



Astro 500

*Techniques of Modern
Observational Astrophysics*

Matthew Bershady
University of Wisconsin

Astro 500

- This course sets the foundation that will enable you to observe and process data to make expert astronomical measurements. To accomplish this we will establish
 - how instruments work;
 - how their design determines their science performance; and
 - the fundamentals of the measurement process.
- Attending the lectures and doing the homework are essential to learning the material.
- Readings are a resource to help you better understand the material. More on this in a moment.
- Specific examples of data analysis will often be given in terms of IRAF. Not necessarily the best, but widely available and free.
- Knowledge of IRAF helpful. Ability to program in some language essential.

Course Outline

1. Introduction
 - Overview
 - Fluxes & magnitudes,
 - Statistics & errors
 2. Digital detectors
 3. Telescopes, optics & observing

 4. Imaging cameras
 5. Spectroscopy-I: dispersive systems
 6. Spectroscopy-II: grating-dispersed spectrographs

 7. Spectroscopy-III: interferometry
 8. 3D spectroscopy: current and future
 9. Data processing and image analysis

- MX-1
MX-2
MX-3

Syllabus

Class Website: <http://www.astro.wisc.edu/~mab/education/astro500>

- Course outline & schedule
- Handouts, lectures, homework and reading will be posted

Homework:

- ~5 problem sets due over the semester.
- Discuss problems with your classmates, but you must write up your own solutions.

Exams: Three midterm exams (in-class)

Grading:

Approximate weights for grading:

Homework	30%	Midterms	3 x 20%
Participation	10%		

Texts

Required:

o McLean, “Electronic Imaging in Astronomy,” Wiley

Recommended:

o Walker, “Astronomical Observations,” Cambridge University Press

o Schroeder, “Astronomical Optics,” Academic Press

Other Useful References:

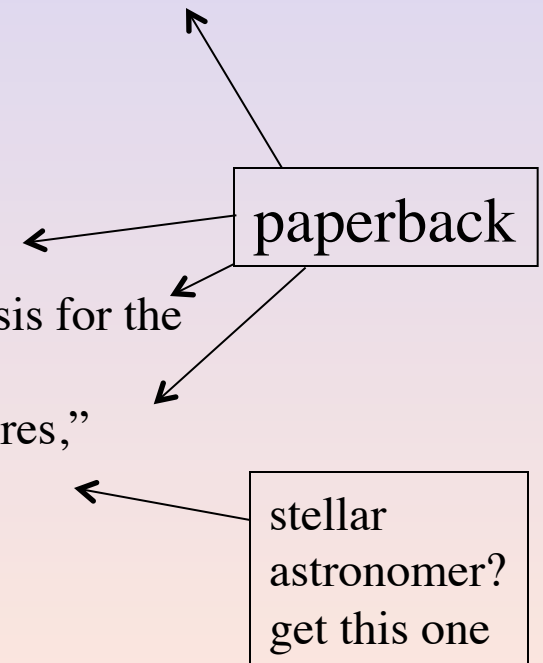
o Kitchin, “Astrophysical Techniques,” Adam Hilger, Ltd

o Bevington & Robinson, “Data Reduction and Error Analysis for the Physical Sciences,” McGraw-Hill

o Gray, “The Observation and Analysis of Stellar Photospheres,” Cambridge

o Cox, “Allen’s Astrophysical Quantities,” Athlone Press

o Press et al., “Numerical Recipes,” Cambridge



Other material & credits

- Additional reading material will be provided as references in lectures and articles posted on web.
- Some lecture material kindly provided by M. Bolte (UCSC) & A. Sheinis (UW-Madison) and others cited along the way.

Lecture Outline

I. Introduction

- ✓ Course overview and summary
- Why astronomy is different
- Properties of light and astronomical information
- Astronomical foregrounds and backgrounds
- Large telescopes: overview

II. Fluxes & magnitude systems

- Luminosity & flux
- The *neper*: photons
- Magnitudes & magnitude errors
- Astronomical magnitude systems



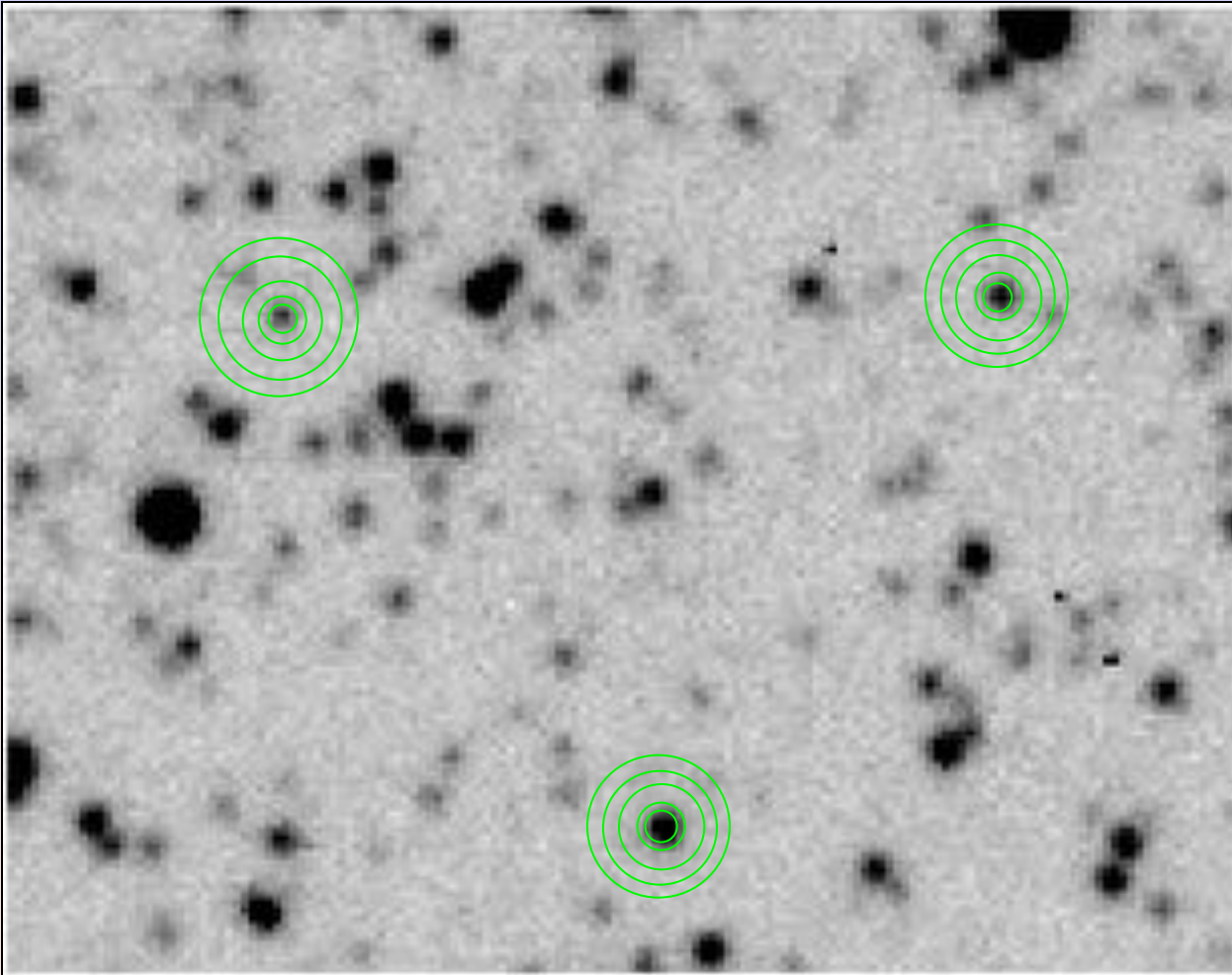
Astronomy is different

- Universe is both laboratory and specimen.
- We can only observe, no interaction: passive data collection.
- Have only the properties of light as information carrier
- Cannot measure *distances* directly, must infer from the measurement of light and astrophysically motivated inference.
- Limited to phenomena occurring in the past, but there is a time domain, i.e., repeat observations.
- Must take, and then interpret “snapshots.”
- Telescopes and their instruments are our cameras.

