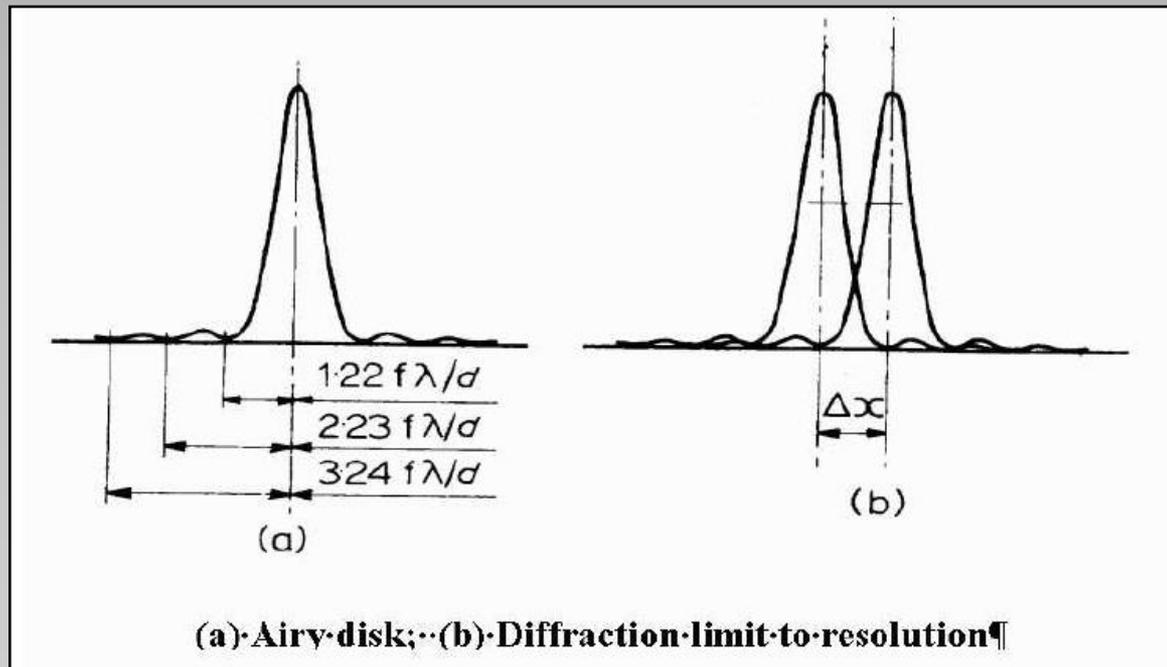
- Resolution



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

Resolvability:

- Two point sources are said to be resolved if the peak of the central maximum of one diffraction pattern falls onto the first dark ring of the other
- This is referred to as the Rayleigh criterion

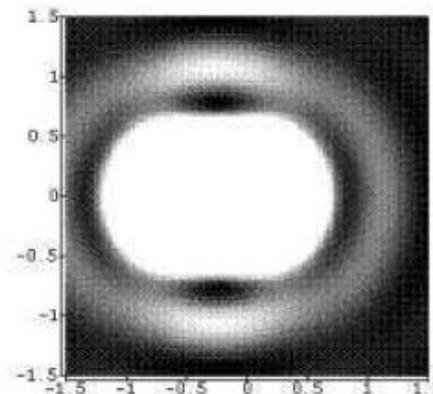


Resolvability:

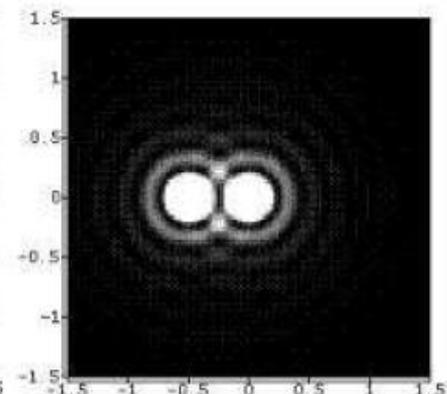
- Ignoring atmospheric effects, the resolution of an ideal telescope is just defined by its size

- Examples:**

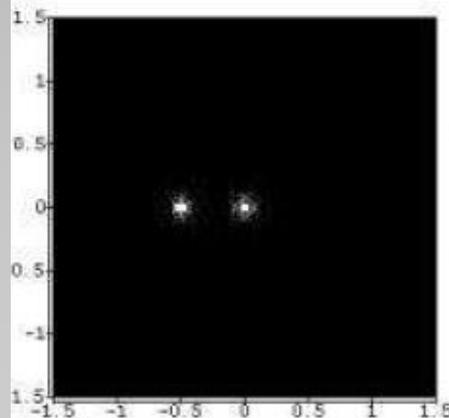
***D = 0.13 m, 0.50 m, 2.5m
& 5 m diameter telescopes***



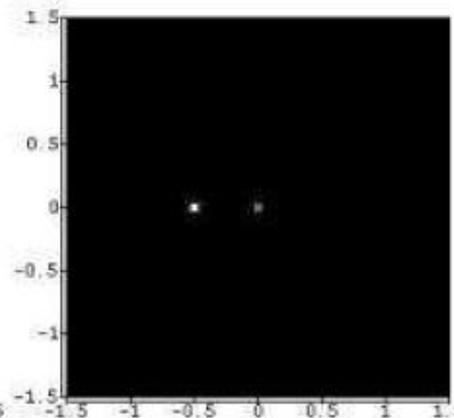
A. Objective size = 0.1524 m (6 in)
 $\theta_R = 0.826$ arc sec at $\lambda=500$ nm
 integration time = 30 minutes



B. Objective size = 0.508 m (20 in)
 $\theta_R = 0.248$ arc sec at $\lambda=500$ nm
 integration time = 2.7 minutes



C. Objective size = 2.3876 m (94 in)
 $\theta_R = 0.0527$ arc sec at $\lambda=500$ nm
 integration time = 7.3 seconds



D. Objective size = 5.08 m (200 in)
 $\theta_R = 0.0248$ arc sec at $\lambda=500$ nm
 integration time = 1.6 seconds

Some other Telescope Parameters

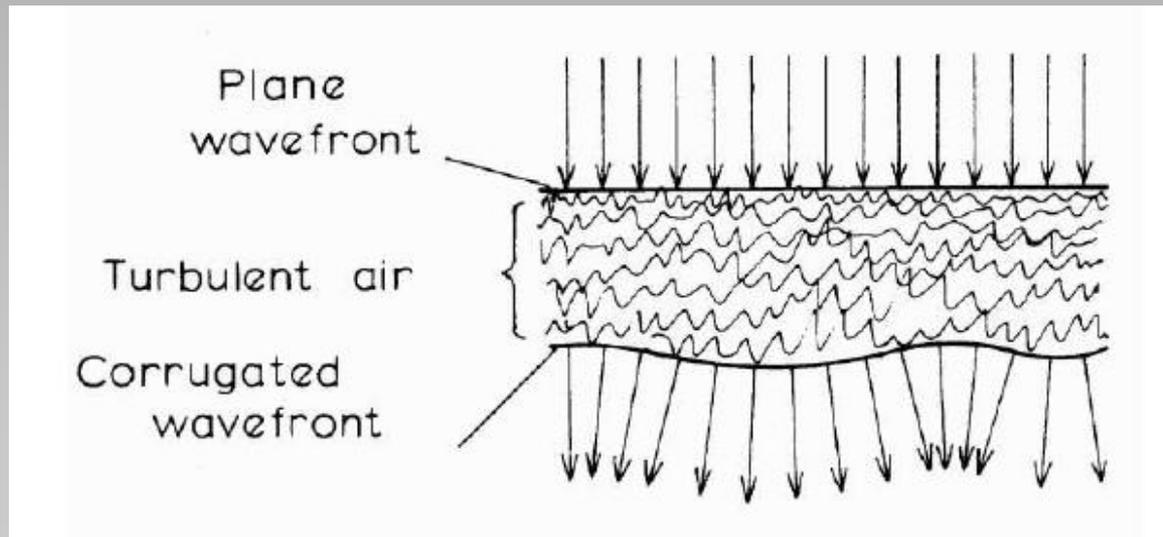
Resolvability:

- Other effects can limit resolvability in *real* images
 - Problems associated with saturation by bright objects
 - Other diffraction effects



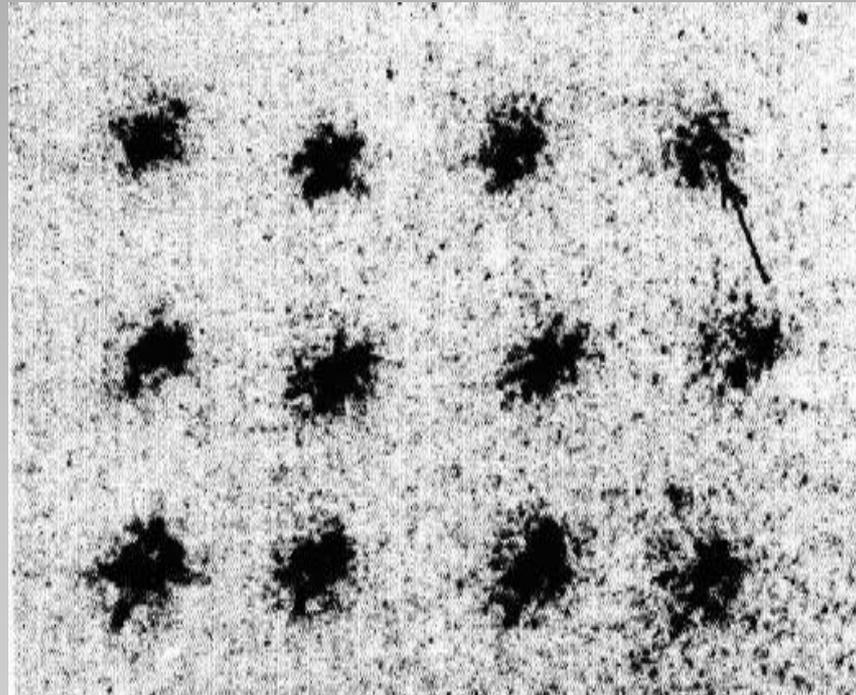
Atmospheric seeing:

- Also, because of the atmosphere, telescope optics are often not built to be diffraction limited
 - Expensive & unnecessary, unless the atmosphere (“seeing”) can be corrected



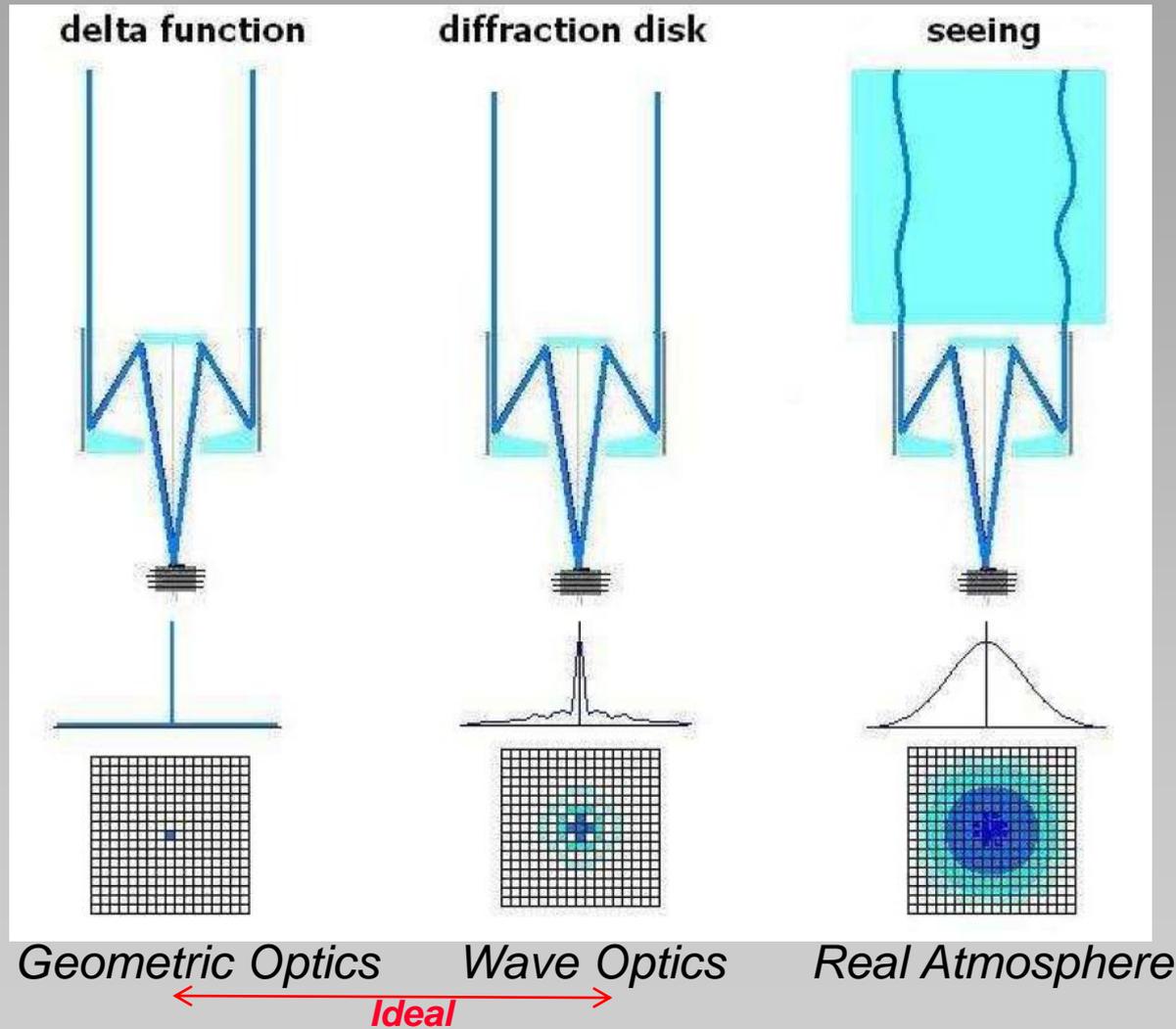
Atmospheric seeing:

- Fast phase changes cause a scintillation pattern.
- Only seen if exposures are short (milliseconds) as images get blurred out



