

# OBSERVATIONAL ASTRONOMY – I

**Lecture 13**

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# Spectroscopy

Spectral analysis is the source of most of our astrophysical knowledge.

# Outline



1. General introduction to spectroscopy
2. Practical spectroscopy
3. Spectral reductions (calibration)

# Techniques of Spectroscopy

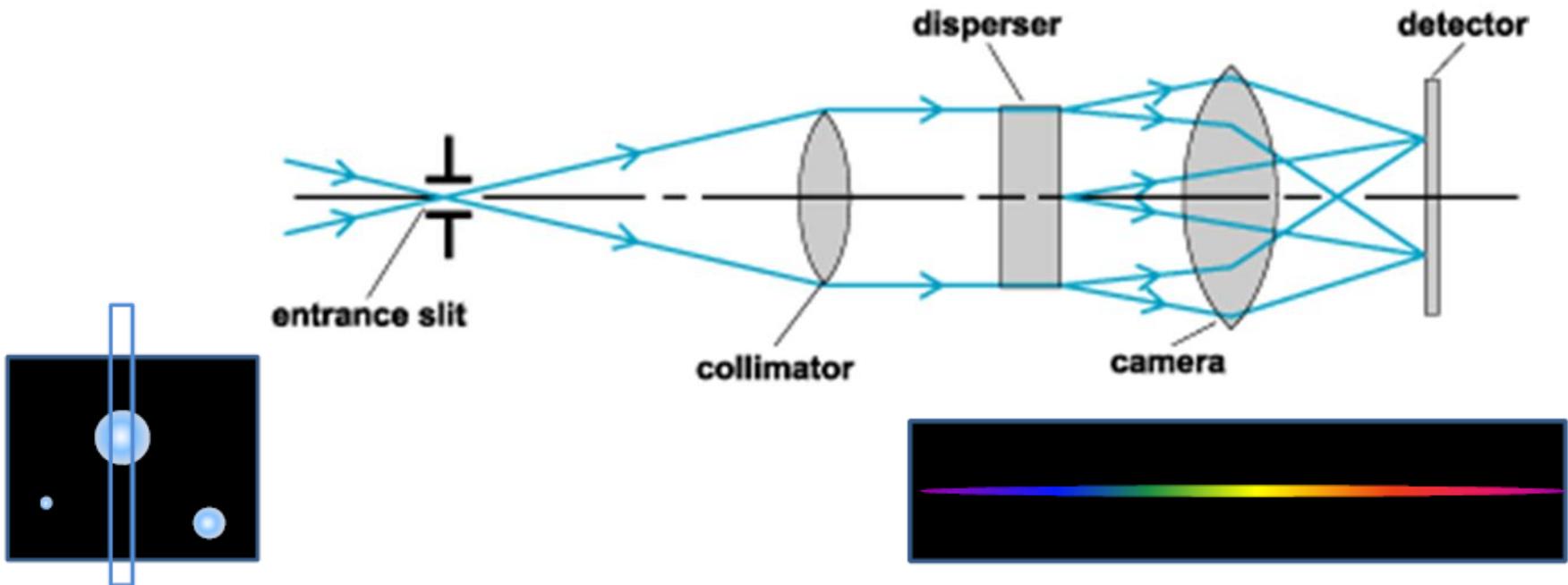
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- At X-ray and gamma ray wavelengths detectors have intrinsic energy resolution.
- At lower energies we must use different techniques to separate radiation of different wavelength/energy/frequency spatially.
- These techniques are largely those of interference, so considering radiation as waves.