Properties of light

- Intensity: flux, irradiance, amplitude
- Position: Angle of arrival, image
- Color: wavelength(frequency)-dependent amplitude (spectral energy distribution)
- Angular momentum: spin, polarization
- Frequency (time): variability of any of the above
- Phase: interferometry (radio, adaptive optics)

Images

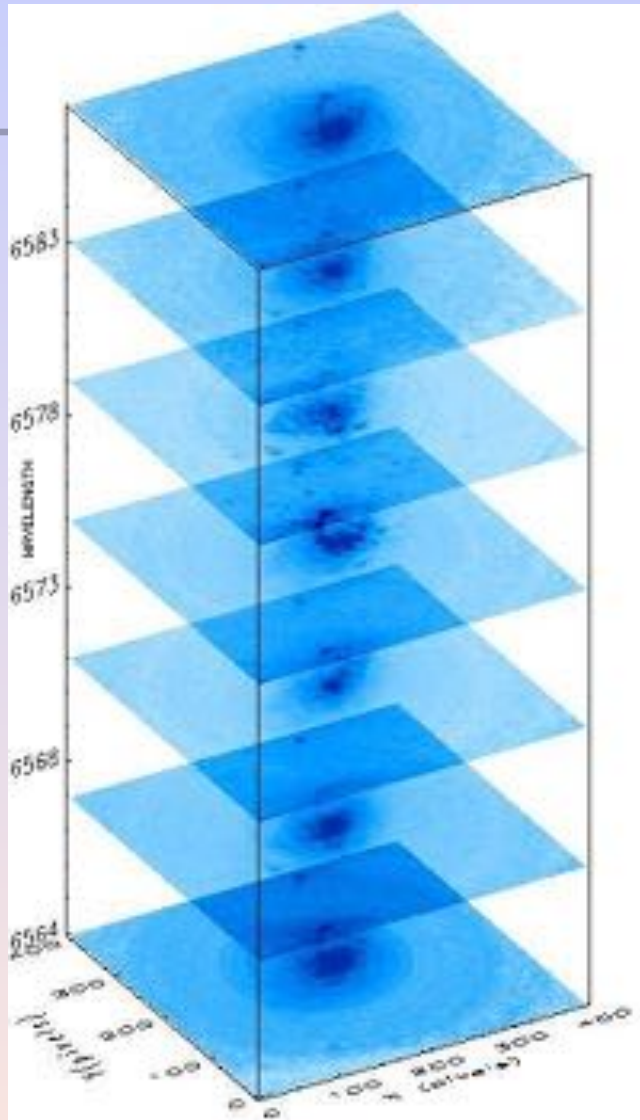


- Intensity
- Position
- Size & shape
- Color
- Polarization
- Variability

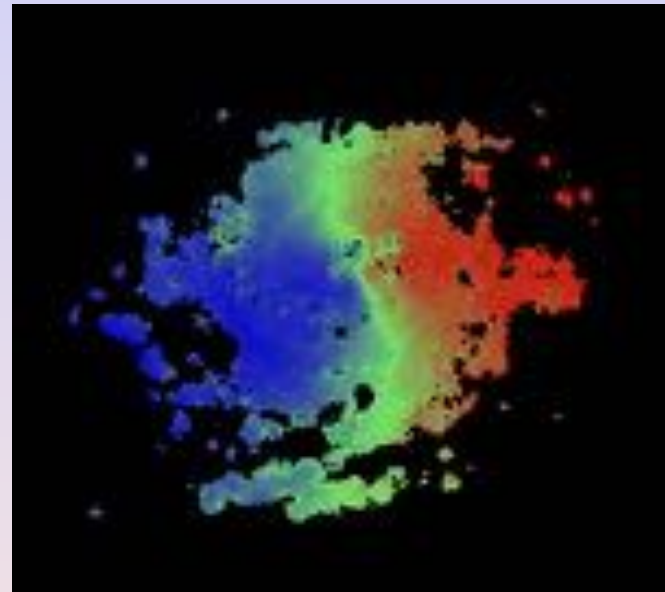
Stellar Spectra

- Temperature
- Pressure
- Kinematics:
 - Rotation
 - Turbulence
 - Pulsation
- Abundances
- Variability

3D Spectra



Fabry-Perot data cube



Color-coded
velocity map

A few good numbers...

$$m \times 10^{-6} = \text{cm} \times 10^{-4} = \text{mm} \times 10^{-3} = \mu\text{m} = \text{nm} \times 10^3 = \text{\AA} \times 10^4$$

- Solar black-body peak: $0.5\mu\text{m}$, 500 nm , 5000 \AA
- Silicon band-gap (red-limit CCD): $1\mu\text{m}$
- Thermal IR-limit: $2.3\text{-}2.4\mu\text{m}$
- Wien's law: $\lambda_{\text{BB}} (\mu\text{m}) = 2900/T(\text{Kelvin})$
- HI line-emission (neutral Hydrogen spin-flip):
 $\lambda = 21 \text{ cm}$, $\nu = 1.4 \text{ GHz}$
- HII line-emission:

$\text{B}\alpha = 4.05\mu\text{m}$	Brackett
$\text{P}\alpha = 1.87 \mu\text{m}$	Paschen
$\text{H}\alpha = 656 \text{ nm}$	Balmer
$\text{H}\beta = 486 \text{ nm}$	
$\text{Ly}\alpha = 121.6 \text{ nm}$	Lyman

...more good numbers later.

Foregrounds & Backgrounds

Foregrounds

ground

- Airglow (molecular and thermal)
- Atmospheric scattered light (solar & terrestrial)

space

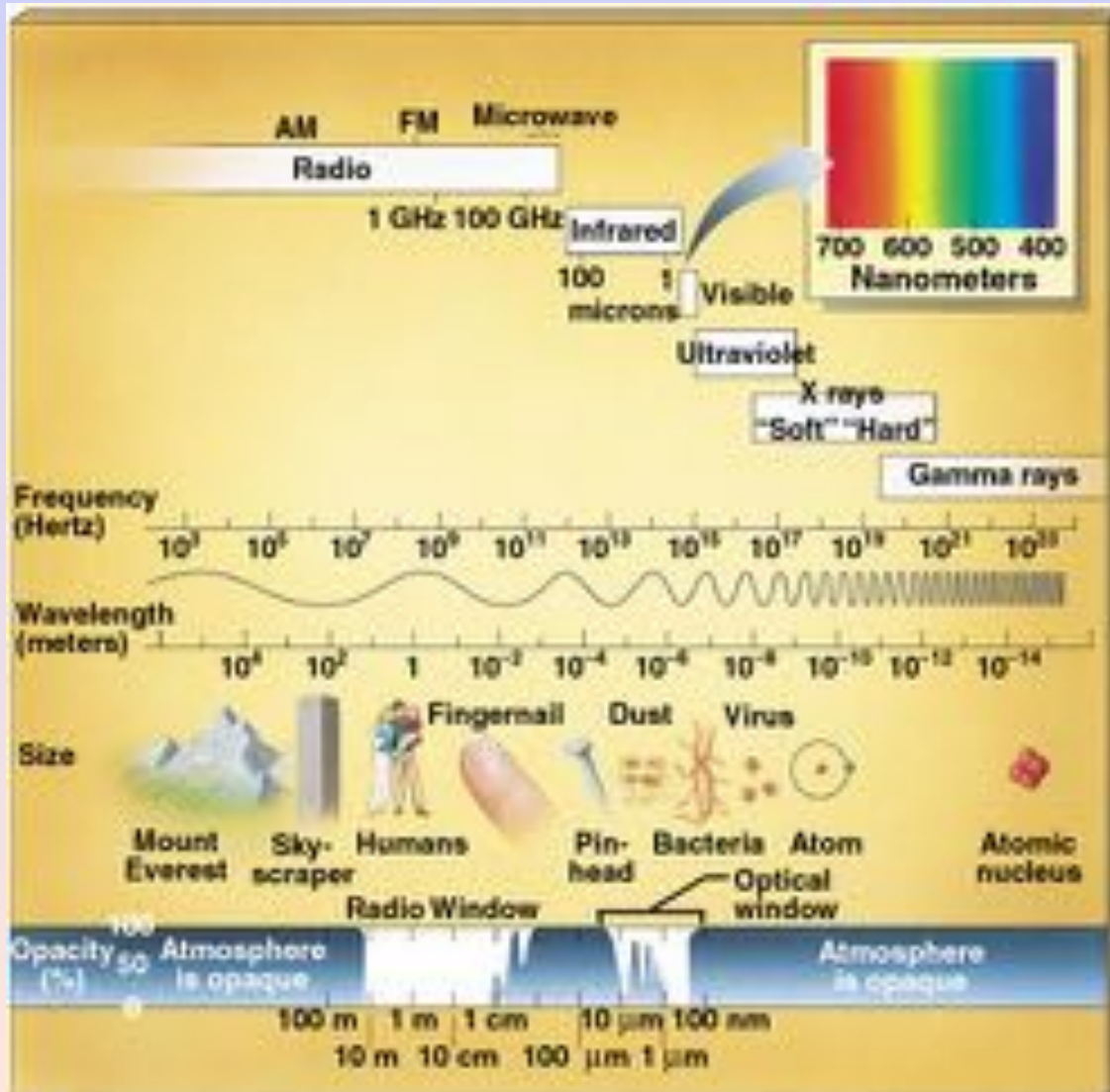
- Zodiacal light (solar light scattered off interstellar dust)