Consecutive 2 ms images of a bright star

Telescope Systems for Different Assumptions

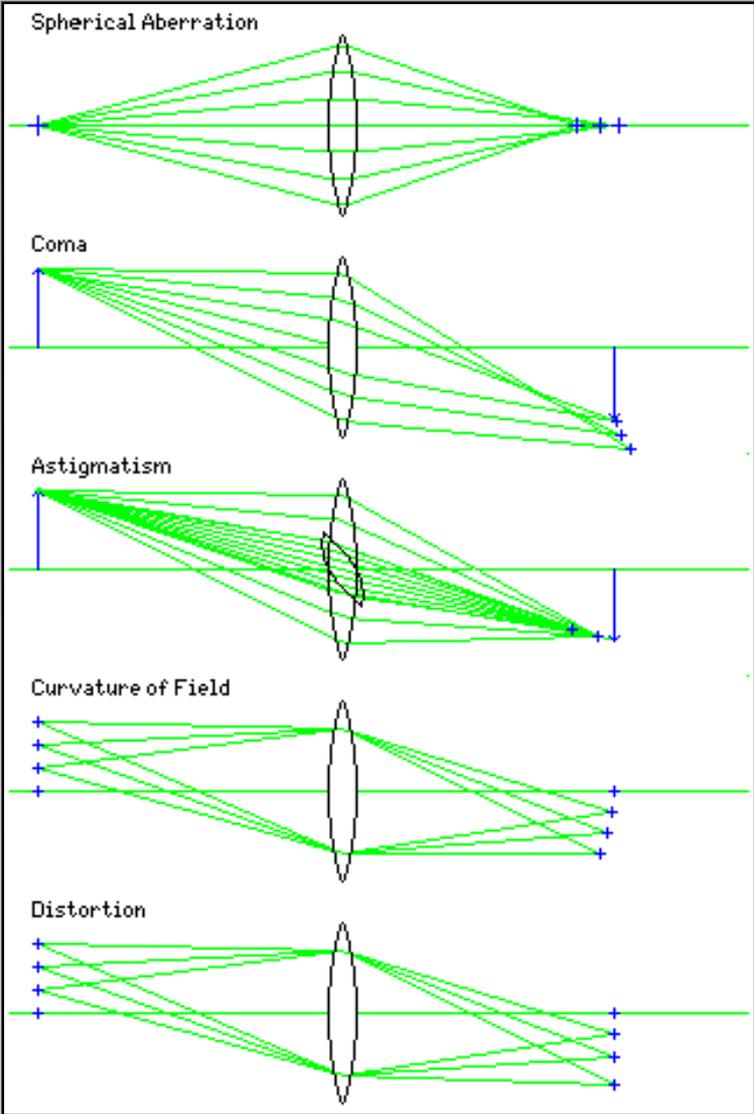
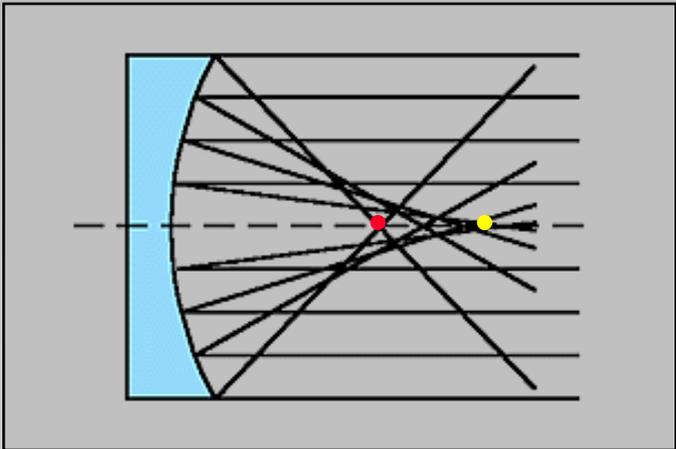


Optical Aberrations

The Seidel aberrations:

1. Spherical Aberration

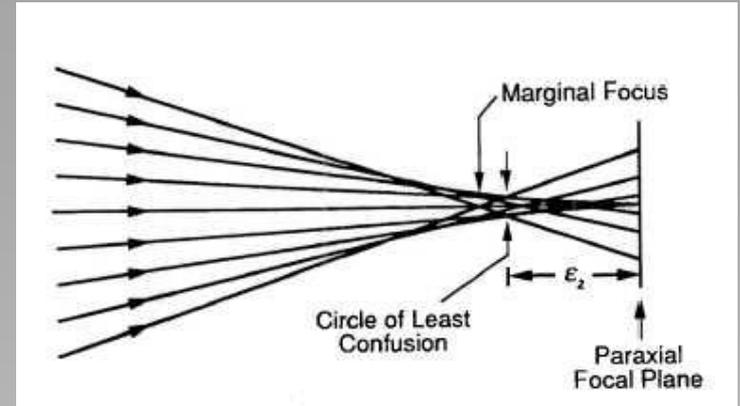
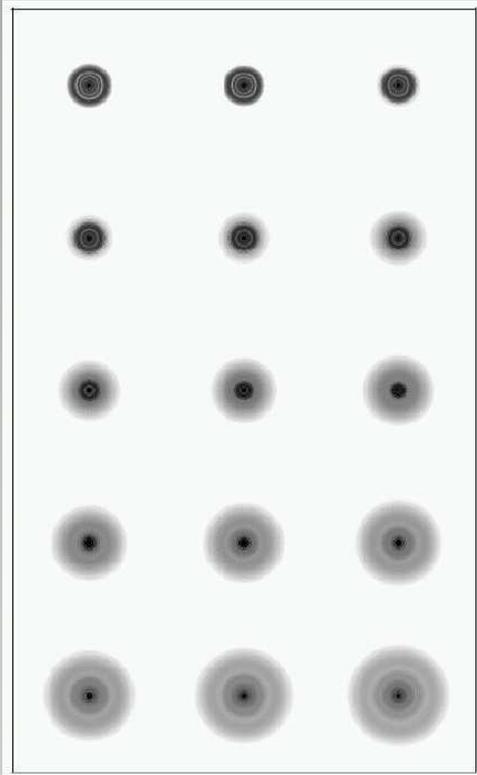
Different focus points between paraxial (passing along optical axis) and marginal (furthest from optical axis) rays.



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 ∞ is a paraboloid (as used in most telescope primary mirrors).*

SALT

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

- *circle of least confusion ~ 10 arcmin (1/3rd Lunar diameter)*

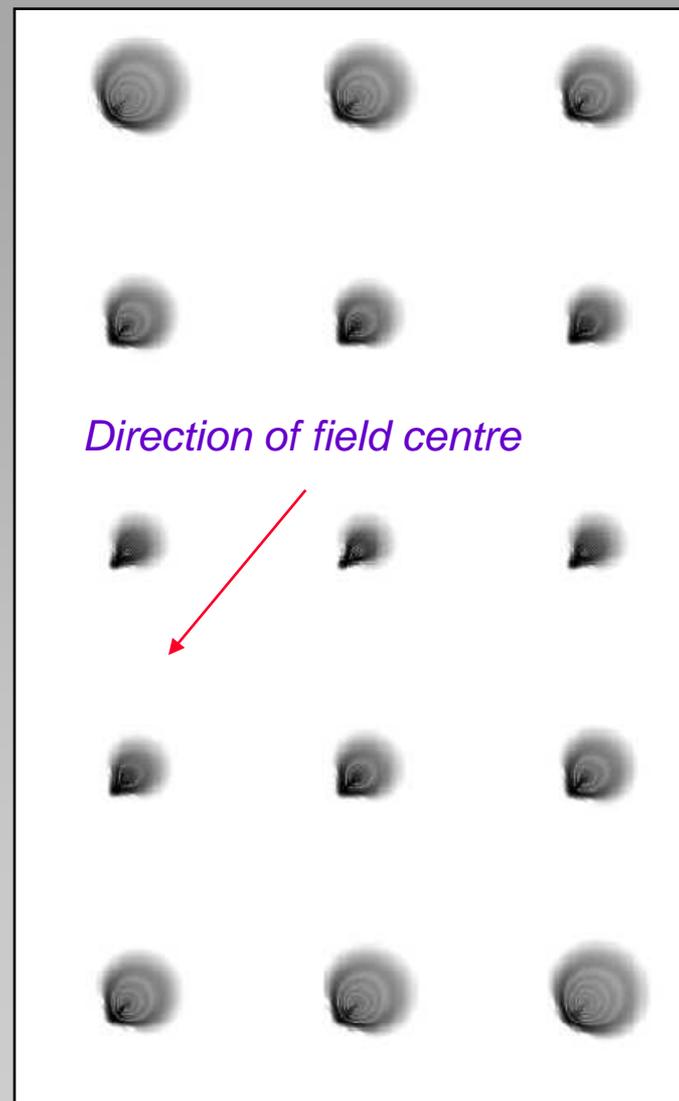
Optical Aberrations

2. Coma

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

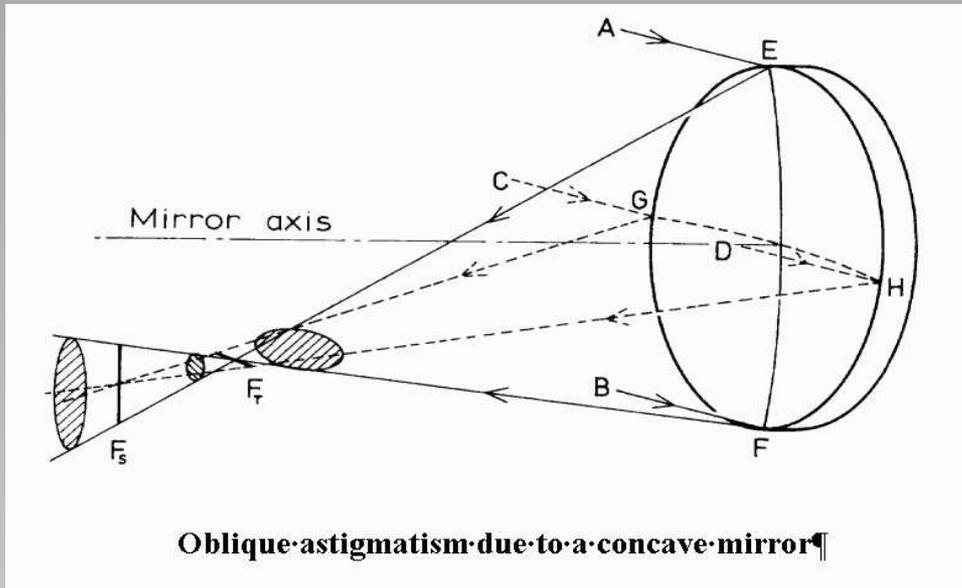
Because their angular displacement is a function of annulus size, the images are spread out along a radius vector to the field centre.

Called “coma” due to their comet-like appearance

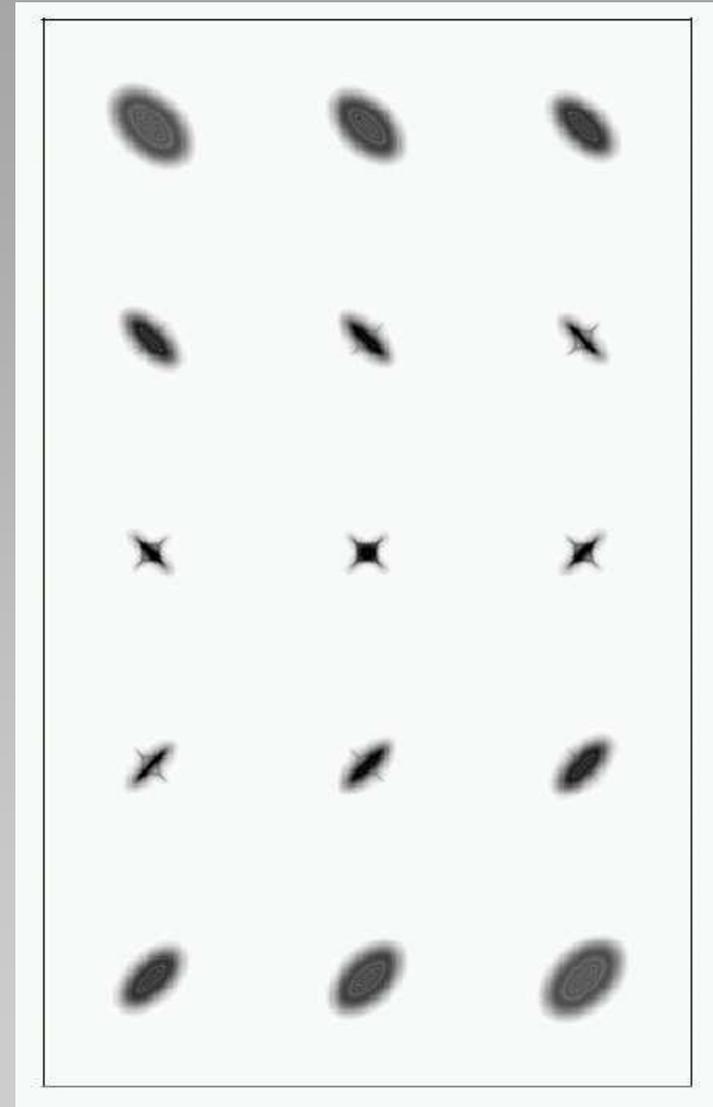


Optical Aberrations

3. Astigmatism



- Characteristic pattern is an elongation along symmetry axis, or orthogonal to it.
- Furthermore, as one moves through focus, axis rotates by 90°
- In-focus images are symmetrical and round



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

Wavefront vs Ray

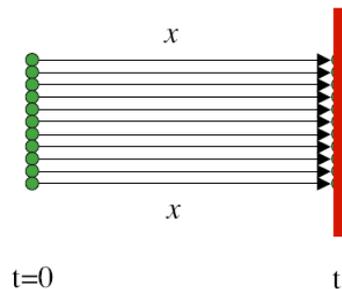
“A wavefront is a surface over which an optical disturbance has a constant phase.”

Harmonic wave function

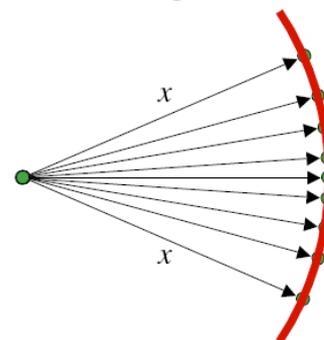
$$\psi(x, t) = A \sin(\underbrace{kx - \omega t}_{\text{Phase}})$$