# Spectrometers

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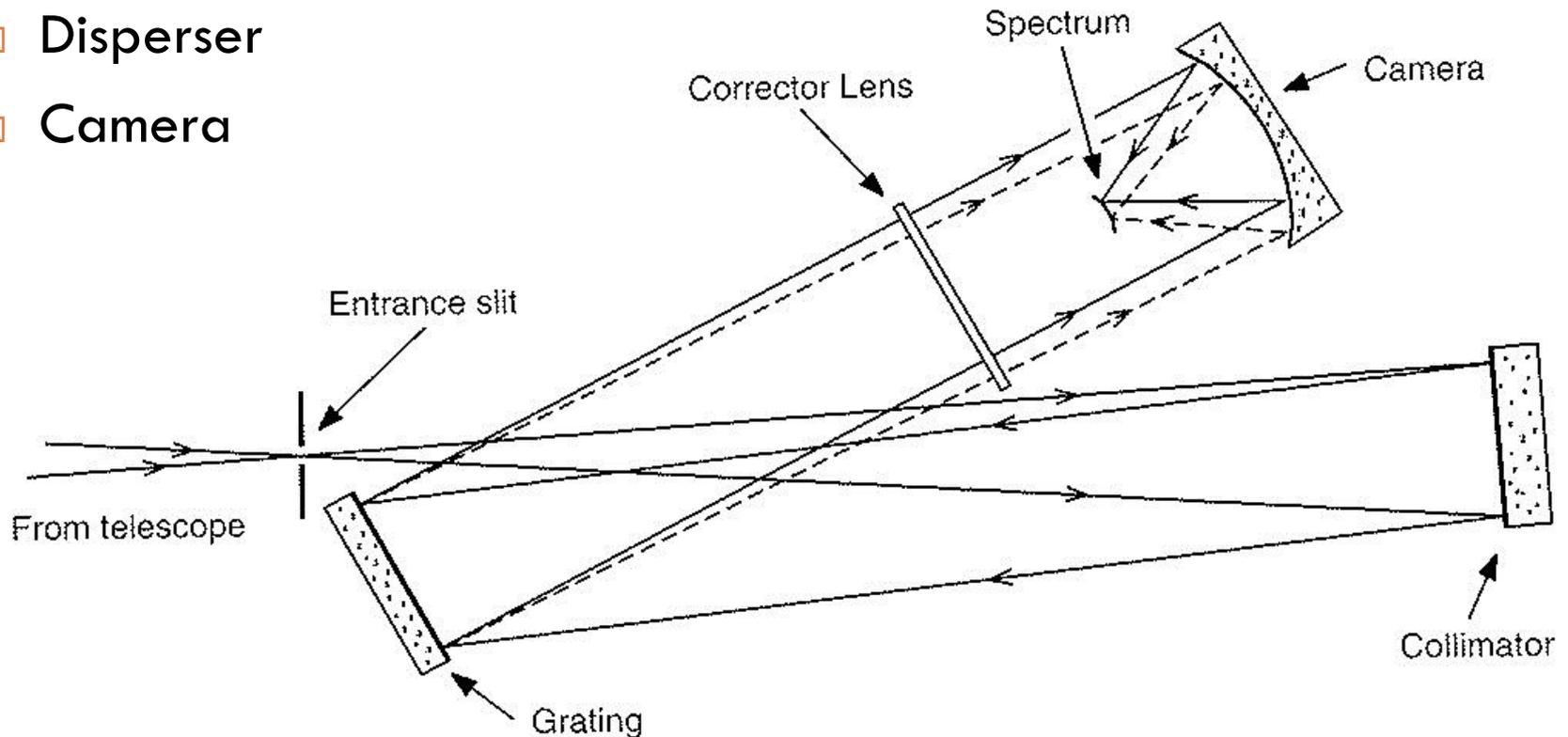
- All spectrometers have essentially the same basic design, but many different implementations are possible depending on the constraints and choice of spectral disperser.



# Spectrometers: main elements

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- Entrance apertures at focal plane of telescope
- Collimator
- Disperser
- Camera