- Galactic stars and gas
- Nearby galaxies
- Distant galaxies
- CMBR

Backgrounds

Emission

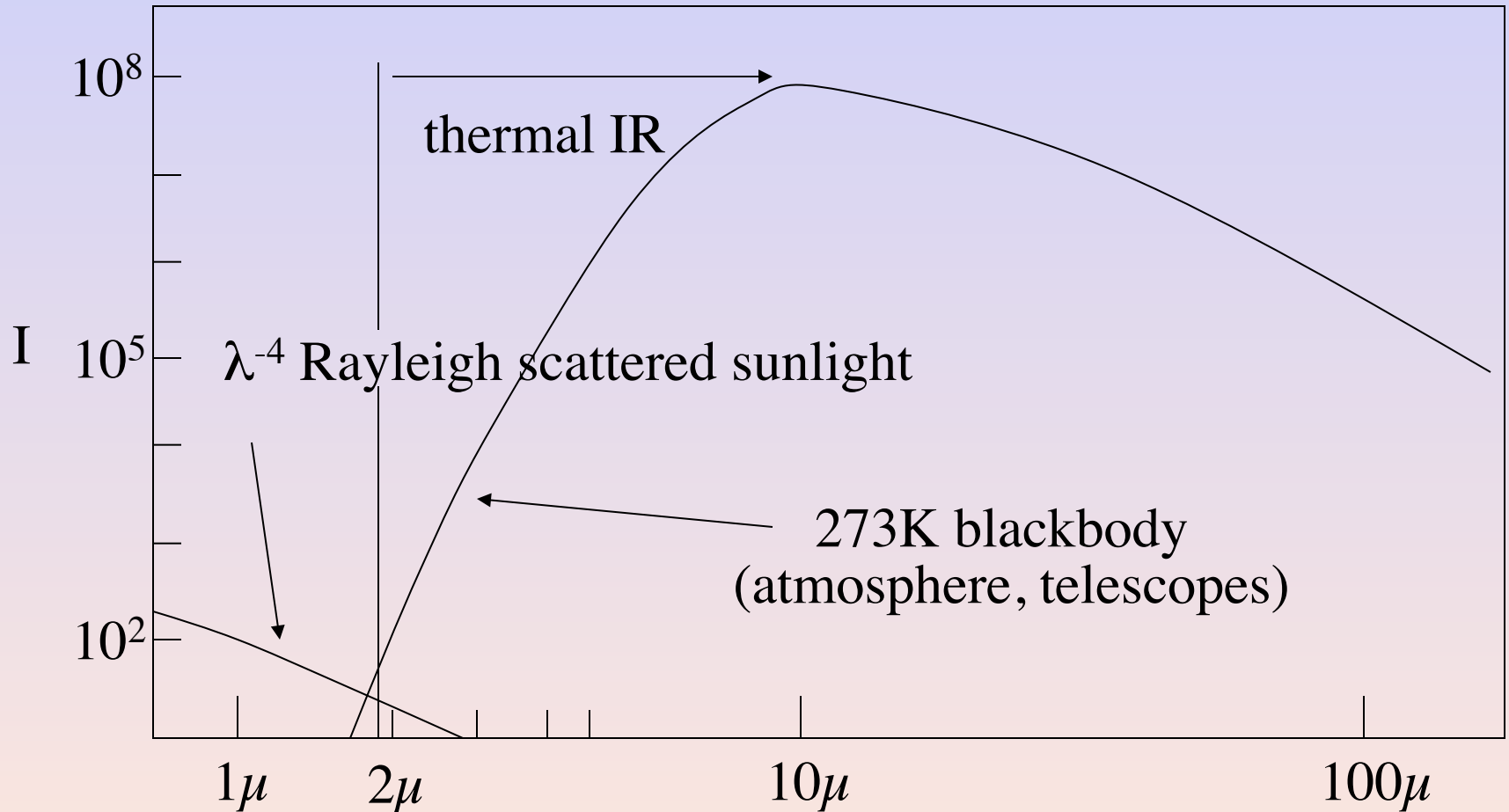
Foregrounds: extinction too!



Scattering & absorption

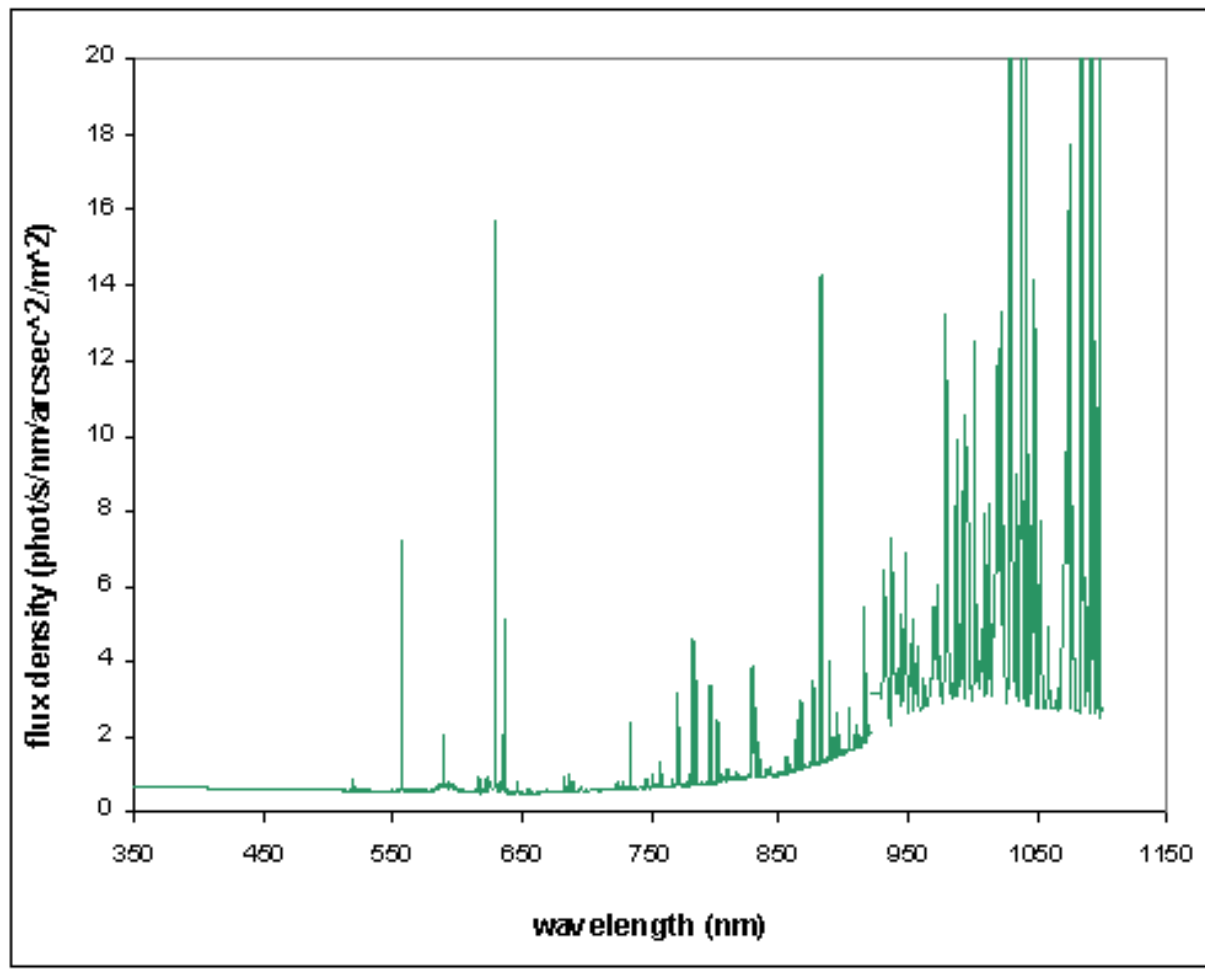
- Atmosphere
- Galactic dust & gas
- Distant galaxies
- Intergalactic dust & gas

