## Spéctral line imaging

Reference*s:

The AST 203 notes
D.E. Osterbrock \& G.J.

Ferland 2006, Astrophysics of gaseous nebulae and active galactic nuclei, chapters 1-4.

The CHIANTI atomic database
D.S. Goldman 2013, Narrowband imaging. In Lessons from themasters, ed R. Gendler (New York: Springer), pp, 115-130.

Lesson 5

## Spectral line imaging at visible and infrared wavelengths

All spectroscopy involves the use of interference to distinguish one wavelength from another.

- The larger the phase difference between signals - or path-length difference, in most of our applications - the more finely wavelengths can be discriminated.
$\square$ Spectral resolution $\Delta \lambda / \lambda$ at wavelength $\lambda$ is characterized by the instrument's bandwidth $\Delta \lambda$ for a truly monochromatic signal.
- Two signals at wavelengths separated by $\geq \Delta \lambda$ are resolved; otherwise they're unresolved.



## Interference filters

This semester we use multilayer dielectric interference filters, in front of the CCD, to make spectral line images.

- See the AST 203 notes to learn how these are designed and built.
- Upside: compact, extremely uniform in transmission and bandwidth.
- Downside: non-adjustable; hard to get high enough spectral resolution to isolate single lines; not the ultimate in sensitivity.

- In some wavelength ranges one has to have extra filters set for an off-line wavelength, to subtract continuum emission.


## Spectrographs

More sophisticated and more wavelength-selective instruments:


Number of spectral resolution elements covered

## Spectrographs (continued)

Use of detector arrays with such instruments:


## Scanning Fabry-Pérot interferometer

Best for high-resolution imaging of single lines or line profiles.
$\square$ High-reflectivity $(r)$, lowabsorption, parallel mirrors whose (wide) optical separation nd can be controlled and scanned precisely.


Each pixel sees $\lambda$ at resolution $\Delta \lambda / \lambda$, where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{2 \pi d n \cos \theta_{t}}{\lambda}=\pi m \quad(m=0,1,2, \ldots) \\
& \frac{\Delta \lambda}{\lambda}=\frac{1}{m Q} \\
& \text { and } Q=\frac{\pi r}{1-r^{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Scanning Fabry-Pérot interferometer (continued)

- Usually a sequence of 2-3 FPIs must be used, to isolate a single large- $m$ order of the scanning one.



## Long-slit grating spectrograph

Best for point sources, or objects in which only one spatial dimension is important.

- Detector array sees a long wavelength span at pixel along a 1-D strip of the sky.
- Spectrograph's entrance slit usually 2-10 pixels wide, adjustable for seeing at the cost of spectral resolution.
- Can only make spectral images by stepping the telescope in the direction perpendicular to the
 entrance slit, hopefully by a fraction of the slit width per step. (Doesn't work great.)


## Integral field spectrograph (continued)

Best for full spectra of each pixel in a relatively small neighborhood around a compact object.

- Optically slice up the 2-d field, and image each slice along a different segment of the slit of a grating spectrograph.
- Then reconstruct the data cube after detection.
- Invented by Ira Bowen in the 1930s, before CCDs or computers.



## Integral field spectrograph (continued)

- Current implementations feature
- lenslet arrays, relaying the image to an
- optical fiber bundle, used to
- rearrange the image along the spectrograph slit, whence
- it is detected in long-slit mode,
 and
- reconstructed via computer.
- No light lost at slit due to seeing variation, tracking errors, etc. Thus it's great for precision wideband spectra of point sources (i.e. exoplanets).


## Imaging Michelson interferometer

Ideally, the best of all: full field imaging, and high-resolution spectra in every pixel.

- Input light is divided with a beamsplitter.
- Half the light is reflected from a stationary mirror...
[ the other half from a mirror that can move.
- The light joins up again at the beamsplitter, but half of it has an extra
 path-length difference from the other half.
- This light is focused on the detector array.


## Imaging Michelson interferometer (continued)

- The movable mirror is scanned repeatedly over a fixed range.
- Array signal (each pixel) is recorded during the scan, such that the range is sampled finely.
- Average these scan recordings and Fourier-transform the result, and one gets a complete spectrum at every pixel.
- Wavelength coverage is determined by the sampling rate.