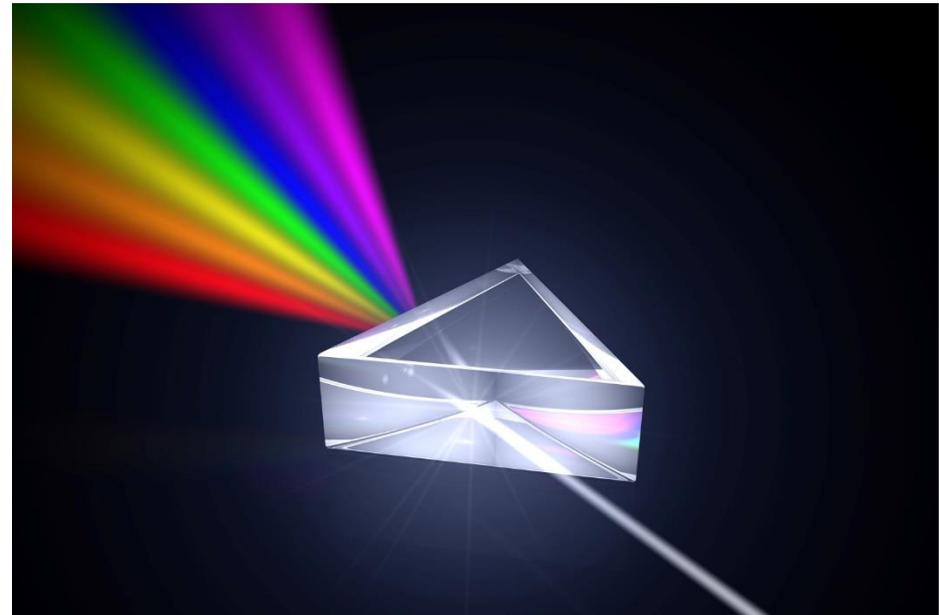
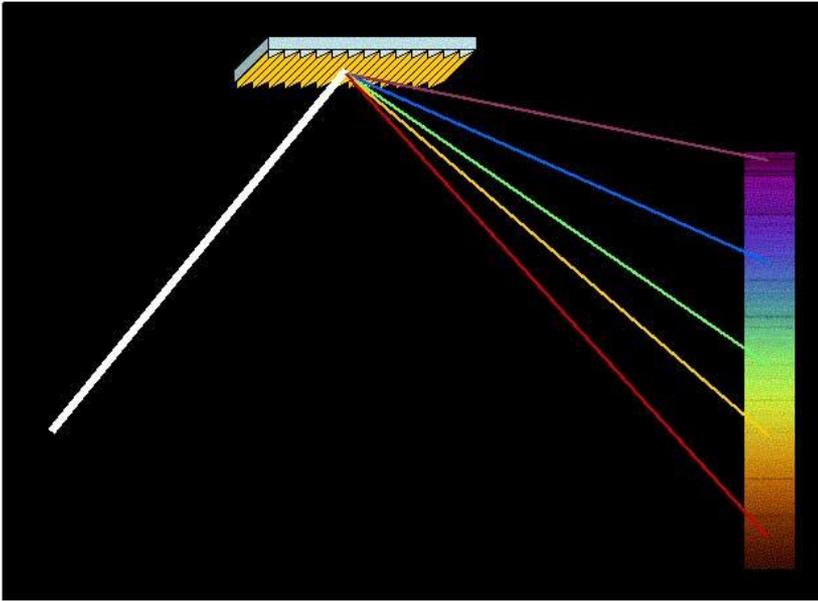
# Spectrometers: main elements

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- **Entrance aperture:** The image of a target is focused onto the slit. The slit is in the focal plane, and usually has an adjustable width  $w$ . The slit width must be matched to either the seeing conditions or the diffraction disk depending on the design and application. A narrower slit improves resolution  $\sim 2 - 10\times$ .
- **Collimator:** makes the rays parallel
- **Disperser** disperses the light into colours: grating or prism, usually on rotating stage so can adjust central wavelength.
- **Camera:** to re-focus parallel output beam from disperser onto focal plane of detector (CCD)

# Disperser: Grating vs Prism

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Resolution of a prism is low compared to what is possible with a grating, therefore **grating is usually the primary dispersive element in a modern spectrograph.**

# Diffraction Grating

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- A diffraction grating is a set of multiple, identical slits (transmitting or reflecting) separated by a distance comparable to the wavelength of light.
- Each slit can be considered as radiating secondary waves (Huygens' secondary wavelets).
- The amplitude at any point on the image side of the slit can be calculated by summing the amplitude contributed by each set of secondary wavelets.

# Diffraction Grating

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- The theory of Fraunhofer diffraction from a plane grating predicts that the diffracted light is distributed as:

$$I(\vartheta) = I_0 f_1 f_2,$$

where  $I$  is the output intensity leaving the grating in direction  $\theta$  with respect to the normal,  $I_0$  is the input intensity at the grating,  $f_1$  is the diffraction pattern for a single grating slit, and  $f_2$  is the pattern for a set of  $N$  identical apertures.

# Diffraction Grating

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- The two patterns are given by:

$$f_1 = \frac{\sin^2(\pi\alpha)}{(\pi\alpha)^2}, \quad \alpha = \frac{a \sin \theta}{\lambda}$$

$$f_2 = \frac{\sin^2(N\pi\delta)}{\sin^2(\pi\delta)}, \quad \delta = \frac{d \sin \theta}{\lambda}.$$

where  $a$  is the linear width of the apertures (assumed rectangular) and  $d$  is the linear separation between them. We assume normal incidence of the incoming light here.