Terrestrial Foregrounds

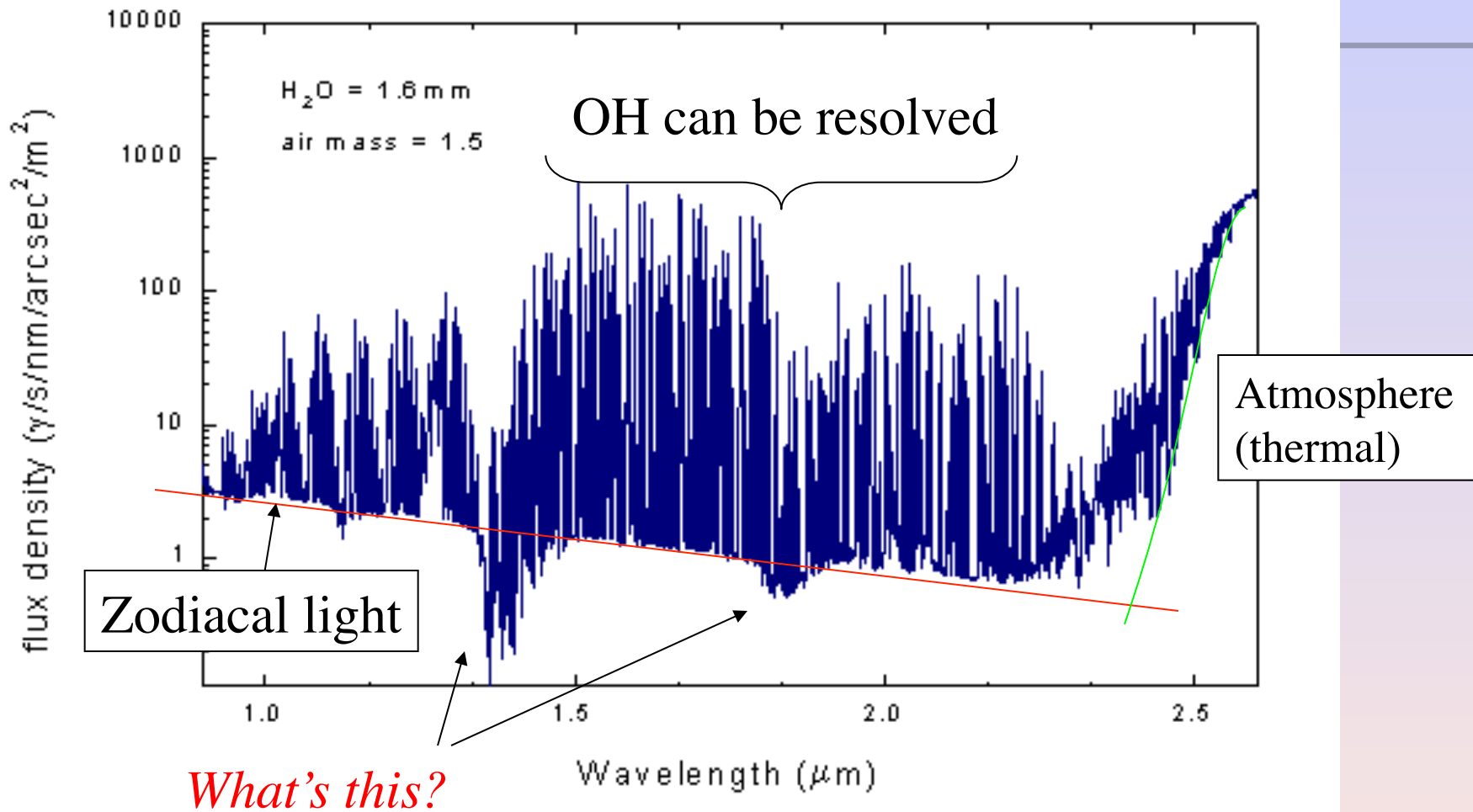


Scattered light and thermal emission

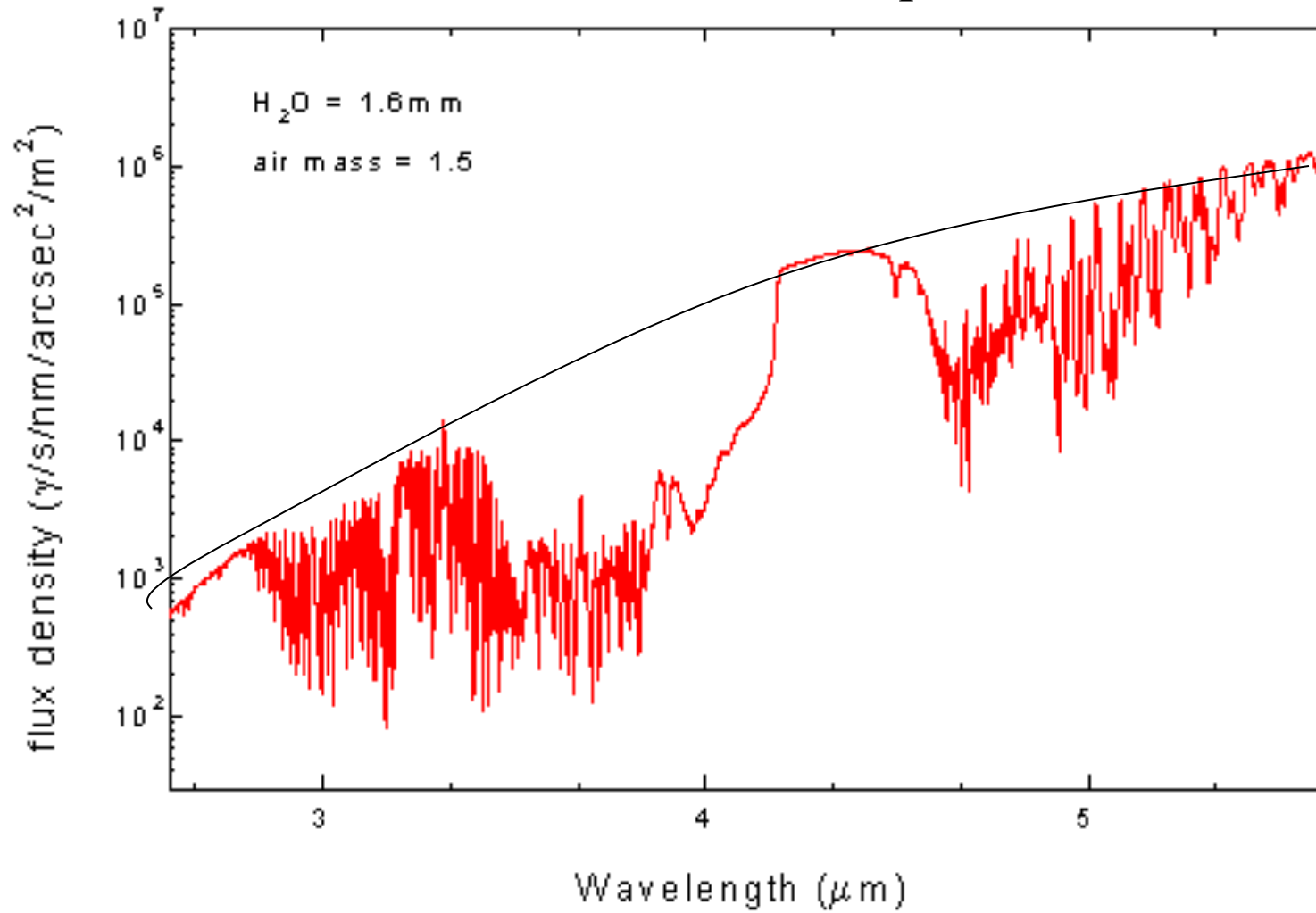
Terrestrial Foregrounds

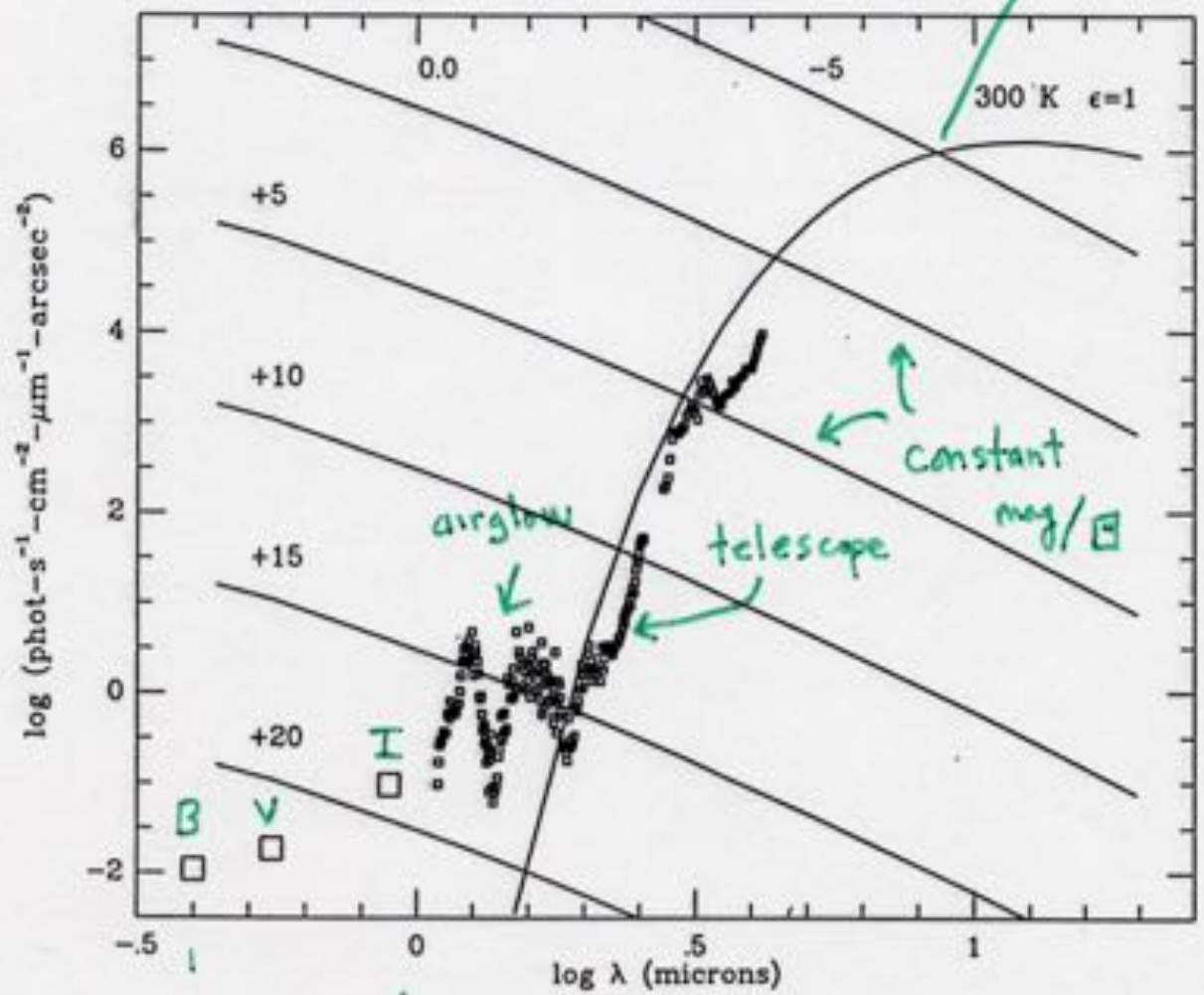


Atmospheric molecular emission: time, position, and λ dependent



Note vertical scales on plots!





at 10 μ
 sky = brightest
 astro sources!

0.4 μ 1 μ 3.2 μ 10 μ

Large Telescopes

- Light buckets ...
- Only two (Keck I and II) available in the 90's
- Several available at the turn of the century (the 4 VLT units, Gemini North and South, Subaru, HET)
- Three more on-line now: SALT, LBT, GTC
- and building begun already for 30-50m telescopes...

Telescopes: $D \geq 5\text{m}$

Table 1.1

Name	Diameter	Nationality of Sponsors	Site	Built
• (SALT)	11.0 m	South Africa, USA, UK, Germany, Poland, New Zealand	South Africa	2005
• (GTC)	10.4 m	Spain	Roque de los Muchachos Observatory, Canary Islands	2005
• Keck 1	9.8 m	USA	Mauna Kea Observatory, Hawaii	1993
• Keck 2	9.8 m	USA	Mauna Kea Observatory, Hawaii	1996
• (HET)	9.2 m	USA, Germany	McDonald Observatory, Texas	1997