Phase

Plane wavefront

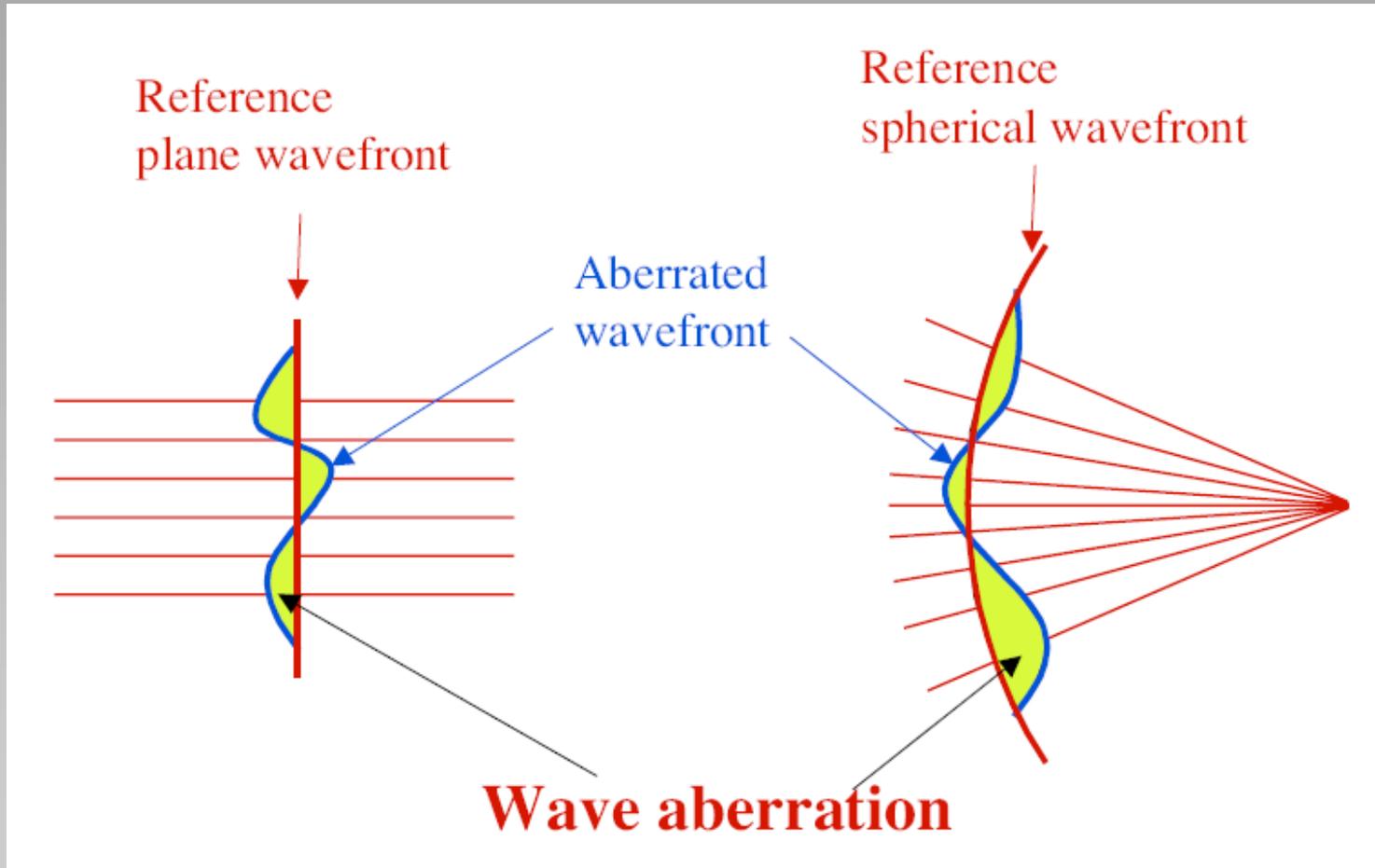


Spherical wavefront



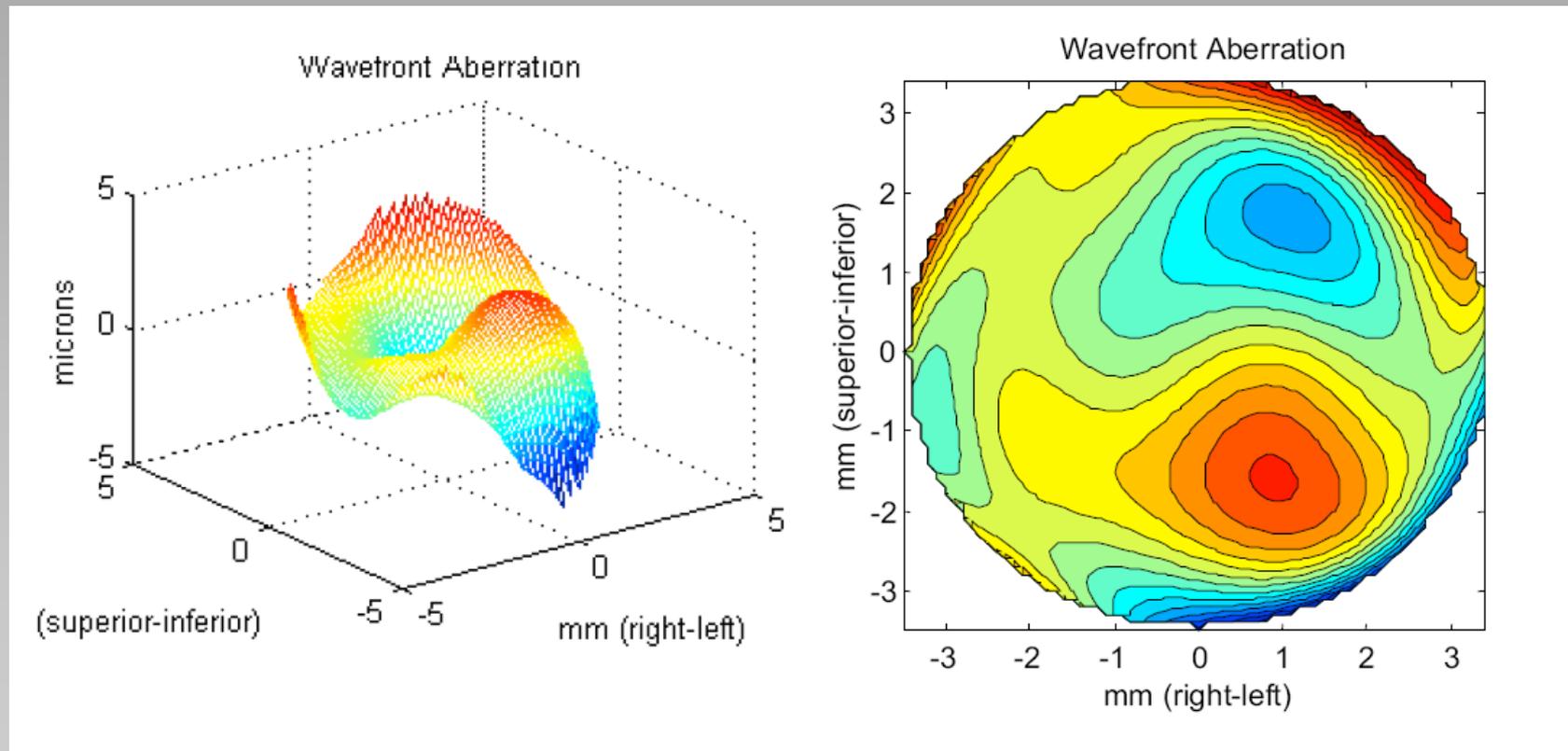
Optical Aberrations: Zernike polynomials

- Wavefront perturbations



Optical Aberrations: Zernike polynomials

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





Optical Aberrations: Zernike polynomials

- Mathematically, describe as a surface in ρ, θ coordinates

$$W(\rho, \theta) = \sum C_n^m Z_n^m(\rho, \theta)$$

Wavefront
aberration

Zernike
coefficient

Zernike polynomials
(wavefront mode)



Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

Detectors I

Optical Aberrations: Zernike polynomials

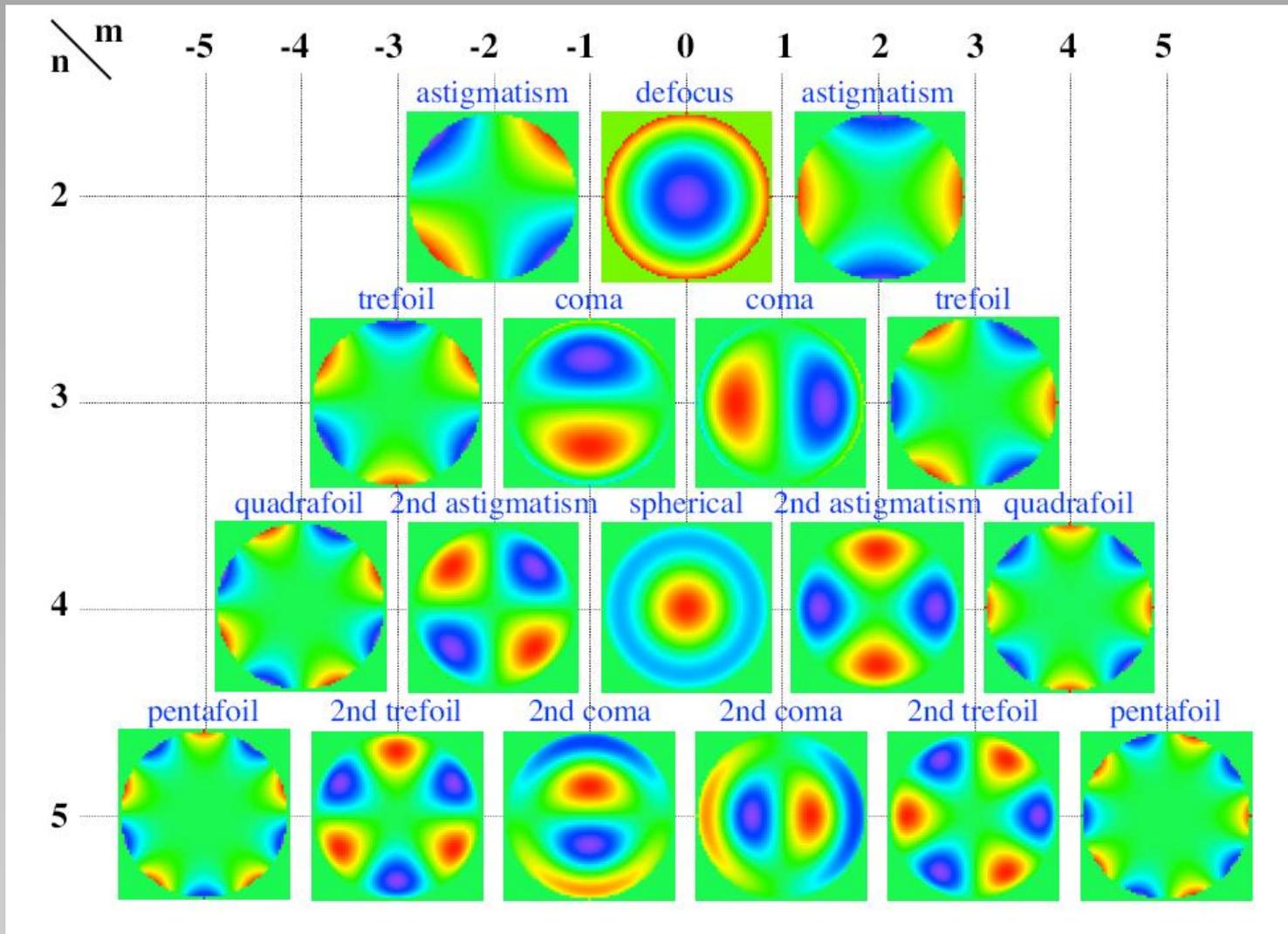
- Zernike polynomials:

n = order	m = frequency	$Z_n^m(\rho, \theta)$
0	0	1
1	-1	$2 \rho \sin \theta$
1	1	$2 \rho \cos \theta$
2	-2	$\sqrt{6} \rho^2 \sin 2\theta$
2	0	$\sqrt{3} (2\rho^2 - 1)$
2	2	$\sqrt{6} \rho^2 \cos 2\theta$
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	$\sqrt{10} (4\rho^4 - 3\rho^2) \sin 2\theta$
4	0	$\sqrt{5} (6\rho^4 - 6\rho^2 + 1)$
4	2	$\sqrt{10} (4\rho^4 - 3\rho^2) \cos 2\theta$
4	4	$\sqrt{10} \rho^4 \cos 4\theta$
5	-5	$\sqrt{12} \rho^5 \sin 5\theta$
5	-3	$\sqrt{12} (5\rho^5 - 4\rho^3) \sin 3\theta$
5	-1	$\sqrt{12} (10\rho^5 - 12\rho^3 + 3\rho) \sin \theta$
5	1	$\sqrt{12} (10\rho^5 - 12\rho^3 + 3\rho) \cos \theta$
5	3	$\sqrt{12} (5\rho^5 - 4\rho^3) \cos 3\theta$

Second order aberrations

Higher order aberrations

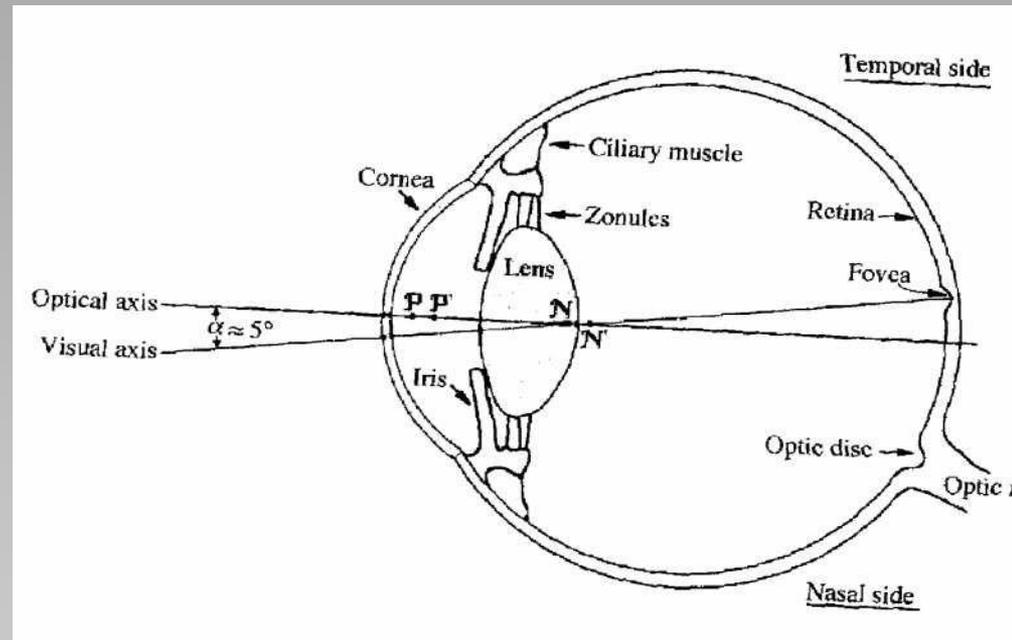
Optical Aberrations: Zernike polynomials



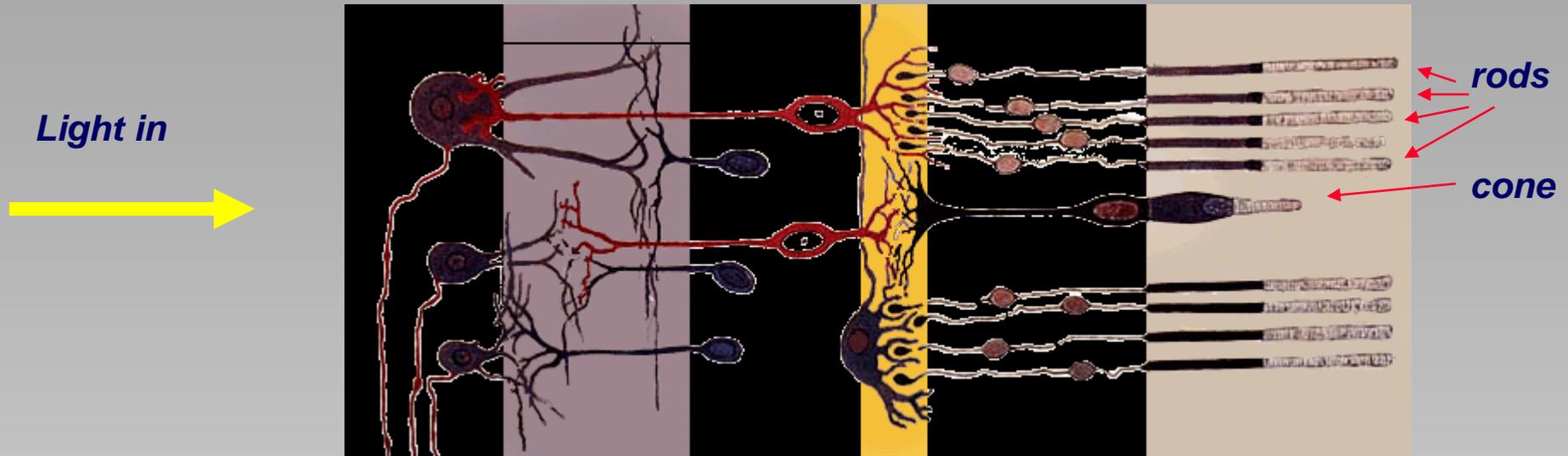
How we (*mostly*) perceive the Universe

- First perceptions were by eye by our ancestors
 - The “**visible**” region of the electromagnetic spectrum
 - Human eye sensitive over a small range of wavelength: **390 - 780 nm**
 - An optical imaging system
 - » Cornea & lens combine to form a curved focal surface on the retina