# Diffraction Grating

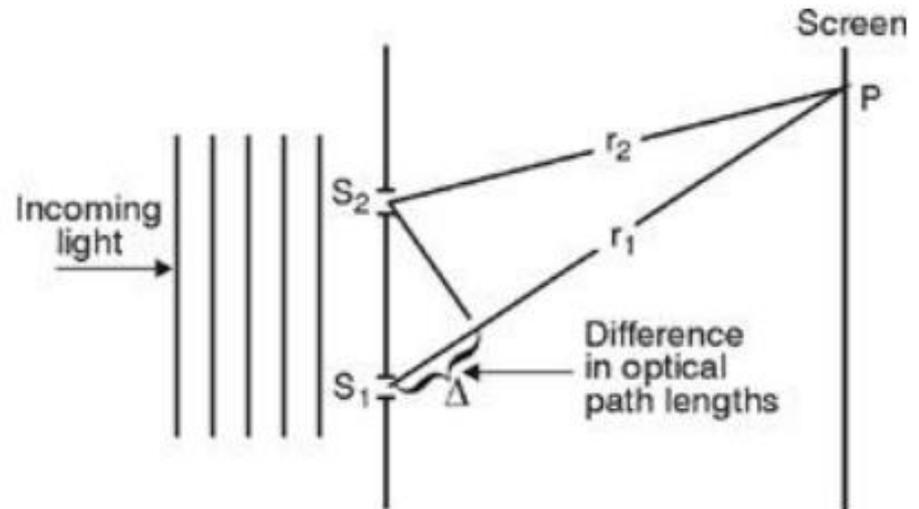
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- Consider monochromatic light. Maxima (“orders”) in the multislit pattern occur for  $\delta = n$ , where  $n$  is any integer. This implies the path difference  $\Delta$  between adjacent slits will be  $n$  wavelengths

$$\Delta = d \sin i + d \sin \theta$$

$i$  – is the angle of incidence

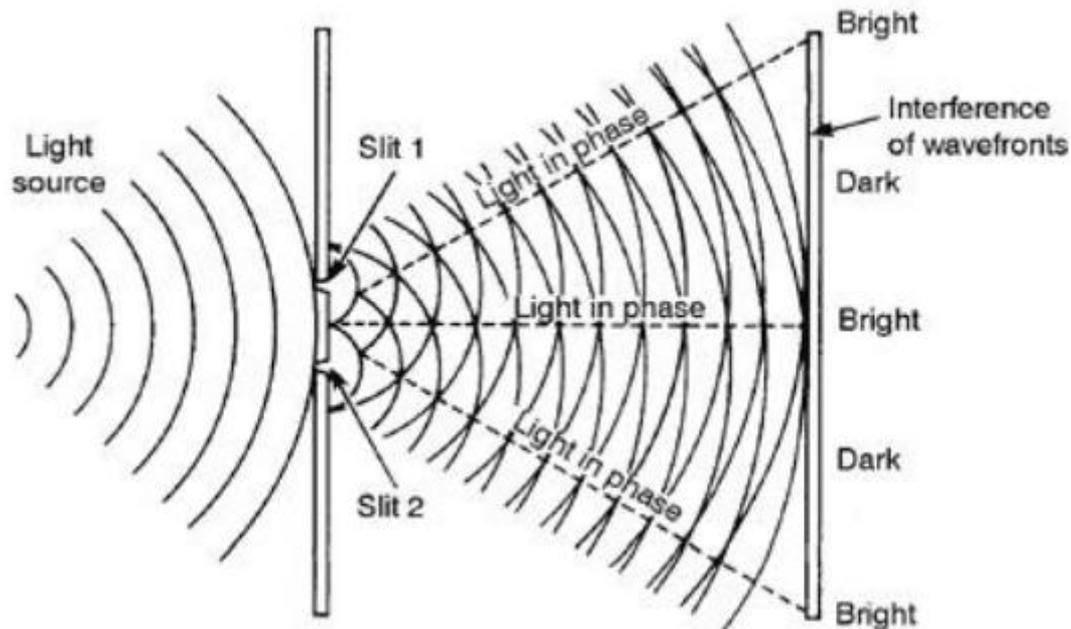
$\theta$  – is the angle of diffraction



# Diffraction Grating

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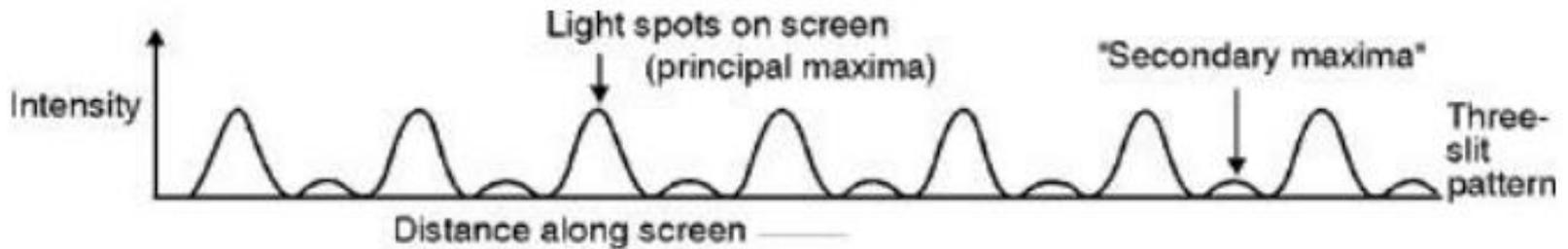
- This produces constructive interference. Maxima in the output intensity occur at a sequence of angles  $\sin \theta_n = n \lambda / d$ .