• (LBT)	2x8.4 m	USA, Italy, Germany	Mount Graham Arizona	2004
• Subaru (NLT)	8.3 m	Japan	Mauna Kea Observatory, Hawaii	1999
• VLT 1 (Antu)	8.2 m	ESO Countries (European + Chile)	Paranal Observatory, Chile	1998
• VLT 2 (Kueyen)	8.2 m	ESO Countries (European + Chile)	Paranal Observatory, Chile	1999
• VLT 3 (Melipal)	8.2 m	ESO Countries (European + Chile)	Paranal Observatory, Chile	2000
• VLT 4 (Yepun)	8.2 m	ESO Countries (European + Chile)	Paranal Observatory, Chile	2001
• Gemini North	8.1 m	USA, UK, Canada, Chile, Australia,	Mauna Kea Observatory, Hawaii	1999
• Gemini South	8.1 m	USA, UK, Canada, Chile, Australia,	Cerro Tololo Observatory, Chile	2001
• MMT	6.5 m	USA	Fred Lawrence Whipple Observatory, Arizona	1999
• Magellan 1	6.5 m	USA	Las Campanas Observatory, Chile	2000
• Magellan 2	6.5 m	USA	Las Campanas Observatory, Chile	2002
• BTA-6	6 m	Russia	Zelenchukskaya, Caucasus	1976
• Large Zenith Telescope (LZT)	6 m	Canada, France	Maple Ridge, British Columbia	2003
• Hale Telescope	5 m	USA	Palomar Observatory, California	1948