- Resolution is determined by maximum path-length difference:

$$
\frac{\Delta \lambda}{\lambda}=\frac{\lambda}{4 d} .
$$

## Imaging Michelson interferometer (continued)

Down sides:

- Much more complicated than other options; many more challenging highprecision control systems are necessary.
- Thus, expensive.
- Vulnerable to additional sources of noise and systematic error.
- So there aren't many around, yet. One such is SITELLE at the 4-meter Canada-France-Hawaii telescope, which covers the whole visible band (in six chunks) and achieves $\Delta \lambda / \lambda \sim 10^{-4}$ in a $2048 \times 2048$ pixel, 11-arcmin square field.


Le Spectromètre Imageur à Transformée de Fourier pour l'Étude en Long et en Large des raies d'Émission.

## Spectral lines of atoms and ions at visible wavelengths

In this class we will be concerned with electronic transitions of atoms and ions. They comprise the visible emission from H II regions, planetary nebulae, supernova remnants, and HH objects.

- Recombination lines of hydrogen (HI)
- Electric dipole transitions, after recombination in a high- $n$ state.
- Forbidden lines of other elements, like $\mathrm{O}, \mathrm{O}^{+}, \mathrm{O}^{++}$or $\mathrm{S}^{+} .$.
- ...whose forbidden-line spectra are referred to as [O I], [O II], [O III] and [S II], respectively.

| Z | Name | Ionization potential (eV) |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | 0 | + | ++ | +++ | ++++ |
|  | H | 13.6 |  |  |  |  |
|  | 2 He | 24.6 | 54.4 |  |  |  |
|  | Li | 5.4 | 75.6 | 122.5 |  |  |
|  | Be | 9.3 | 18.2 | 153.9 | 217.7 |  |
|  | B | 8.3 | 25.2 | 37.9 | 259.4 | 340.2 |
|  | 6 | 11.3 | 24.4 | 47.9 | 64.5 | 392.1 |
|  | N | 14.5 | 29.6 | 47.4 | 77.5 | 97.9 |
|  | 0 | 13.6 | 35.1 | 54.9 | 77.4 | 113.9 |
|  | F | 17.4 | 35.0 | 62.7 | 87.1 | 114.2 |
|  | Ne | 21.6 | 41.0 | 63.5 | 97.1 | 126.2 |
|  | Na | 5.1 | 47.3 | 71.6 | 98.9 | 138.4 |
|  | Mg | 7.6 | 15.0 | 80.1 | 109.3 | 141.3 |
|  | AI | 6.0 | 18.8 | 28.4 | 120.0 | 153.8 |
|  | Si | 8.2 | 16.3 | 33.5 | 45.1 | 166.8 |
| 15 | P | 10.5 | 19.8 | 30.2 | 51.4 | 65.0 |
| 16 | S | 10.4 | 23.3 | 34.8 | 47.2 | 72.6 |
| 17 | Cl | 13.0 | 23.8 | 39.6 | 53.5 | 67.8 |
|  | Ar | 15.8 | 27.6 | 40.7 | 59.8 | 75.0 |
| 19 | K | 4.3 | 31.6 | 45.8 | 60.9 | 82.7 |
|  | Ca | 6.1 | 11.9 | 50.9 | 67.3 | 84.5 |
|  | Sc | 6.6 | 12.8 | 24.8 | 73.5 | 91.7 |
| 22 | Ti | 6.8 | 13.6 | 27.5 | 43.3 | 99.3 |
| 23 | V | 6.7 | 14.7 | 29.3 | 46.7 | 65.3 |
|  | Cr | 6.8 | 16.5 | 31.0 | 49.2 | 69.5 |
|  | Mn | 7.4 | 15.6 | 33.7 | 51.2 | 72.4 |
|  | Fe | 7.9 | 16.2 | 30.7 | 54.8 | 75.0 |
| 27 | Co | 7.9 | 17.1 | 33.5 | 51.3 | 79.5 |
|  | Ni | 7.6 | 18.2 | 35.2 | 54.9 | 76.1 |

## The ions on our menu

Lowest-energy states of the ground electronic configurations of O++ and S+, compared to the states of H .

- Note the scale difference between the two plots.
- Only the brightest visible lines are shown.



## Step 1 of analysis, short form

The main point of the H II region and HH object projects is to make images of the abundance ratios $\chi_{\mathrm{O}_{++}}=n\left(\mathrm{O}^{++}\right) / n(\mathrm{H})$ and $\chi_{\mathrm{S}_{+}}=n\left(\mathrm{~S}^{+}\right) / n(\mathrm{H})$.

Answers will be very different for the two classes of objects, which you should seek to explain.