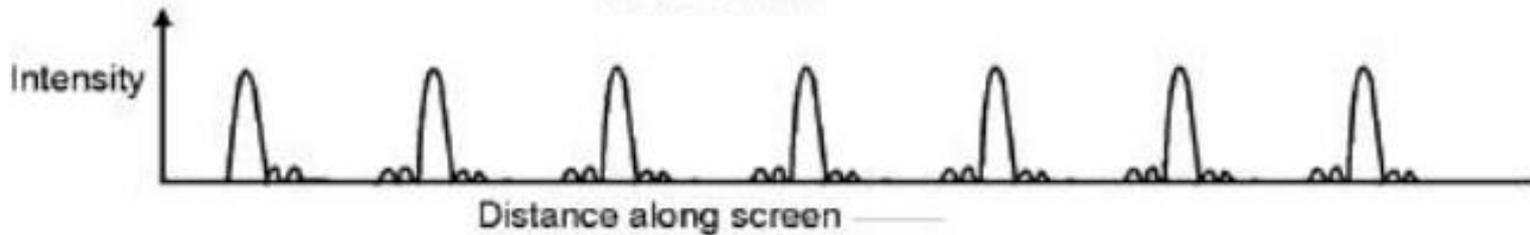
# Diffraction Grating

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- The monochromatic multi-slit pattern for 3 slits and a large number of slits. Each peak corresponds to a particular order. The addition of slits **increases the sharpness and brightness** of the peaks **but leaves the locations** of the orders unchanged.



a. Three slits.



b. Many slits.

# Diffraction Grating

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- Principal maxima are given by the general grating equation:

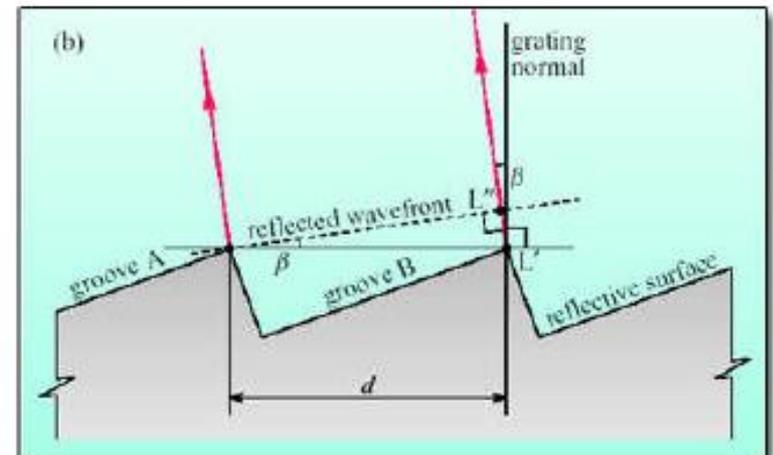
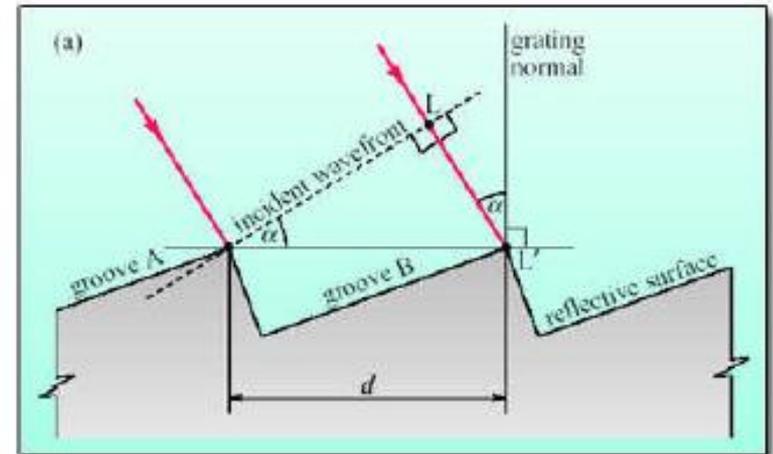
$$n \lambda = d (\sin \alpha + \sin \beta)$$

$n$  is an integer representing the order in which the grating is being used.  $n$  is called the order of diffraction.

$d$  – the groove spacing.