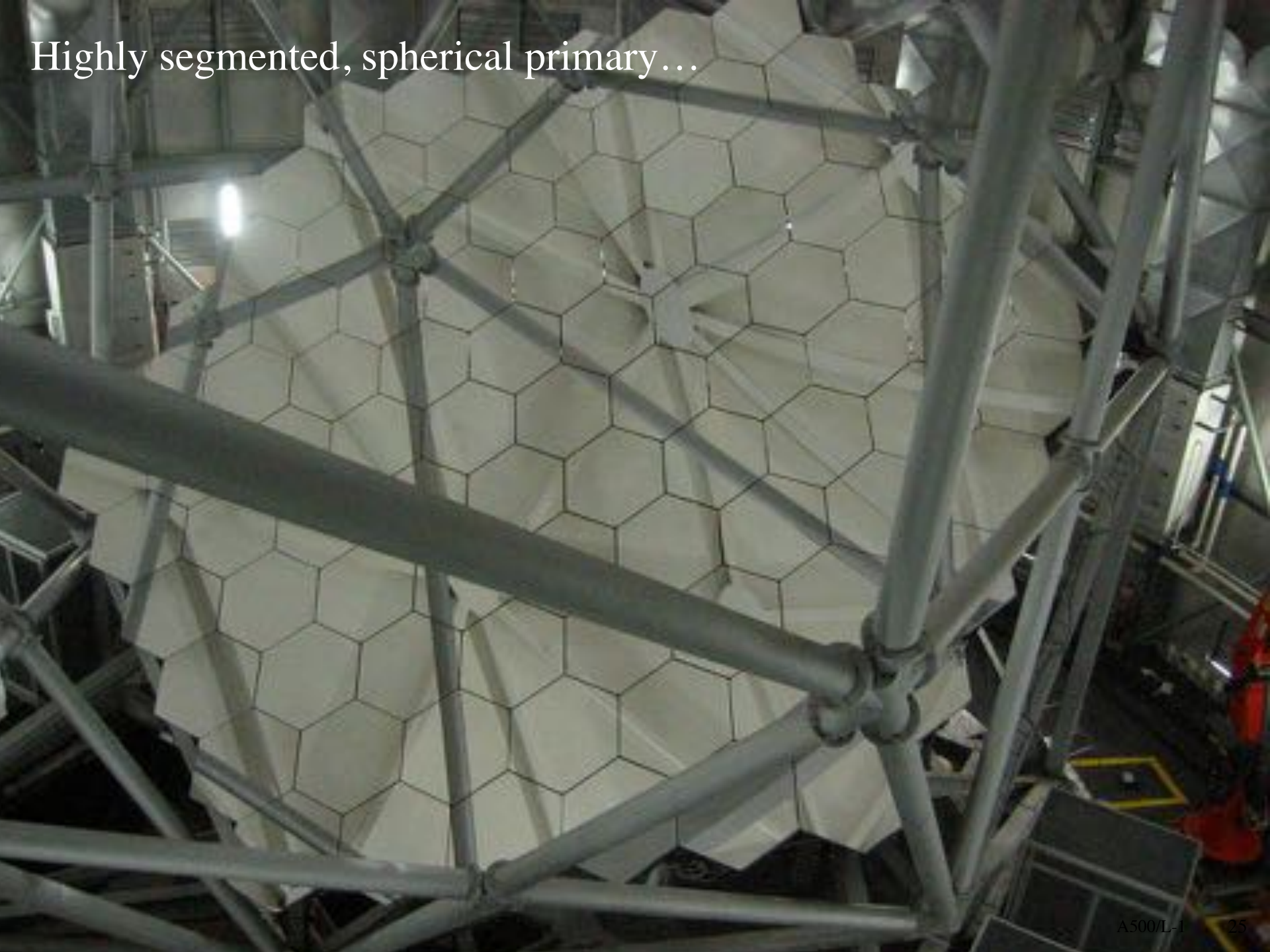
WIYN Telescope
monolithic spin-cast 3.5m

SALT

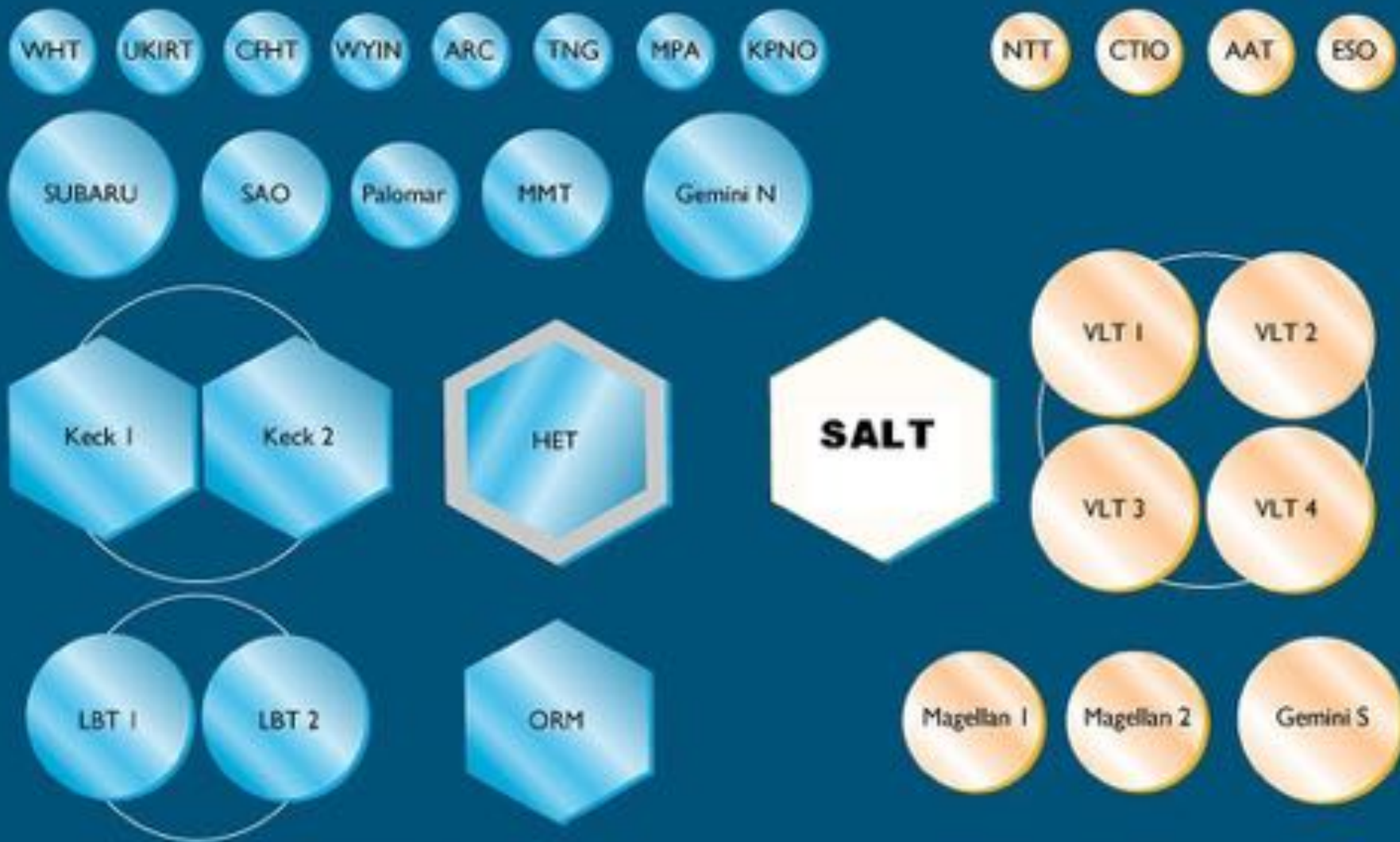
Southern African
Large Telescope



Highly segmented, spherical primary...