- Eye-brain is an amazing detector
 - Removes aberrations (clever image processing; stereoscopic; scanning)
 - Capable of a 10^9 dynamic range ($< 10^6$ for CCDs), ~ 0.6 arcmin resolution
 - Equivalent to a 576 megapixel digital video camera!
 - The first astronomical detector was the human retina
 - » Capable of resolving objects of ~ 1 arcmin in size (pupil diameter = 6mm for fully dilated)
 - » A two-dimensional (2-D) video detector (~ 30 frames / sec)
 - » Capable of photometry: measuring the brightness and colour of stars



Cross section of the retina:



- **How it works:**

- **Retina consists of photo-receptor cells (rods & cones)**

- » **In rods rhodopsin (visual purple; 40,000 amu molecule) absorbs photons**

- Fragments into retinaldehyde (286 amu; a chromophore vitamin A derivative) & opsin
- Results in changing electrical properties of cell \Rightarrow signal

- » **In cones, similar mechanism with molecule odopsin**

- But 3 different variants S, M & L (in ratio 1:4:8)

Detectors I

The Eye

Photoreceptors

- **Rods** (~120 million x 2µm only detect B&W)
 - » Mostly what's used at night
 - » Average sensitivity peaks at ~510nm
 - » 1-10 photons needed to trigger a rod
 - » Several rods have to trigger together to send a signal to the brain
- **Cones** (~6 million x 1.5 – 6.0 µm) detect colour
 - » 3 types: S (437nm), M (533nm) & L (564nm)
 - » Only work at high light levels (daytime)
 - » Concentrated on-axis (around the fovea, where they're also smaller in size)
 - » Only 1% as sensitive as rods, overall sensitivity peaks at 550nm

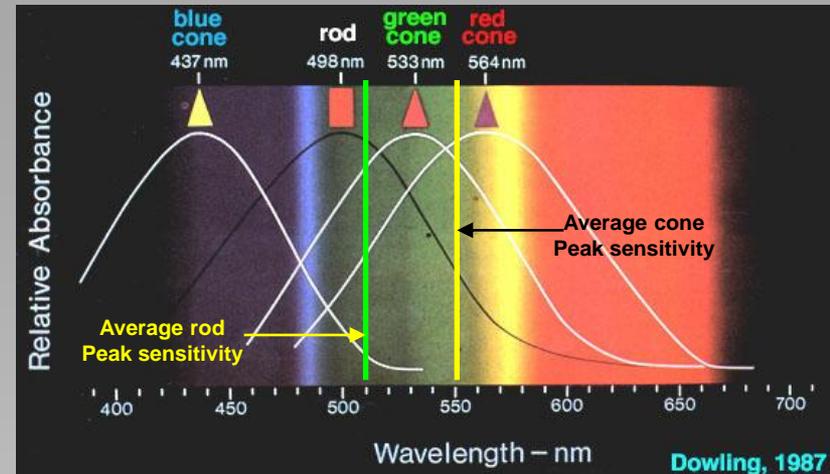
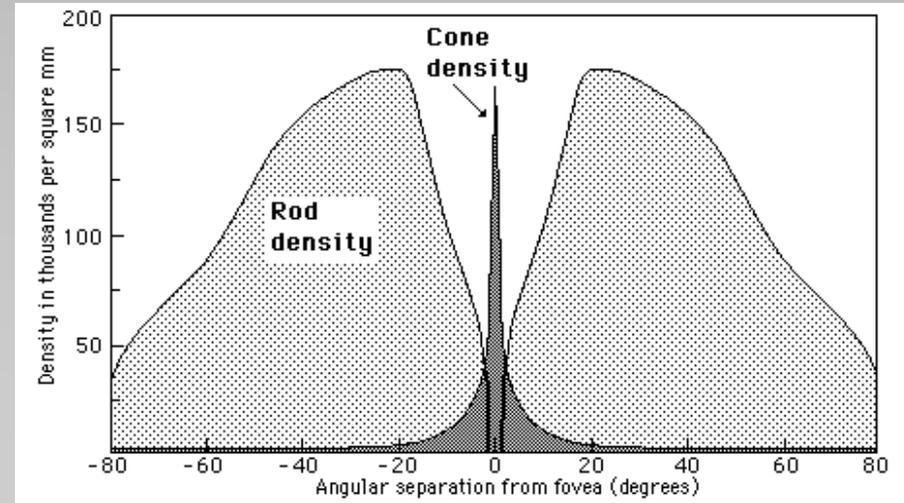


Fig. 14. The peak spectral sensitivities of the the 3 cone types and the the rods in the primate retina (Brown and Wald, 1963). From Dowling's book (1987).

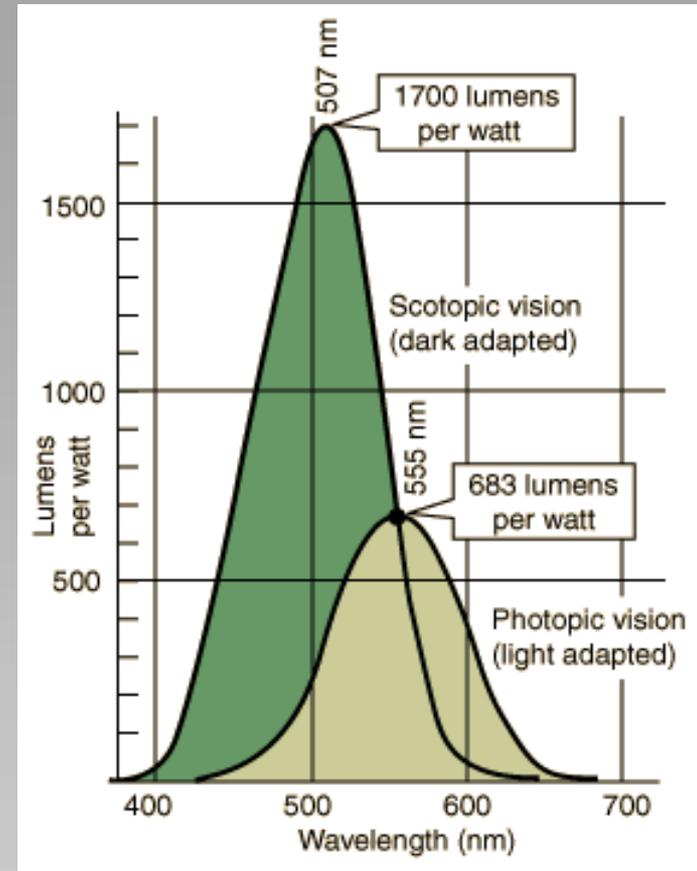


Detectors I

The Eye

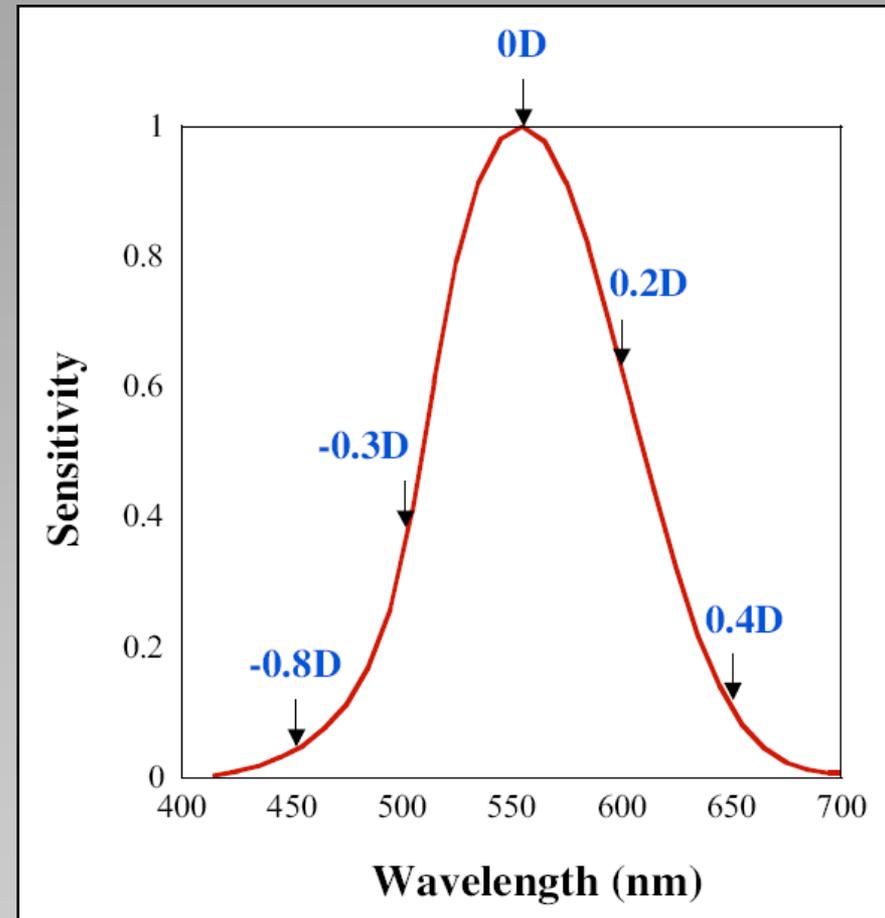
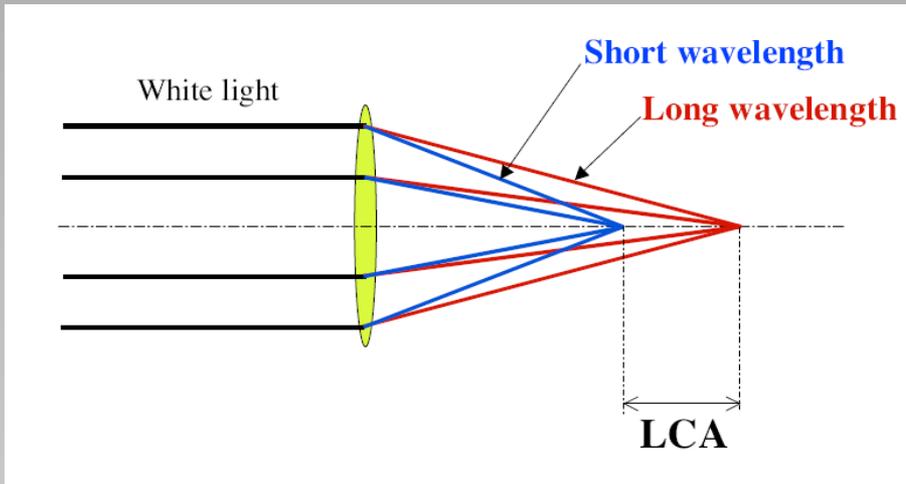
Photoreceptors

- At night fovea is a 'blind spot' (0.3mm) because cones are inoperative at low light levels
- "Averted vision" helps detect faint objects using peripheral vision rods
 - at field edge, ~100 rods are connected to one nerve fibre, so lower resolution than field centre where cones are individually connected)
- When eye is exposed to bright light (photopic vision), amount of rhodopsin available for photon detection is diminished
 - Cones detect light, so sensitivity moves to the red (closer to average cone sensitivity)
 - Overall sensitivity decreases
- When eye is fully dark-adapted and exposed to low light levels (scotopic vision) eye is more sensitive, but cannot sense colour
 - Dark adaption takes ~30min, about as long as twilight
- Eye-brain is an amazing detector
 - Removes aberrations (clever image processing; stereoscopic; scanning)
 - Capable of a 10^9 dynamic range ($< 10^6$ for CCDs), ~0.6 arcmin resolution
 - Equivalent to a 576 megapixel digital video camera!



Sensitivity of the Eye

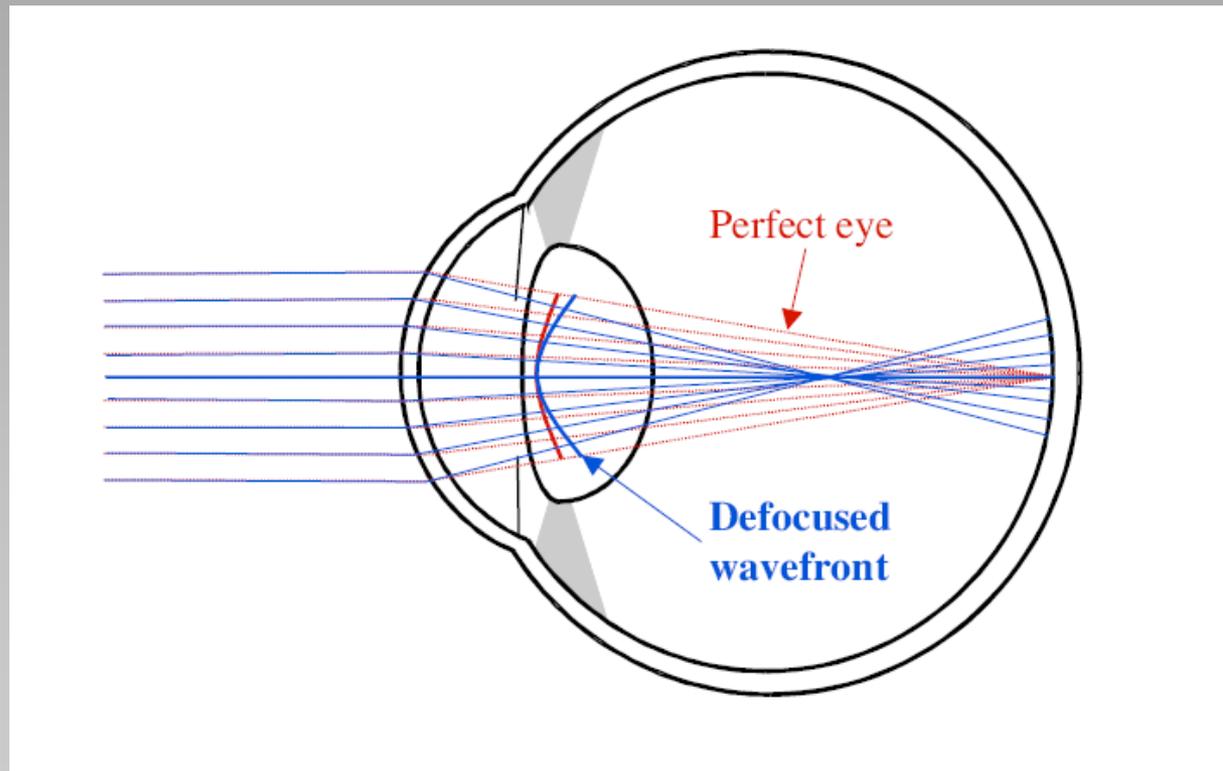
- Graph shows relative sensitivity
- Also relative defocus due to longitudinal chromatic aberration (LCA)



- Effective defocus of ~2 dioptres over wavelength extremes
 - Δ Focal Length of ~0.5 mm (LCA)

Optical Aberrations in the eye

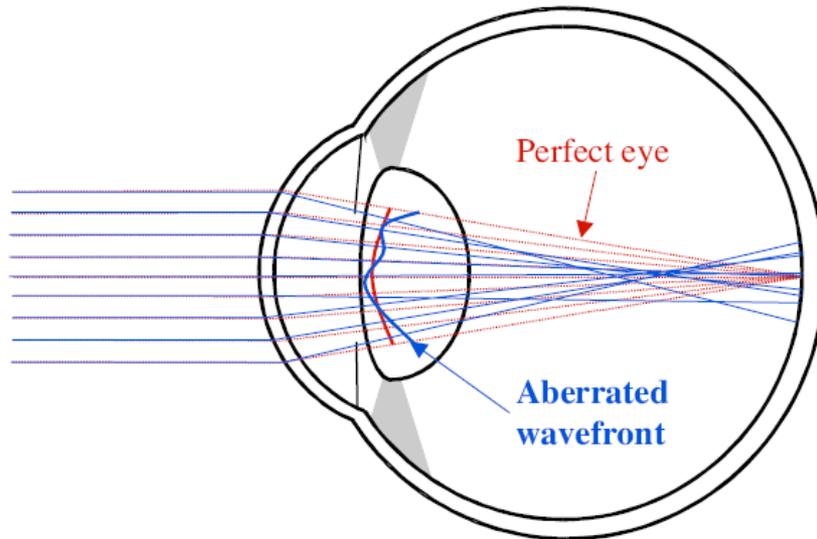
- Example of an aberration (de-focus)



What is this aberration commonly known as?