$\alpha$  – is the angle of incidence

$\beta$  – is the angle of diffraction



# Diffraction Grating

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- The single slit diffraction pattern modifies this by affecting the heights of the maxima, the strongest maximum is that at  $n = 0$ .
- This maximum is of no use to us, because it does not provide any discrimination in wavelength, it is at the same angle for any  $\lambda$ .
- Gratings are designed to concentrate radiation in orders with  $n \neq 0$  (note that positive and negative  $n$  are equivalent).

# Resolving power & Spectral resolution

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- Spectral resolution for order  $n$  is determined by the wavelength shift needed to place the diffraction pattern maximum for  $\lambda + \delta\lambda$  on the first minimum in the pattern for  $\lambda$ . The **resolving power** is

$$R = \frac{\lambda}{\delta\lambda} = nN$$

it depends both on the order  $n$  and on the total number  $N$  of slits illuminated on the grating.

- Astronomers often use the word “dispersion” to refer to  $d\lambda/dx$  in the spectrograph focal plane, usually quoted in Å per mm. It is inversely related to the resolving power, so lower values correspond to higher resolving power.

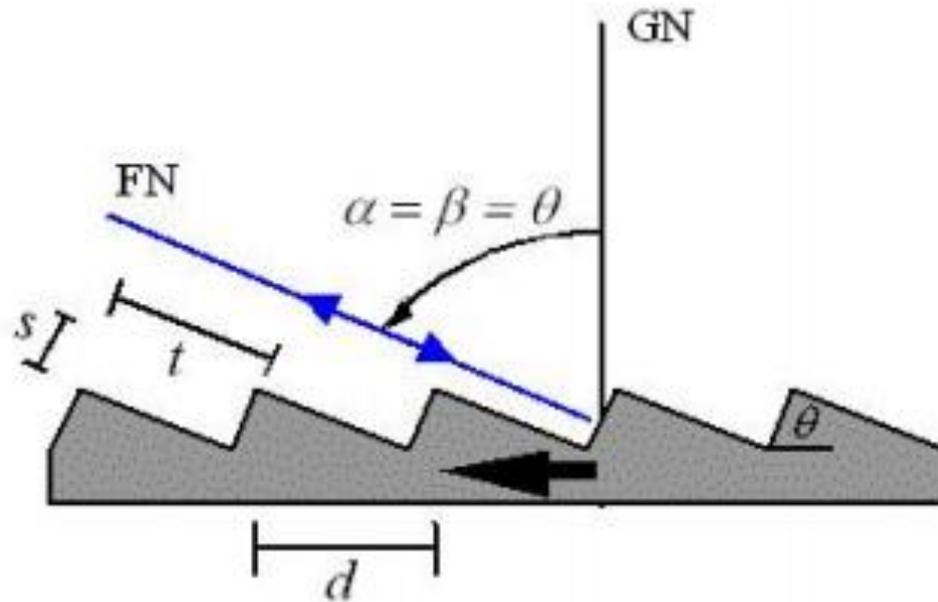
# Which resolving power to use for your observations?

- Always „the larger the better“ is not the answer
- High resolution needs a lot of photons, so to get any signal one needs a bright source and/or a large telescope
- Also, in some cases there is no need for high resolution. If the process you want to study produces velocities of 1000 km/s, there is not much point studying it with resolution of 1 km/s
- Still, with high resolution you might discover surprising things about your object

# Diffraction Grating: Resolution

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- “Echelle” gratings reach very high resolutions by operating at large  $n \sim 50 - 100$  and angle of incidence  $\alpha \sim 90^\circ$ . Yield  $R > 10^5$ .



# Order overlap

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- Red light of a given order is spatially coincident with blue light from a higher order. Wavelength  $\lambda_m$  in order  $m$  is superposed on light from wavelength  $\lambda_n$  in order  $n$  if

$$\lambda_m = \frac{n\lambda_n}{m}$$

For instance,  $\lambda_1 = 10000\text{\AA}$ ,  $\lambda_2 = 5000\text{\AA}$ , and  $\lambda_3 = 3330\text{\AA}$  are coincident.

Solution: Use “order separating” filters to block out the unwanted orders,  
(through this becomes difficult for large  $n$ ).