COLLECTING AREA OF THE LARGE TELESCOPES



Northern Hemisphere

Southern Hemisphere

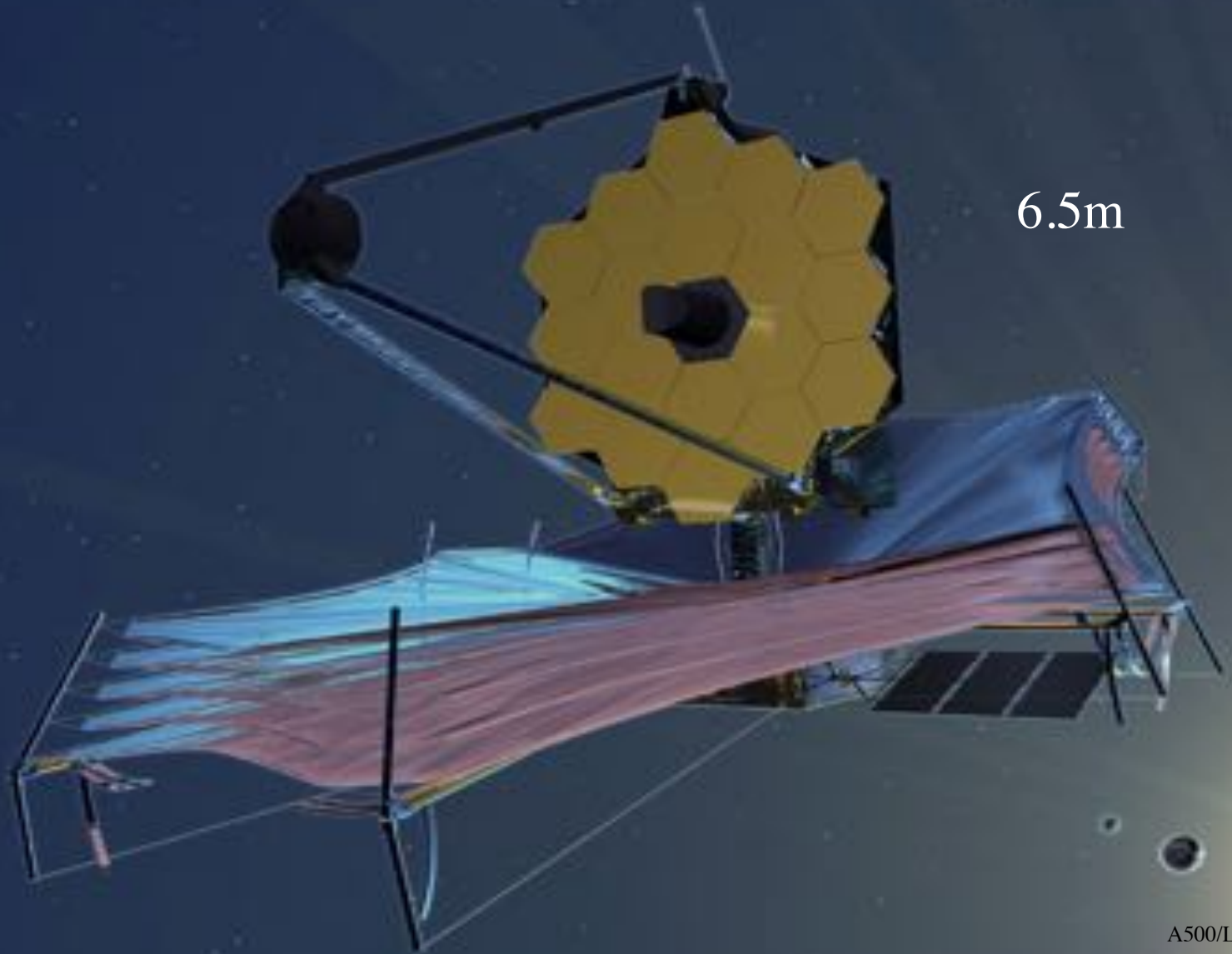
Future instruments

Ground-based 30m-class telescopes (TMT)

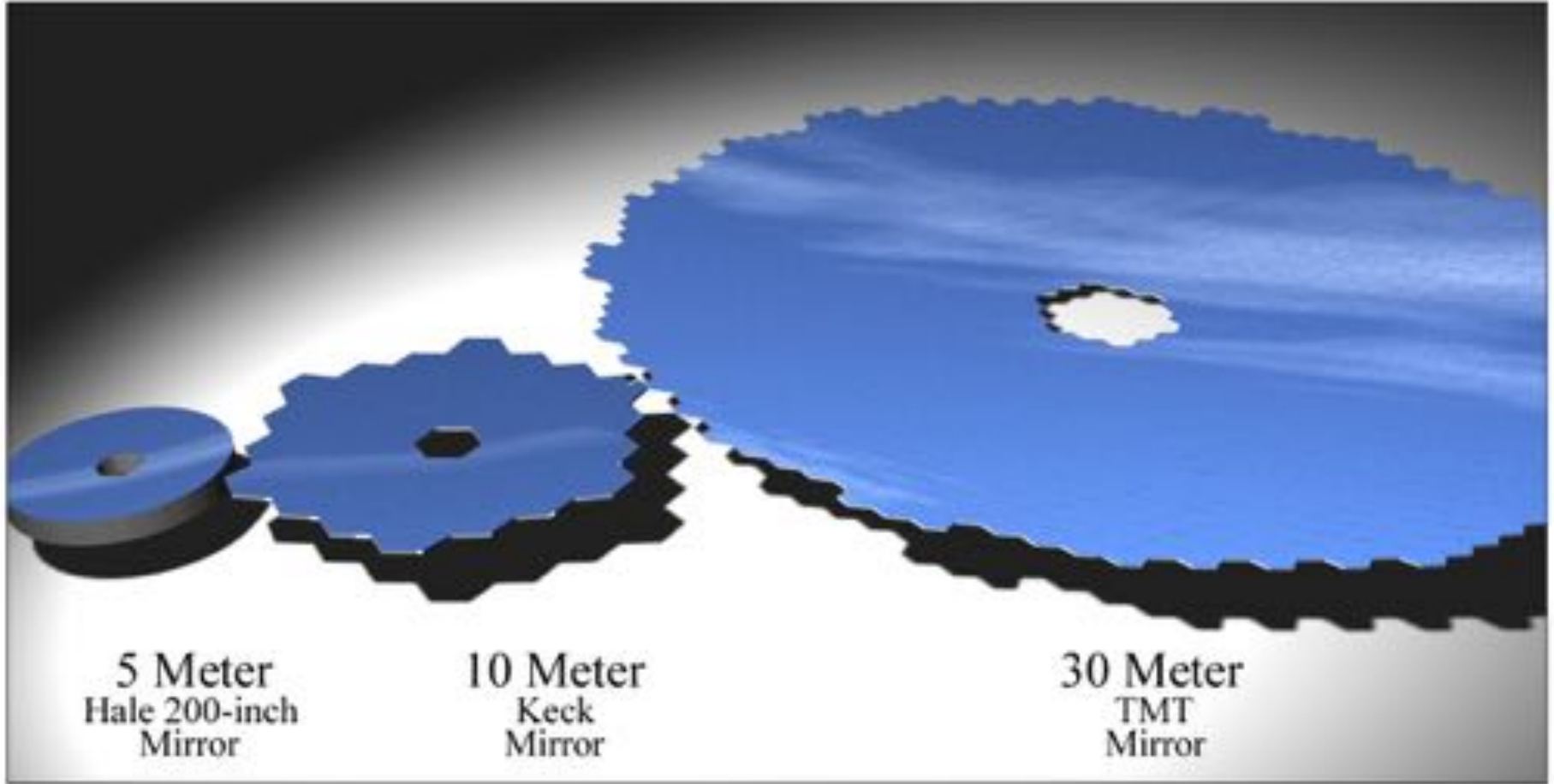


Future instruments

Space-based instruments: JWST



6.5m



For next time:

Take a look at the texts :
Start the reading
Evaluate and purchase

Recall: properties of light

- Intensity, flux, irradiance, amplitude
- Angle of arrival, position, image
- Wavelength, frequency, color
- Angular momentum, spin, polarization
- Time variation (in some cases)
- Phase (interferometry, radio, AO)

Total $E/t =$ Luminosity (L)

$$dE = L(t) dt$$

$$dE = L_\nu(t) d\nu dt$$

$$dE = L_\lambda(t) d\lambda dt$$

$L_\lambda, L_\nu =$ specific luminosity

All of the above are in units of energy flow per unit time, not photon flow rate.

Apparent Flux

$$dE_A = f_\nu dA d\nu dt$$

$$dE = f_\nu (4\pi R^2) d\nu dt = L_\nu d\nu dt$$

$$\therefore f_\nu = \frac{L_\nu}{(4\pi R^2)}$$

and similarly for L_λ and f_λ . Again, all of the above are in units of energy flow per unit time, not photon flow rate.

- Flux is energy incident on some area dA of the Earth's surface.
- Flux is not conserved and falls off as R^{-2} for a point source.

➤ *What about extended sources?*

Flux Units

- Flux (f_ν): measured in Janskys
 - $1 \text{ Jy} = 10^{-26} \text{ W m}^{-2} \text{ Hz}^{-1} = 10^{-23} \text{ erg sec}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ Hz}^{-1}$
- Flux (f_λ): measured in $\text{ergs s}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ (cgs units)
- Photon flux (f_γ) is useful for calculating signal-to-noise (counting statistics):

➤ Define *neper* = $\Delta\lambda/\lambda = \Delta\nu/\nu = \Delta\ln \nu$

➤ The photon flux is:

o $\text{photons sec}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ neper}^{-1} = f_\nu/h$

o where $h=6.6256 \times 10^{-27} \text{ erg sec}$

➤ Useful identify:

$$1 \text{ microJy} = \mu\text{Jy} = 15.1 \text{ photons sec}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ neper}^{-1}$$

Apparent magnitudes

$$m_1 - m_2 = -2.5 \log_{10} \left(\frac{f_1}{f_2} \right) = -a \ln \left(\frac{f_1}{f_2} \right)$$

$$a = 2.5 \log_{10} e = 1.08574$$

$$m = -2.5 \log_{10} \left(\frac{f_1}{f_0} \right) + m_0$$

f_n : the apparent flux of object n .