Aberrations in the Human Eye

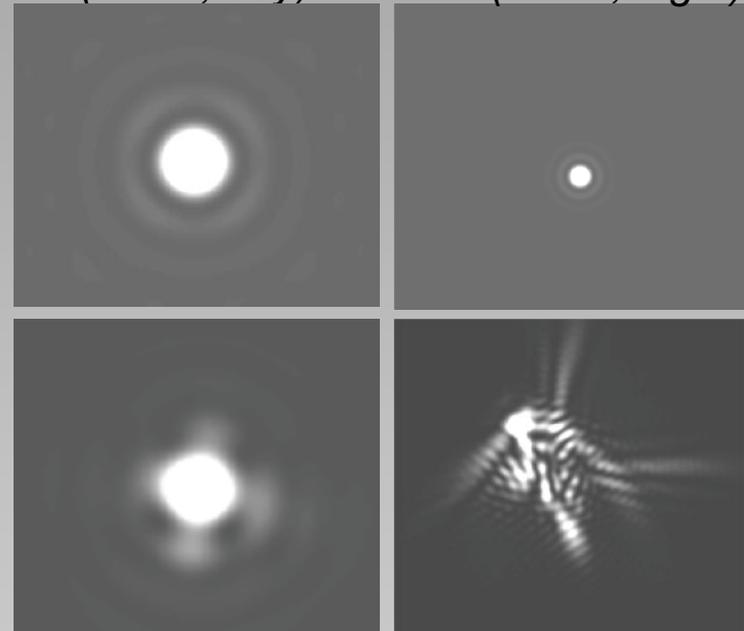
Eye with higher order aberrations



PSFs for eye

Undilated pupil
(2 mm; day)

Dilated
(6 mm; night)



Ideal

Real

- Diopetre (as used in optometry) is a unit of optical power

$$D = 1 / \text{Focal Length (measured in metres)}$$

- Human eye has a power of ~60 dioptries (~2/3 power from cornea, 1/3 from the lens, and typical corrections for short- or far-sightedness are -6 to +6 dioptries
- Corrections for chromatic aberrations are ~2 dioptries (400 – 700 nm)



The Magnitude Scale

- The stellar “magnitude scale” – based on range of star brightness that the eye perceives – was invented around 120 BC by Hipparchus (*the same guy who discovered precession*)
 - » he devised 6 “steps” of brightness between the brightest and faintest stars seen by the eye (where *smaller* magnitudes implies *brighter* stars!)
 - » The eye perceives the same *ratio changes* in brightness as equal intervals of brightness
 - » Magnitude difference are related to the ratio of intensities:

$$m_1 - m_2 = -2.5 \log \frac{I_1}{I_2}$$

Or:

$$\frac{I_2}{I_1} = 2.512^{m_1 - m_2}$$

- » So the difference in apparent magnitude difference of two stars, one of which has 100x the intensity of the other, is $\Delta m = 2.5 \log (100) = 5$ magnitudes.
- » The conversion between magnitudes and intensity is given as:

$$m = -2.5 \log I + \text{constant}$$

- » The constant is referred to as the **zero point** of the system, and is determined for a specific telescope-instrument-detector combination.



The Magnitude Scale

Interesting magnitudes values (in the V-band filter which approximates the human eye response)

- **Sun: $m = -26.7$ (1.2×10^{10} brighter than the brightest naked eye star; $m = -10.7 / \text{arcsec}^2$)**
- **Full moon: $m = -12.6$ (but only $m = 3.4 / \text{arcsec}^2$)**
- **Sirius (brightest star at night): $m = -1.5$**
- **Naked eye limit: $m = 6$**
- **Brightest stars in Andromeda galaxy: $m = 19$**
- **Present day limit for biggest telescopes: $m \sim 29$ (6×10^9 fainter than faintest naked eye star)**
- **Night sky brightness: $m = 21.5 / \text{arcsec}^2$ (best sites, dark Moon time)**
- **Night sky: $m = 18 / \text{arcsec}^2$ (bright Moon time)**



Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

Detectors I

How we perceive the Universe

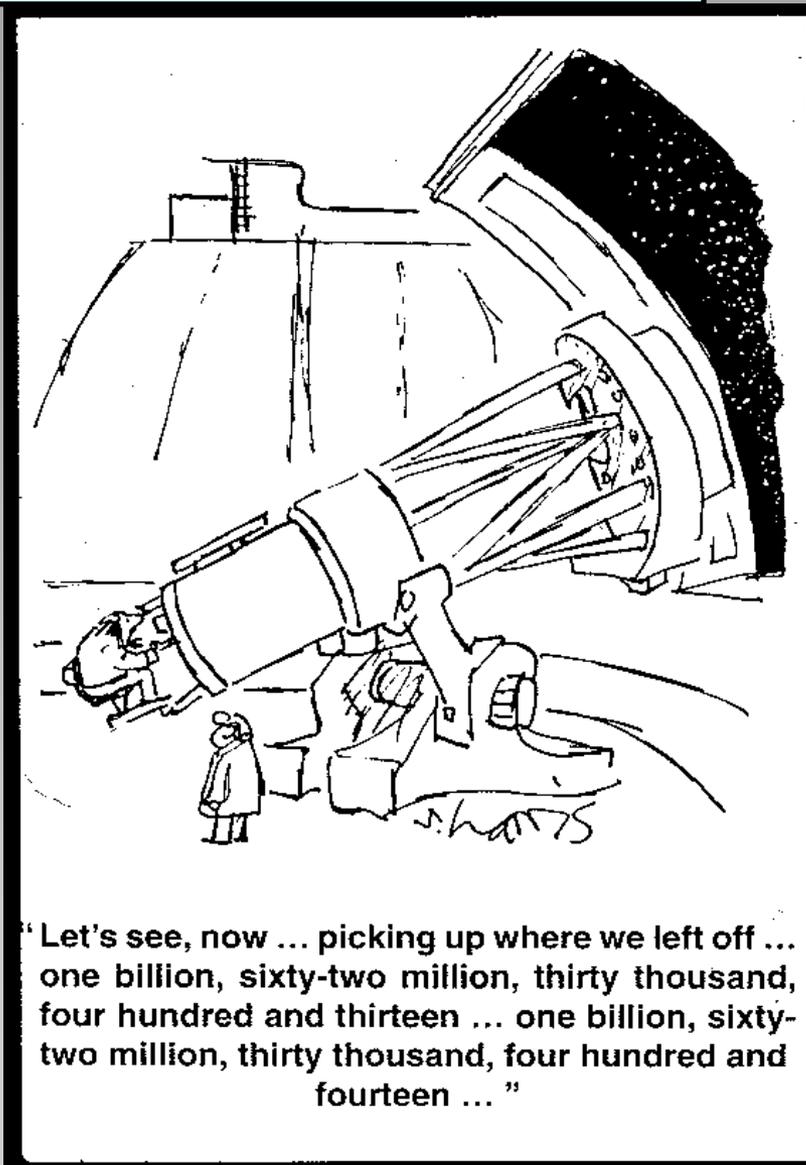
Improvements came with the invention of new detection methods, other than just the human eye, to record light. This improved the faintness limit of telescopes, since the new techniques were more sensitive by >10 than the eye.

- The end of the 19th Century saw the invention of *photography*.
- Light causes chemical reactions in silver halide salts bonded into a gelatin layer, which converts them to metallic silver. “Developing” results in permanent changes: the film negative is **black** (due to silver metal) where light was absorbed and **transparent** where there was no light.
- Next revolution in optical astronomy was astrophotography
 - *Pioneered at the Royal Observatory, Cape of Good Hope (Sir David Gill)*



1882 Nov 7^d.

- Led to mapping the skies:
 - “Astrographic Catalogue” and the *Carte du Ciel*” atlas (late 19th C), initiated at Paris Observatory in 1887
- Catalogue and map positions of all stars down to $m_V = 11-12$
 - 5,176,000 positions from 22 observatories around the world
 - From 22,000 glass photographic plates
 - Split up into different Dec zones
 - Cape Observatory produced the largest single number of positions from observations taken between 1897 & 1912
 - » 540,000 in the zone $-41^\circ < \text{Dec} < -51^\circ$
- “Cape Durchmusterung” catalog of astrometric positions and magnitudes





Astrophotography

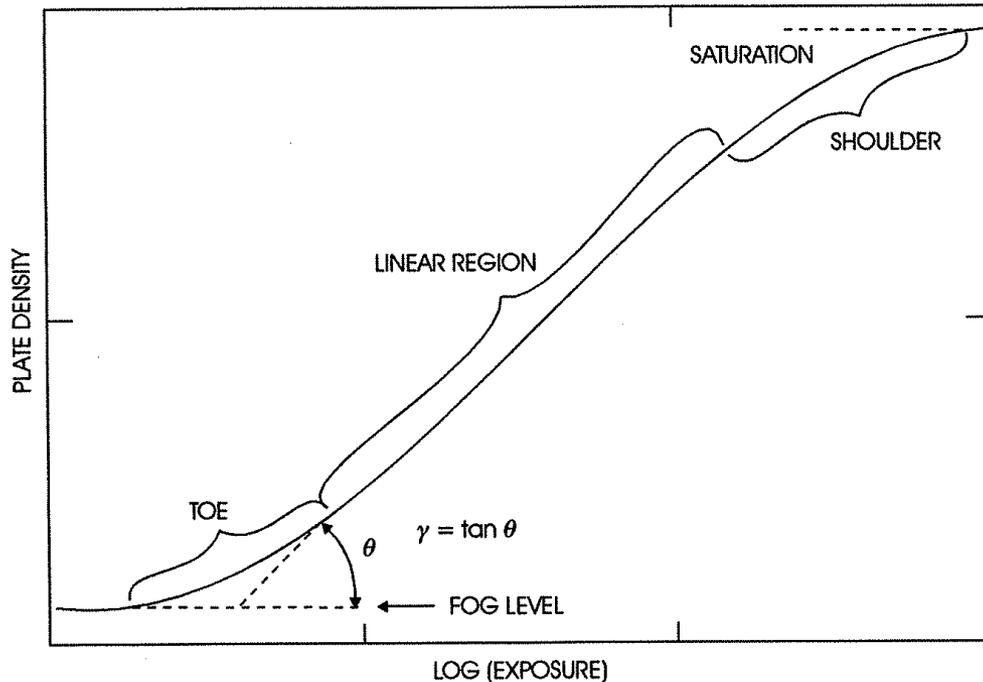
A huge leap forward in astronomy!

- **Able to record – permanently – positions of thousands of objects at a time**
- **More sensitive than the eye: QEs of ~5-10% compared to 2-3%**
- **Could be large**
 - e.g. 350 x 350 mm for UK Schmidt: 6° x 6°
- **Lots of information content**
 - Fine photographic emulsions could have resolutions of ~10 μ m, implying a UK Schmidt plate is ~35,000 x 35,000 pixels, or 1.2 x 10⁹ pixels (= 1.2 Gpixels)!
 - Digitize to 6 bits, i.e. 2⁶ = 64 intensity levels
 - ⇒ 8 x 10¹⁰ bits of information per plate (= 5GB!)

But there are disadvantages:

- **They are analogue devices**
 - Have to be digitized by scanning: a time consuming process
- **They do deteriorate over timescales of decades**
 - Chemical degradation (“gold spot disease”)
- **They are non-linear in their response**

- *Typical non-linear response of a photographic emulsion:*



Only linear in the regime where the signal increases linearly with log of exposure time.

Slope is termed 'Gamma' (γ), and is a measure of the contrast of the emulsion.

Below the 'toe' signal lost in the 'fog' of the background

In the 'toe' faint stars dominated by fog, hence non-linear

In the 'shoulder', bright stars saturate

- *To get best QE, need to "hypersensitize"*
 - *Fiddly & time consuming process involving "baking" plates in $N_2 - H_2$ gas*



Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

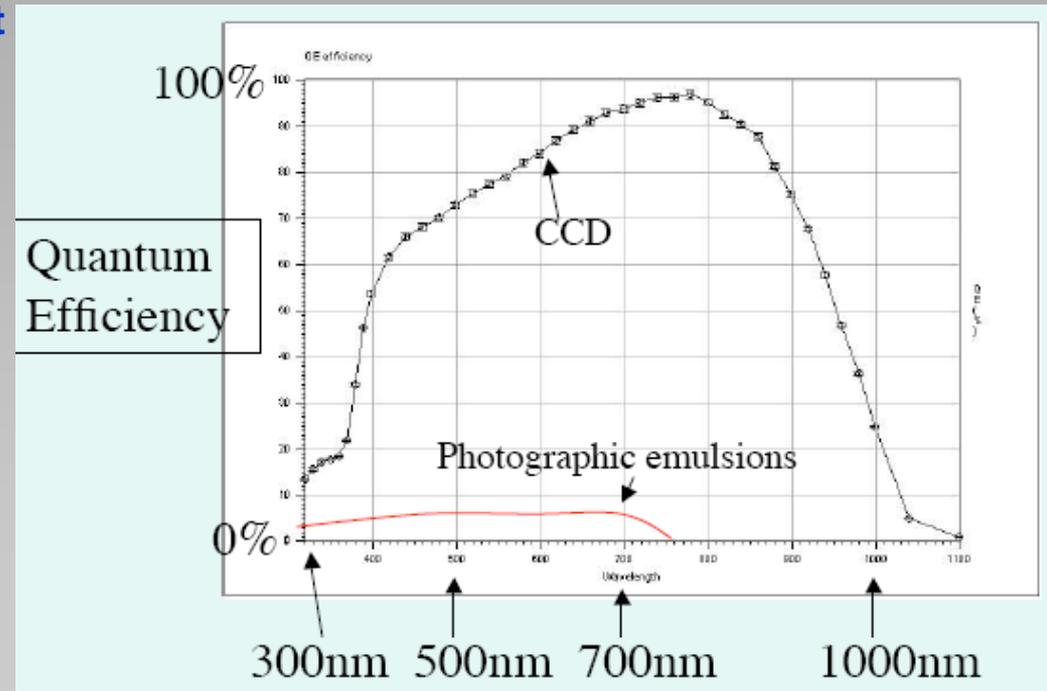
Detectors I

How we perceive the Universe

- The 20th Century has seen the invention of devices that record photons by absorbing and recording their energy
- The quantum and wave theories of radiation have impacted on all areas of detection of electromagnetic waves