# Echelle gratings

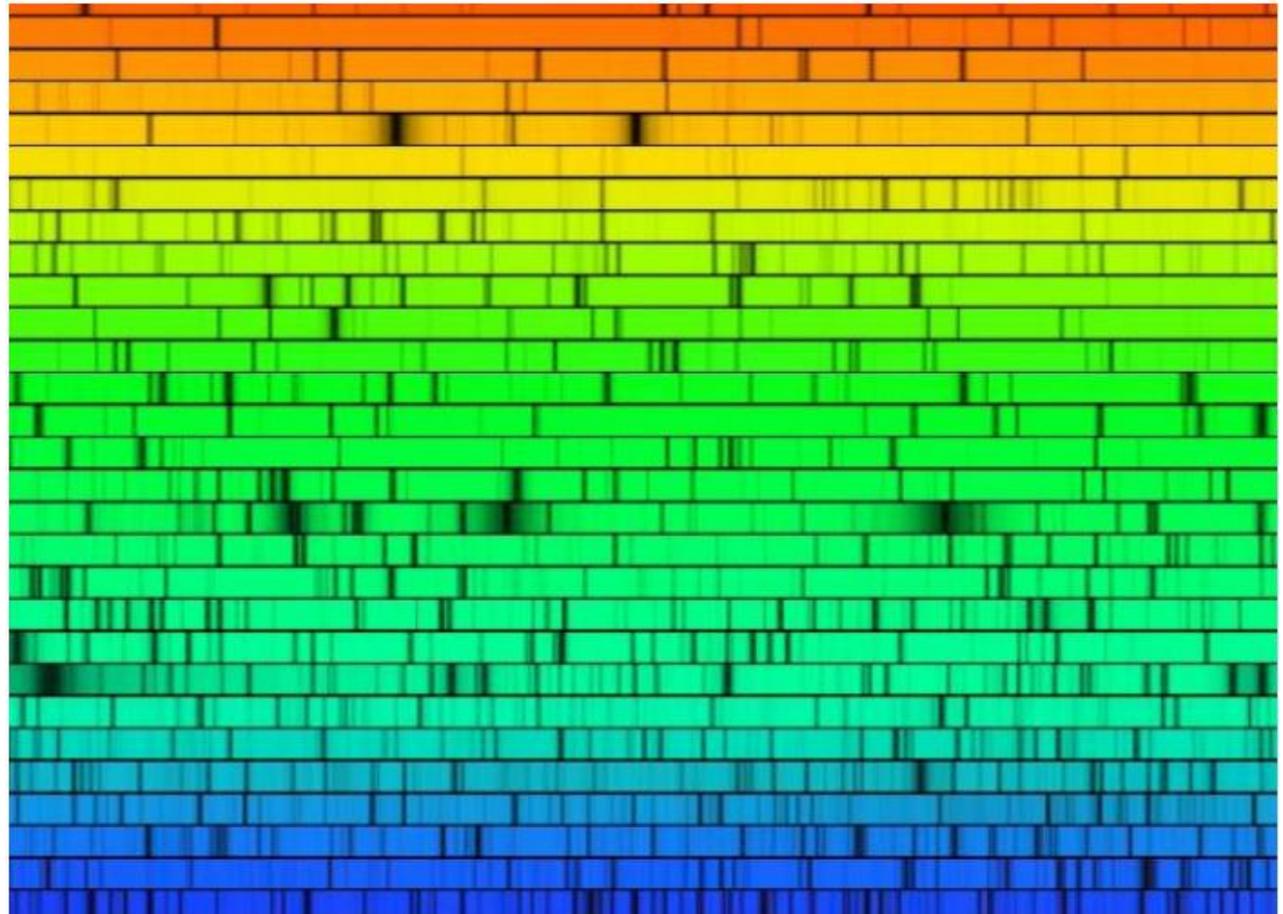
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- Order overlap is much worse, because adjacent orders differ in wavelength by small amounts (e.g. Order 6 @ 500nm is coincident with order 5 @ 600nm, order 7 @ 429nm, order 8 @ 375nm etc)
- Must separate these orders by **cross-dispersion**, usually dispersing with a prism at right angles to the grating dispersion.
- Echelle spectrum consists of a number of spectral orders arranged side by side on the detector.
- Echelles can only be used for point sources (stars and quasars) or for small objects, otherwise the light from different orders still overlaps.

# Echelle gratings

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High  
resolution,  
optical band  
solar spectrum



# Transmission gratings and grisms

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- A very popular way to convert a camera into a spectrograph is to deposit a transmission grating on the hypotenuse of a right-angled prism and use the deviation of the prism to bring the first order of diffraction on axis. Such a device is called a “grism”.
- The advantage of a grism is that it can be placed in a filter wheel and treated like another filter.