Pogson's ratio
(MNRAS, 1856, 17, 12)

Will drop "10"
here on out.

m_0 : zeropoint of the
magnitude system

$$f = f_0 \text{dexp}[-0.4(m - m_0)] \quad \longleftarrow \text{how to get your money back}$$

Absolute Magnitudes

$$m_\lambda - M_\lambda = 5 \log_{10} d - 5 + A_\lambda$$

$$\therefore \frac{f_1}{f_2} = \left(\frac{d_2}{d_1} \right)^2$$

- Absolute magnitude is the apparent magnitude that would be observed if the object were at a distance, d , of 10 pc.
- A_λ is the total extinction due to interstellar dust, in magnitudes, typically take to be only the Galactic foreground screen (Burstein & Heiles 1982, AJ, 87, 1165; Schlegel et al. 1998, ApJ, 500, 525):

HI →

- $f = f_0 \exp(-\tau_\lambda)$,
- $A_\lambda = 1.086 \tau_\lambda = -2.5 \log(f/f_0)$

← IRAS

Absolute Magnitudes

- For extragalactic observers: d in Mpc, plus the so-called k -correction, κ , which accounts for effects of the cosmological expansion
 - 1) effects of redshifting the rest-frame spectrum in the observed band-pass; and
 - 2) photon dilution.

$$m_{\lambda} - M_{\lambda} = 5 \log_{10} d + 25 + A_{\lambda} + \kappa_{\lambda}$$

See, e.g.: Schneider, Gunn & Hoessel (1983, ApJ, 264, 337)

Magnitude Errors: $S/N \Leftrightarrow \delta\text{mag}$

$$\begin{aligned}
 m \pm \delta(m) &= m_o - 2.5 \log(S \pm N) \\
 &= m_o - 2.5 \log\left[S\left(1 \pm \frac{N}{S}\right)\right] \\
 &= \underbrace{m_o - 2.5 \log(S)}_m - \underbrace{2.5 \log\left(1 \pm \frac{N}{S}\right)}_{\delta m}
 \end{aligned}$$

What happens when $S/N < 1$?

$$\delta(m) \approx 2.5 \log\left(1 + \frac{1}{S/N}\right)$$

Note: in log +/- not symmetric

$$= \frac{2.5}{2.3} \left[\frac{N}{S} - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{N}{S}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{N}{S}\right)^3 - \dots \right]$$

$$\approx 1.086 \left(\frac{N}{S}\right) \longleftrightarrow \text{Fractional error}$$

This is the basis of people referring to +/- 0.02mag error as “2%”

An alternate magnitude scheme

- **The inverse hyperbolic sine:** Lupton et al. (1999, AJ, 118, 1406)
- Replace log with asinh (i.e., \sinh^{-1})
- Invented to handle errors at low S/N

Definition of asinh mag (μ):

$$m = m_0 - 2.5 \log f,$$

$$x \equiv f/f_0,$$

$$\mu(x) \equiv -a \left[\sinh^{-1} \left(\frac{x}{2b} \right) + \ln b \right].$$

Limiting behaviour:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \mu(x) = -a \ln x = m, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \mu(x) = -a \left(\frac{x}{2b} + \ln b \right).$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mu &= (m_0 - 2.5 \log b') - a \sinh^{-1} (f/2b') \\ &\equiv \mu(0) - a \sinh^{-1} (f/2b'), \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Var}(\mu) = \frac{a^2 \sigma'^2}{4b'^2 + f^2} \approx \frac{a^2 \sigma'^2}{4b'^2},$$

➤ $a = 2.5 \log e$
➤ b is a softening parameter that depends on data noise properties -- *this is the boon and the problem.*

Asinh magnitudes: Noise Properties

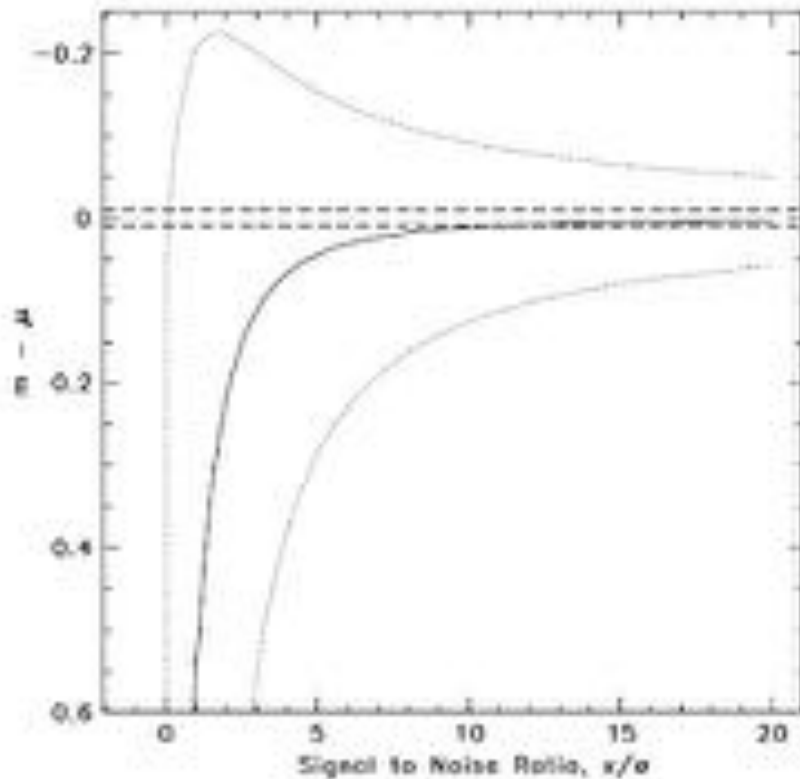


FIG. 1.—Behavior of $m - \mu$ as a function of signal-to-noise ratio x/σ . The solid line is the value of $m - \mu$ and the region between the dotted lines corresponds to the $\pm 1 \sigma$ error region for m . The dashed lines are drawn at ± 0.01 .

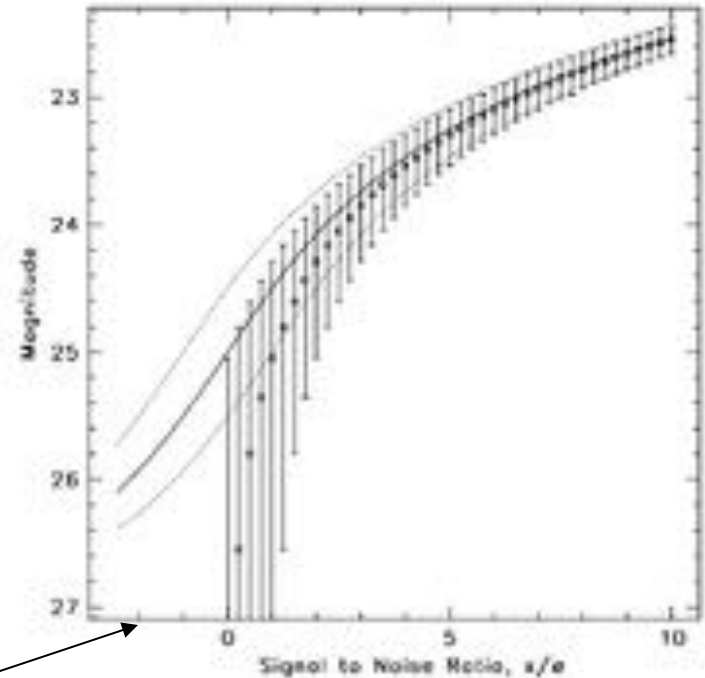


FIG. 2.—Behavior of m and μ and their respective errors as a function of signal-to-noise ratio x/σ . The solid line is the value of μ , and the region between the dotted lines is its $\pm 1 \sigma$ error region; the points with error bars are the classical magnitudes m . We have arbitrarily chosen a zero point of $\mu = 25.0$ for an object with no flux. One other feature of our modified magnitudes is apparent from this figure, namely, that the error band on μ is nearly symmetrical, while the error in m are strongly skewed at faint magnitudes. For signal-to-noise ratios of less than about 2, $m - \mu$ exceeds the value $0.52 [\text{Var}(m)]^{1/2}$ quoted in the main body of the paper; this is because of the breakdown of the linear approximation used to calculate m 's variance.

Note: negative fluxes “allowed” for asinh