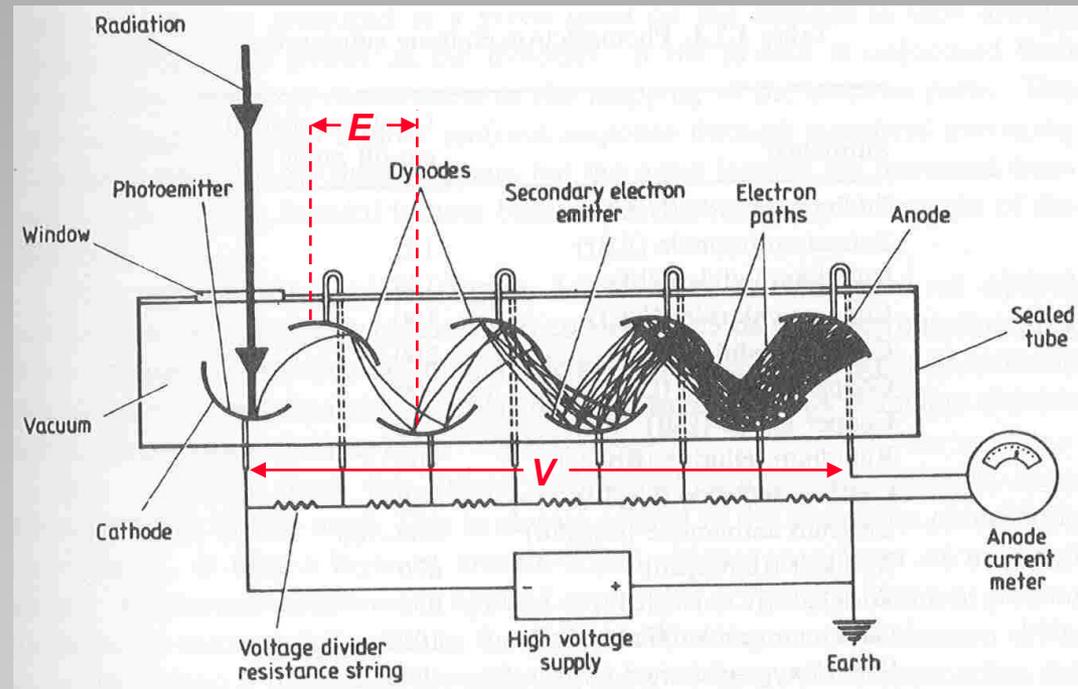
- Harnesses the photoelectric effect
 - » Photomultiplier tubes
 - » QEs typically of 20-30% max
- Development of semi-conductor devices, with much higher QE
 - » Charge Coupled Devices (CCDs)can now reach QEs of ~90%

These devices spelled the end of photographic plates, although CCDs still don't have the area coverage of the largest photographic plates.



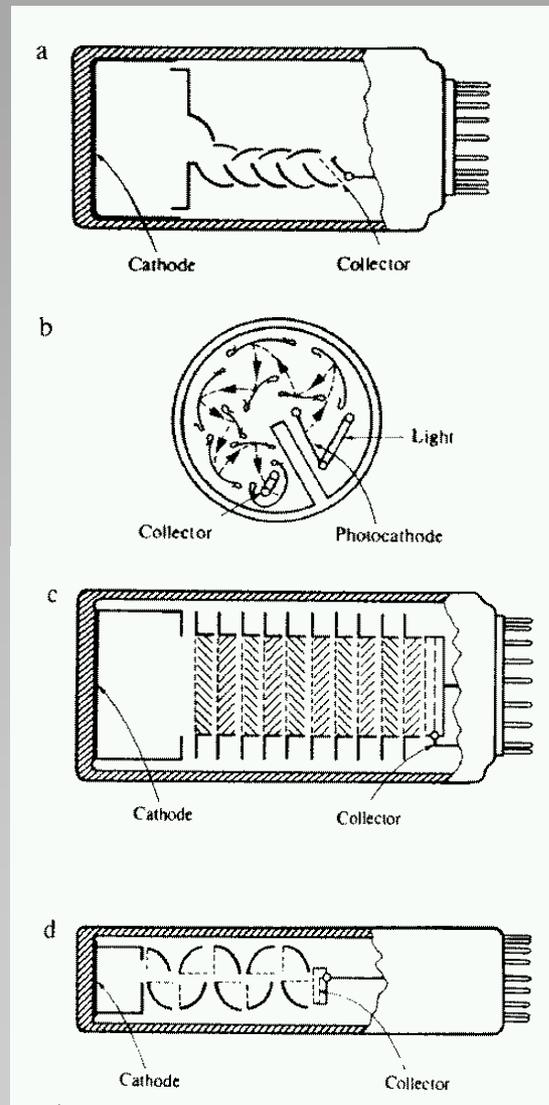
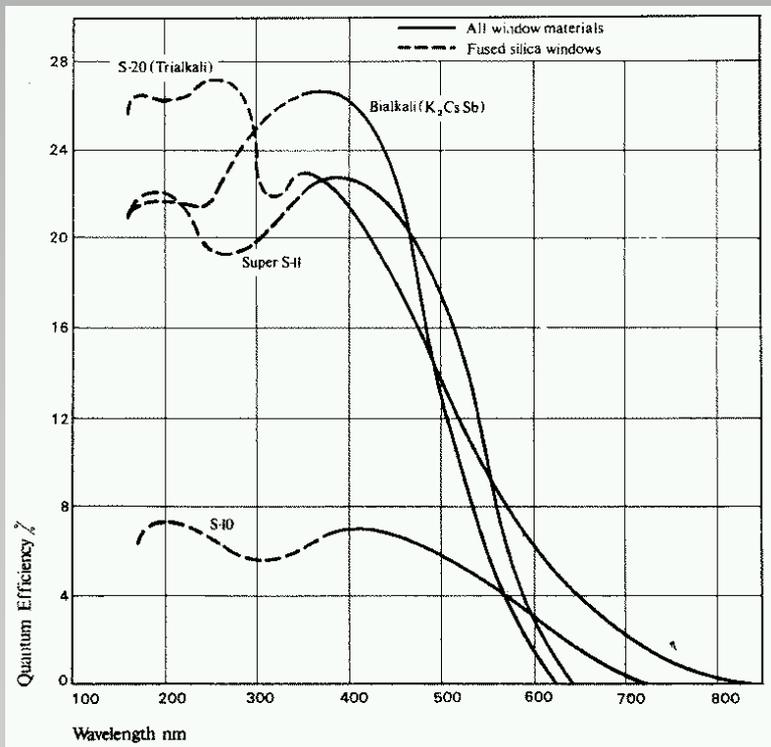
Photomultiplier Tube (PMT) Detectors

- Based on the photoelectric effect: a **photoemissive cathode** (at a -ve voltage) emits a **photoelectron** on absorption of a photon
- Amplification from a series of **n dynodes** at increasing +ve voltage
- Results in a **gain (g)** each time electrons collide with dynodes (& final anode)
 - $g = 3 - 5$; $n = 10 - 12$, typically
 - Total gain of tube $G = g^n$
 - $G = 10^5$ to 10^8
 - $g \propto E^\alpha$, where $\alpha = 0.7 - 0.8$ (E is the dynode Δ voltage)
 - Total cathode-anode voltage V
 - $\Rightarrow E = V / (n+1)$
 - $\Rightarrow g \propto V^\alpha$
 - $\Rightarrow G \propto V^{\alpha n}$
 - $\alpha n = 7 - 10$
 - \Rightarrow gain highly dependent on V
 - \Rightarrow need to have very stable V
 - V typically 10kV



Photomultiplier Tube (PMT) Detectors

- Different dynode architectures for different purposes
 - Focussed tubes (a) for fast response
 - “squirrel cage” (b) for compactness
 - “Venetian blind” (c) for large photocathode area
- Photocathode material metallic-like designed to work in the UV-Visible range (200-900nm)



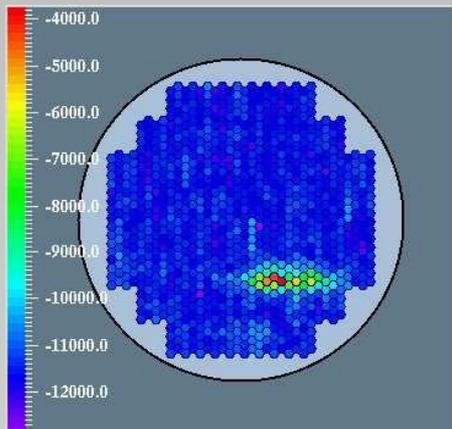
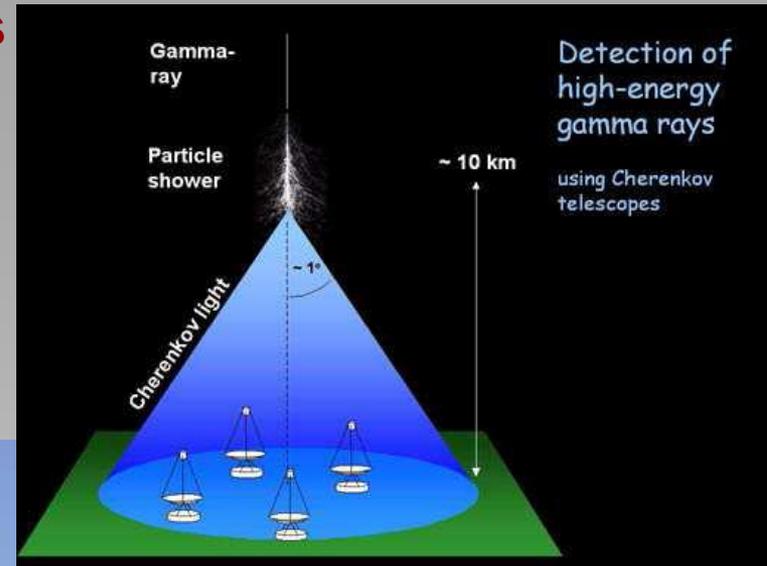


Photomultiplier Tube (PMT) Detectors

- Low noise photon counting devices
- “Dark current” present from thermal excitation of electrons from photocathode & dynodes
 - Reduce effect by cooling tubes
 - A GaAs tube cooled to -20C will reduce dark current by factor of several 1000
- But only *single channel*
 - Single photocathode
 - No “multiplex advantage”
 - Like a single cell in the retina
- *Well, not quite accurate!*
 - *Arrays of PMTs can do crude imaging by combining signals*
 - *Focal plane detector for Cerenkov gamma ray telescopes*
 - » *Picking up “faster than light” particles emitting optical photons*
 - *Liquid tank detectors for neutrinos*

Arrays of PMTs

- *HESS in Namibia* TeV gamma ray Cerenkov telescope

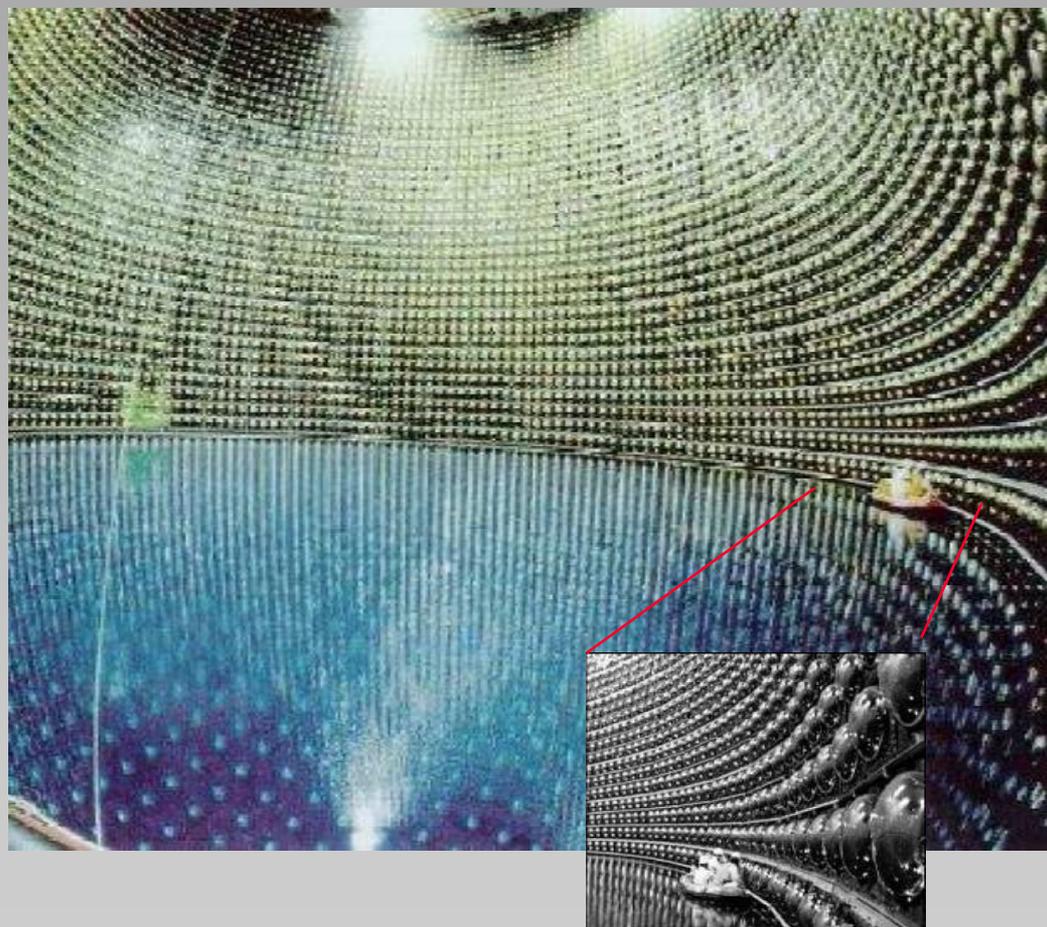


960 PMTs

Array of PMTs

Super Kamiokande neutrino “telescope” in Japan

- – 11,200 50cm diameter PMTs
- – Inside a 40-m high tank
- – 50,000 tons of water!
- – 1 km underground



“Three men in a boat”