# Grisms

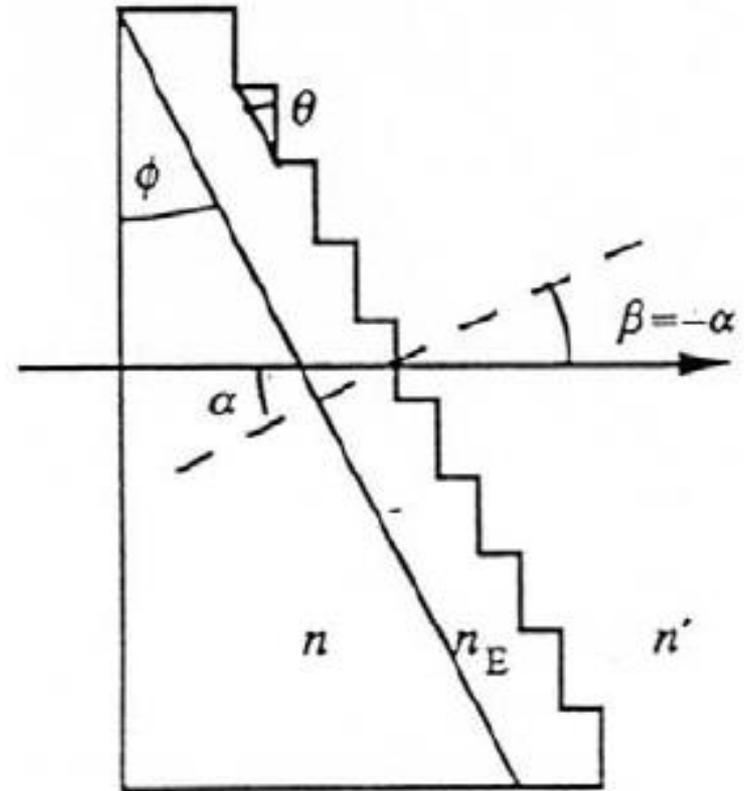
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- The basic relationships required to design a grism are

$$m \lambda_c T = (n - 1) \sin \varphi$$

$$R = \frac{EFL}{2 d_{pix}} (n - 1) \tan \varphi$$

where  $\lambda_c$  is the central wavelength,  $T(=1/d)$  is the number of lines per millimeter of the grating;  $n$  is the refractive index of the prism material;  $\varphi$  is the prism apex angle; EFL is the effective focal length of the camera system and  $d_{pix}$  is the pixel size. Resolving powers (two pixels) of  $R \sim 500 - 2000$  are practical.



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# Practical spectroscopy

# Practical spectroscopy

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- The purposes of spectroscopy are:
  - ▣ To measure accurate wavelengths of emission and absorption lines.
  - ▣ To measure the relative strengths of emission lines.
  - ▣ To measure equivalent widths of absorption lines.
  - ▣ To measure the spectral energy distribution of the continuum radiation.

# Practical spectroscopy

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- Science goals must come first:
  - ▣ What are the resolution and S/N requirements?
  - ▣ Is there a restriction on exposure time?
  - ▣ Decide on the best compromise between these constraints, you will soon enough run out of photons.
- Identify a slit-width/disperser combination that provides the required dispersion and sampling.
  - ▣ Seeing or slit-width limited?
- Work out calibrations required
  - ▣ Always try to take cal data through the same/similar lightpath.

# Slit-filling effects

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- A slit-limited setup ensures that the slit is always illuminated uniformly [provided the object is centered]
- A partially illuminated slit (because image quality is better than the slit-width) may introduce shifts in the projected spectrum as different areas of the slit are illuminated as a function of time
- This will lead to shifts in both the spatial and dispersion direction of the spectrum when comparing to calibration data that are obtained with a fully illuminated slit  
**Not good if you are after accurate radial velocities!**

# Atmospheric dispersion

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- Differential atmospheric refraction will deflect a source by an amount that is dependent on wavelength
  - ▣ [the index of refraction is a function of wavelength]
- A point source position on the sky is dependent on wavelength!
- The displacement is towards the zenith and larger for shorter wavelengths
- This obviously affects acquisition and slit-angle strategies when obtaining spectroscopy

# Atmospheric dispersion

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- Index of refraction:  $n(\lambda, T, p, f)$ 
  - ▣ wavelength, temperature, pressure, water vapour
- Angle displacement:  $\Delta R = R(\lambda_1) - R(\lambda_2) \propto \Delta n(\Delta \lambda) \tan z$ 

zenith angle  
(airmass) 
- Some example shifts (") relative to image at 5000Å:

airmass	3000Å	4000Å	6000Å	10000Å
1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
1.25	1.59	0.48	-0.25	-0.61
2.00	3.67	1.10	-0.58	-1.40

# Atmospheric dispersion

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- Make sure you acquire the target at a wavelength relevant for your spectral range
- Differential refraction will mean differential slit-losses: can only centre object at one  $\lambda$
- If the slit is vertical (relative to horizon/ zenith line), differential refraction will occur purely along the slit
- This means that the slit P.A. (sky angle) must change with time. The vertical P.A. is the *parallactic angle*