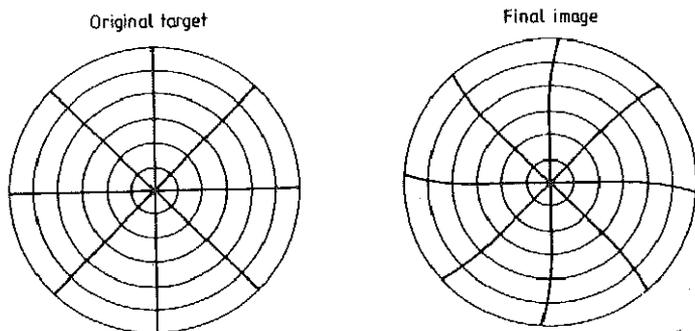
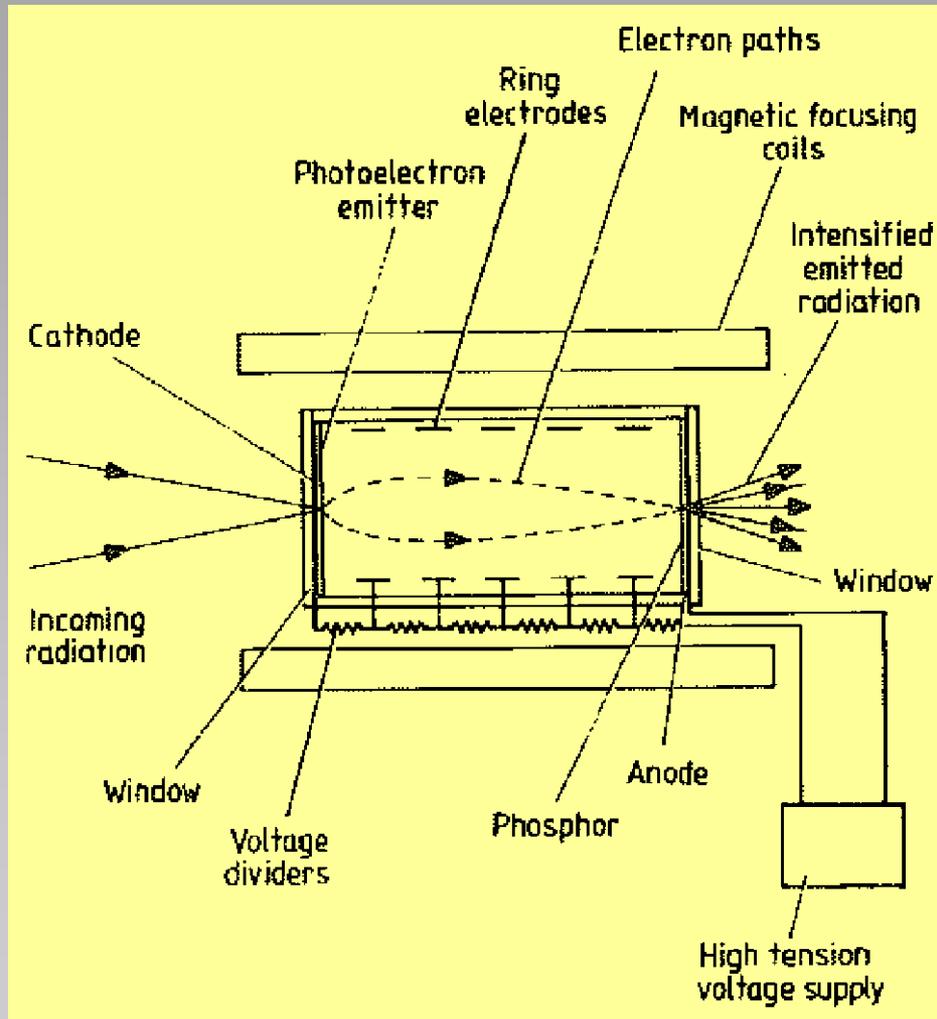
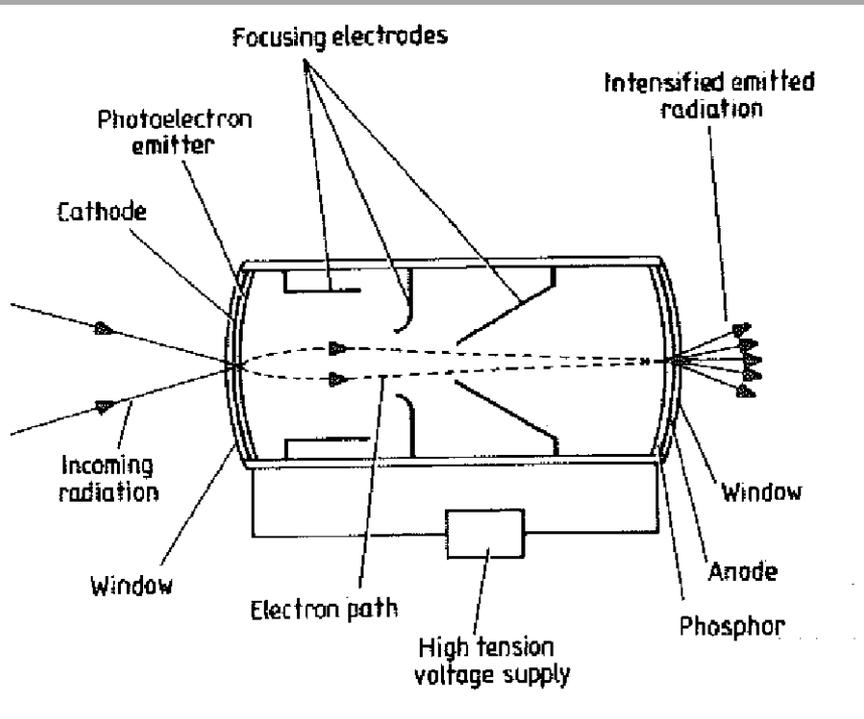


Photomultiplier Tube (PMT) 2-D Detectors

- Need for efficient, low noise “panoramic” (2-D) detector better than a photographic plate
- First attempts involved a hybrid of image tubes and photographic plates
 - Used photocathode to produce and accelerate photoelectrons
 - But no secondary collisions with dynodes
 - Rather use either electric or magnetic fields to ‘focus’ photoelectrons onto a phosphor screen
 - Phosphor then produces photons from excitation by electrons
 - » Single photon > releases photoelectron at photocathode > accelerates due to E/M field and gains E > collides with phosphor > produces many photons
 - » Photographic plate were in contact with phosphor
- Then came fully electronic devices
 - e.g. using semiconductors

Detectors I

Image Tubes

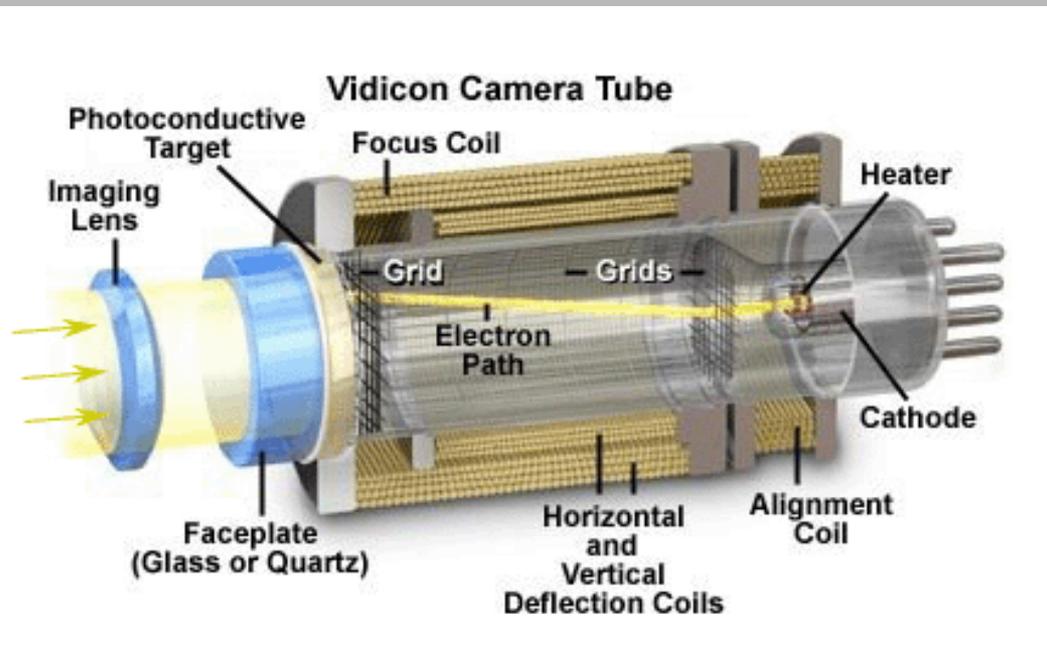


E-M focusing of electrons prone to image distortion: S- & "pin cushion"

TV Image Tubes

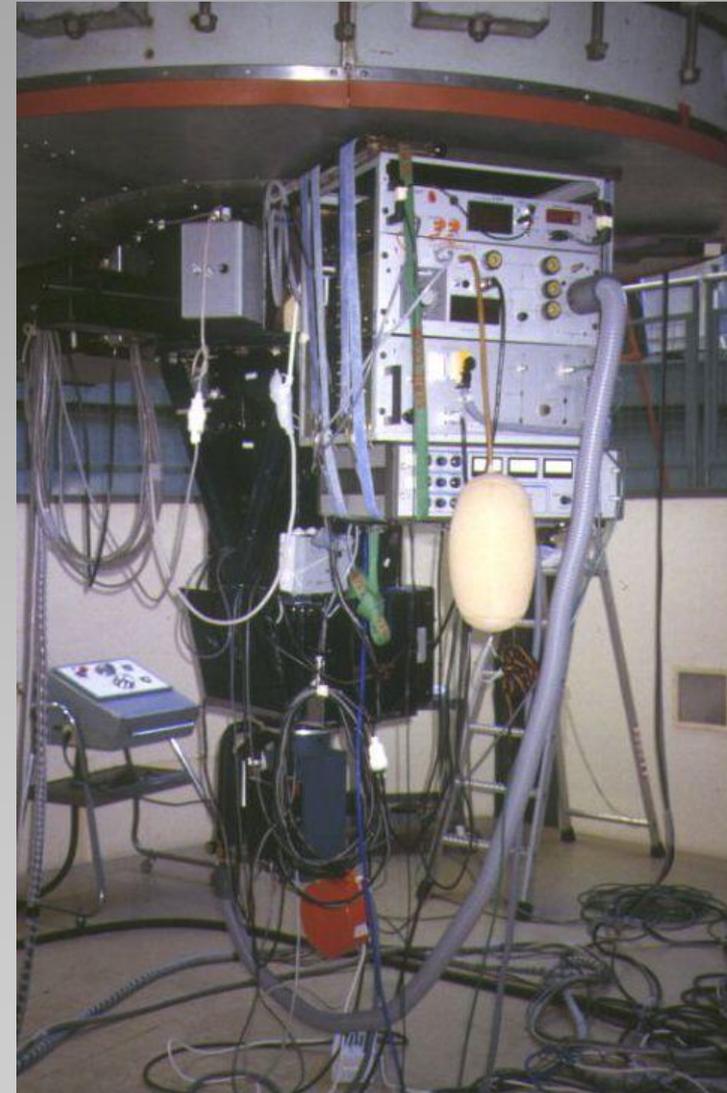
Problems

- Bulky & complex
- Lots of electronics (stable HT voltage needs)
- Subject to distortions
 - Earth's and telescope's ambient environment E-M fields a problem
- Can be fragile
 - Thin windows or faceplates under vacuum



Semiconductor Image Tubes

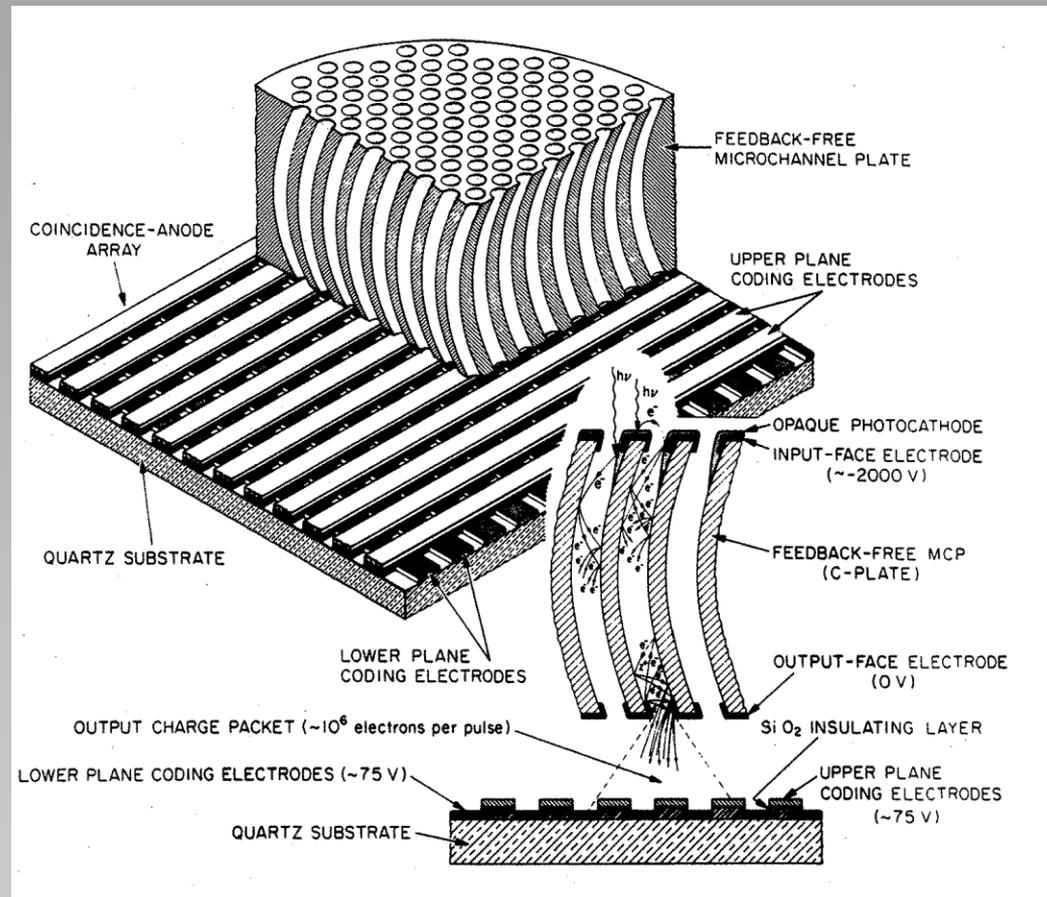
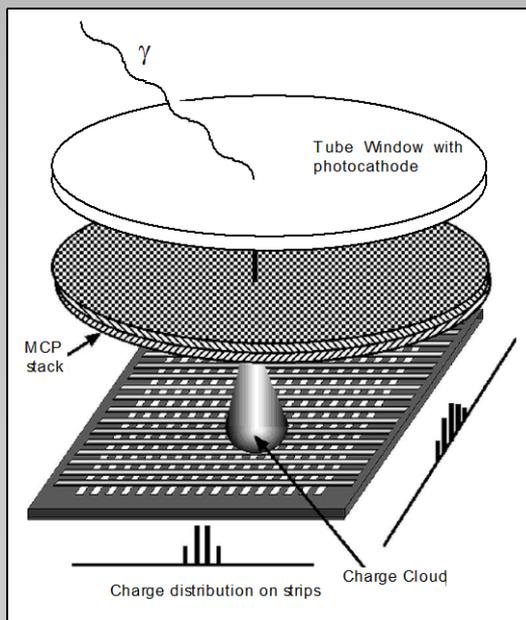
- Further developments involved replacing TV detector with semiconductor devices
- RPCS (operated at SAAO until early 1990s)
 - Used a linear array of ~2000 photodiodes
 - 1-D detector just for spectroscopy
- IPCS and PCA
 - Used CCD detectors
- New developments involves eliminating focusing E-M fields in favour of “mechanical” intensification
 - Micro Channel Plates (MCPs)



Detectors I

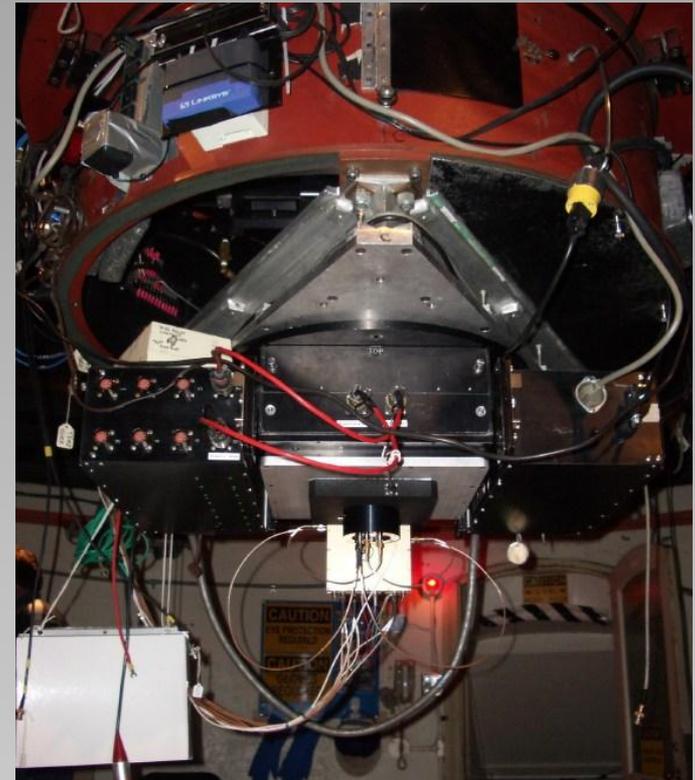
Microchannel Plates (MCPs)

- Small hollow pores 'channel' photoelectrons
- Voltage applied from top-bottom
- Electrons gain E
- Electrons collide with walls releasing secondary electrons
- Large charge pulses can be read out with position sensing detectors
 - e.g. strip anode

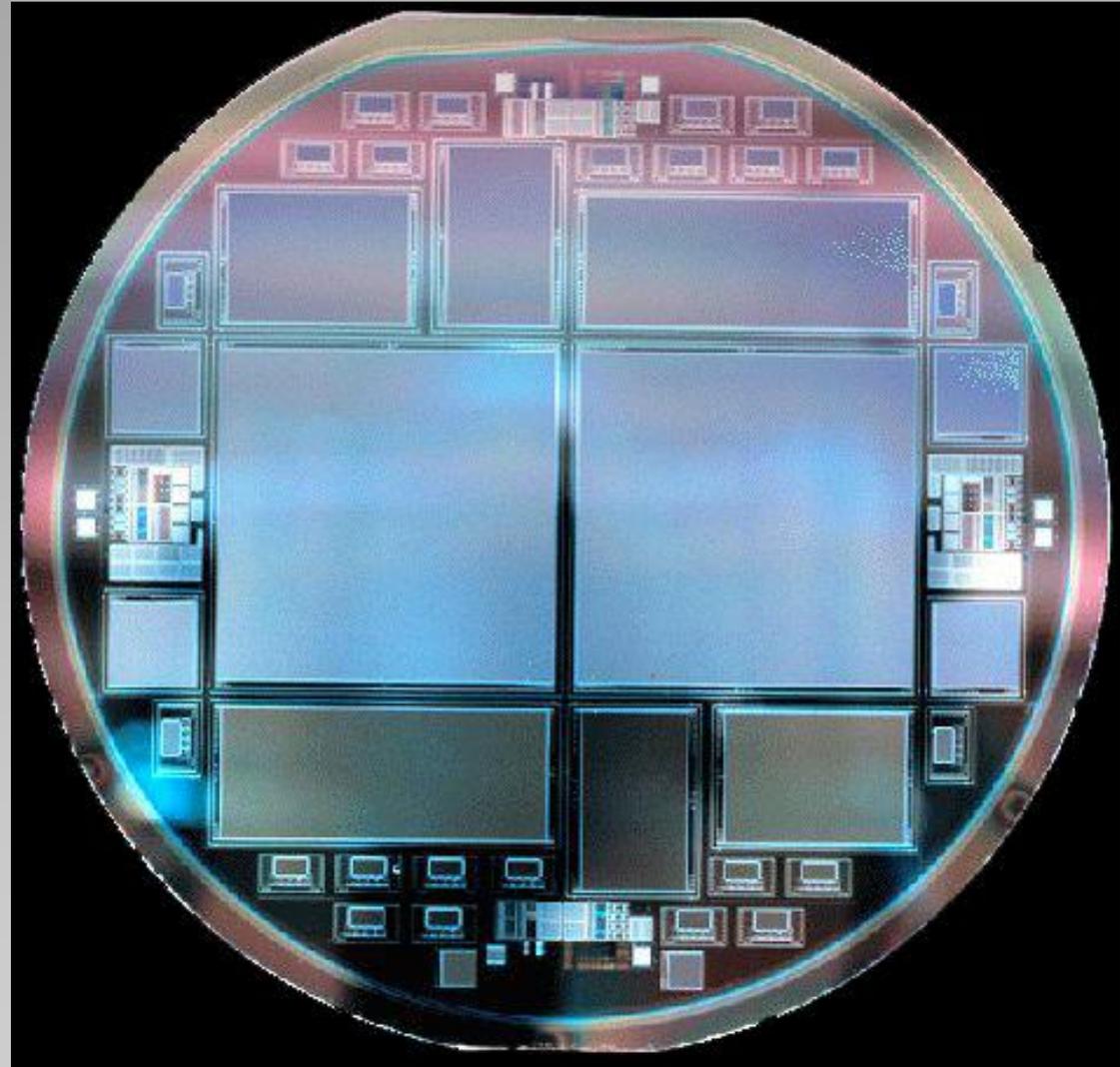
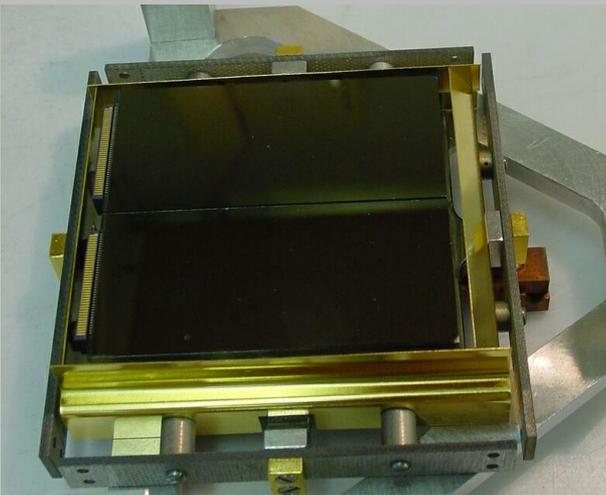


Microchannel Plate (MCP) Detectors

- Photon Counting detector
- Noise is just Poisson (\sqrt{N})
- Capable of high time resolution
 - Time tagging to 50 ns
- Good in UV
- Used on Hubble Space Telescope
 - MAMA detector
- Recently installed on SALT (“BVIT”)
 - Very compact

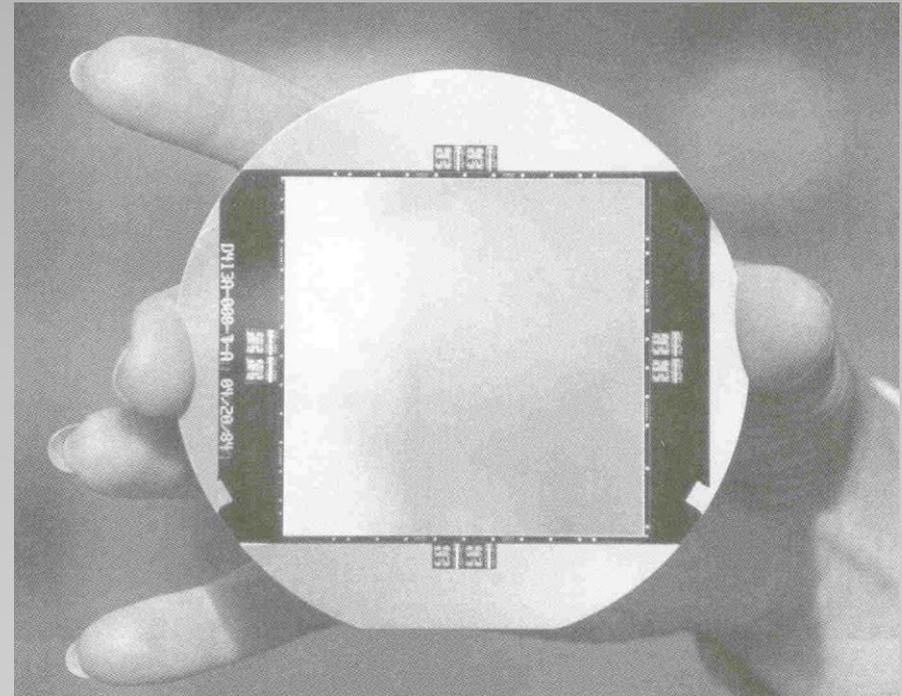
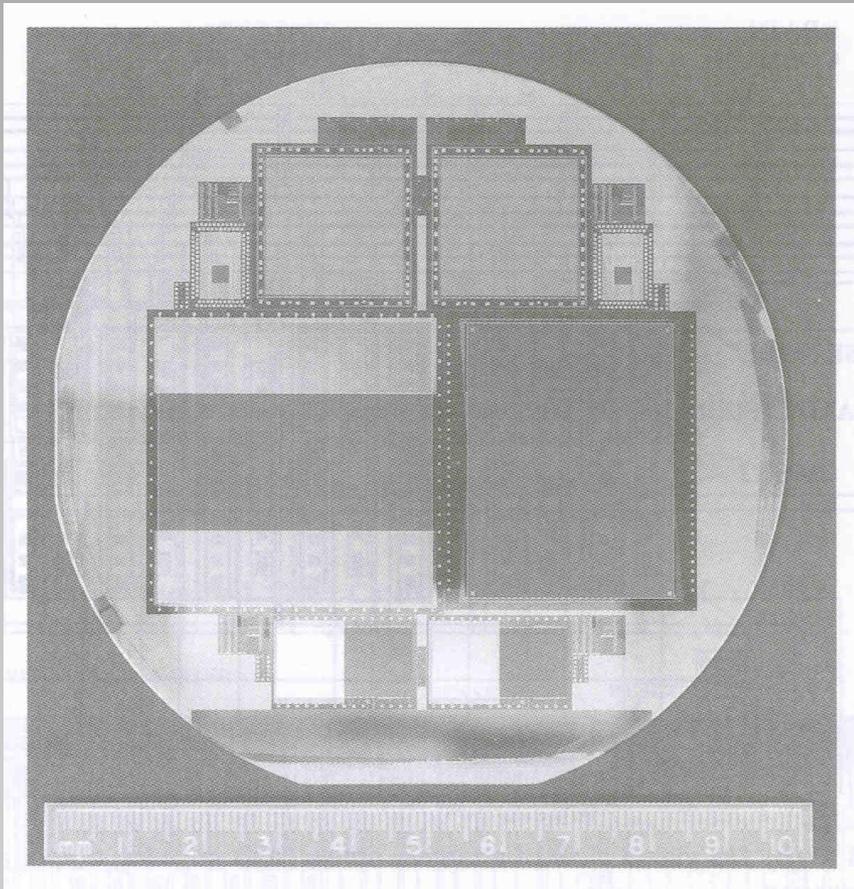


The Next Revolution: Charge Couple Device Detectors (CCDs)



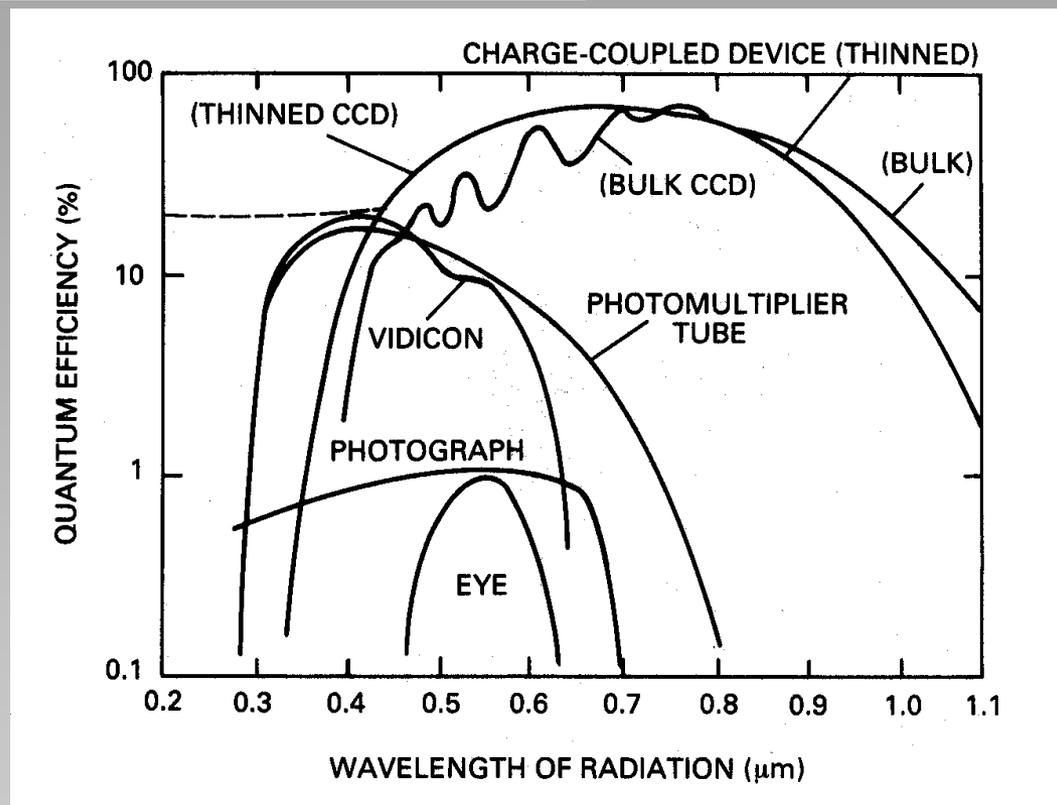
CCDs

- **Integrated semi-conductor detector**
 - From photon detection (pair production) to final digitization of signal
- **Manufactured from a Si wafer, as in ICs**



Major advantages of CCDs

- Some of the many advantages of CCDs over conventional electronic and photographic imaging mentioned include:
 1. Compact, rugged, stable, durable, low-power (using 10's instead of 1000's of volts)
 2. Excellent stability and linearity
 3. No image distortion (direct image onto a Si array fixed in fabrication process)
 4. Relative ease of operation, and reasonable cost due to mass production
 5. Unprecedented sensitivity (i.e. quantum efficiency) over wide λ range





History of the invention of CCDs

- It was already known that charge could be stored by insulating a small metal plate placed on the surface of a Si crystal.
 - Stringing these ‘storage sites’ together and using voltage differences between them to pass the charge along constituted the innovative idea
 - It took just few weeks to produce a proto-type 8-element device, and the first paper on a ‘CCD’ (for charge-coupled device, a name coined by Boyle) was published in April 1970 (*Bell System Technical Journal*, Vol. 49, 1970)
 - Wording from that paper reads:
 - » “A new semiconductor device concept has been devised which shows promise of having wide application” Boyle & Smith
 - Within a few months many types of applications were listed – some actually of relevance to a phone company!

History of the invention of CCDs

- The CCD was invented by Willard S. Boyle and George E. Smith of Bell Labs (where the transistor was invented) in 1969



They were jointly awarded the Nobel Prize for Physics in 2009



Optical/IR Observational Astronomy

Detectors I

Invention of CCDs

Aside: R & D departments of many large technology corporations in the USA have employed scientists to develop ‘esoteric’ devices, with no immediately apparent applications

» The ‘seeds on fertile ground’ approach – something positive will eventuate

– Penzias and Wilson, who were from the same labs as Boyle & Smith, first detected antenna ‘noise’ from a microwave receiver and interpreted as the **3°K background radiation**, a relic of the Big Bang (predicted by theory)

» This earned them a Nobel Prize too, well before Boyle & Smith

– Boyle and Smith were investigating new ways of imaging with Si solid-state devices in an effort to develop a *Picturephone*TM (as in “2001: A Space Odyssey”!)

» Market research failed to convince Bell that the Picturephone was worth developing at that time

PICTUREPHONE



(So, who has seen “2001: A Space Odyssey” ?)