The intensity of an optically-thin $j$ to $i$ hydrogen recombination line is given, apart from extinction, by

$$
I_{j i}=\frac{h c}{4 \pi \lambda_{j i}} \alpha_{j i} \int n_{e} n_{p} d s
$$

where $I_{j i}$ is the intensity in erg sec${ }^{-1} \mathrm{~cm}^{-2} \operatorname{ster}^{-1}$ (which you measure);
$\lambda_{j i} \quad$ is the wavelength;
$\alpha_{j i}(T)$ is the effective recombination coefficient, in $\mathrm{cm}^{3} \mathrm{sec}^{-1}$,
calculated quantum-mechanically;
$n_{e}, n_{p}$ are number per unit volume of electrons and protons;
and the integral is over distance $s$ along the line of sight through the nebula.

## Step 1 short form (continued)

- Our recombination line, $\mathrm{H} \alpha(j=3, i=2)$, can safely be taken to be optically thin.

The [O III] and [S II] lines are not recombination lines; they are collisionally excited.

- Meaning that electrons collide with these ions in their ground state, and leave them in the upper state of the line...
- whereupon the ion radiates a photon, or collides with another electron, to get back to the ground state.
- We see the photons that are radiated. The optically-thin intensity of the $j$ to $i$ transition is

$$
I_{j i}=\frac{h c}{4 \pi \lambda_{j i}} A_{j i} \int n_{j} d s=\frac{h c}{4 \pi \lambda_{j i}} A_{j i} \int f_{j} \chi n_{p} d s
$$

- These lines can be taken to be optically thin as well.


## Step 1 short form (continued)

- Here
$A_{j i}$ is the spontaneous radiation rate (Einstein A coefficient) in sec ${ }^{-1}$;
$n_{j} \quad$ is the number density of the ion in state $j$;
$f_{j} \quad$ is the fraction of the ion's population in state $j ;$
$\chi$ is the ratio of the ion's number density to that of hydrogen;
other terms are as before, and again the integral is over distance $s$ along the line of sight through the nebula.
- We know none of the properties of the nebula a priori. Well, almost none: we know that hydrogen densities more than about $n_{p}=10000 \mathrm{~cm}^{-3}$ are very rare outside of neutral molecular clouds.
- This should be compared to the critical density of each forbidden line: the density at which the rates of radiative and collisional decay of the upper state are equal.


## Step 1 short form (continued)

- If the actual density is much smaller than the critical density, the fraction of the ions in the upper state is given by

$$
f_{j}=\frac{n_{e} \gamma_{i j}}{A_{j i}}
$$

where $\gamma_{i j}(T)$ is the collisional excitation rate coefficient in $\mathrm{cm}^{3} \mathrm{sec}^{-1}$ of state $j$. $\gamma_{i j}$ is also calculated quantum-mechanically.

- This is generally a good approximation for visible forbidden lines. In which case the intensity ratio of a forbidden line and a hydrogen recombination line determines the relative abundance $\chi$ : for example, if $\chi$ is uniform along the line of sight,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& I_{\mathrm{H} \alpha}=\frac{h c}{4 \pi \lambda_{\mathrm{H} \alpha}} \alpha_{\mathrm{H} \alpha} \int n_{e} n_{p} d s, \quad I_{[\mathrm{O} \text { III }]}=\frac{h c}{4 \pi \lambda_{\mathrm{O} \text { III] }}} A_{j i} \frac{n_{e} \gamma_{[\mathrm{OIII}]}}{A_{j i}} \chi_{\mathrm{O}^{++}} n_{p} d s ; \\
& \Rightarrow \chi_{\mathrm{O}^{++}}=\frac{\lambda_{\mathrm{HOIII}]}}{\lambda_{\mathrm{H} \alpha}} \frac{\alpha_{\mathrm{H} \alpha}}{\gamma_{[\mathrm{O} \text { III }]}} \frac{\left.I_{[\mathrm{O}} \mathrm{III}\right]}{I_{\mathrm{H} \alpha}} . \quad \begin{array}{l}
\text { The integral } \\
\text { cancelled out. }
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Step 1 short form (continued)

- The only other nuance is that our [S II] filter includes two [S II] lines of similar strength that we can't resolve.
$\square$ But this just adds one more term proportional to the $\mathrm{S}^{+}$abundance:

$$
\begin{aligned}
I_{\mathrm{H} \alpha} & =\frac{h c}{4 \pi \lambda_{\mathrm{H} \alpha}} \alpha_{\mathrm{H} \alpha} \int n_{e} n_{p} d s \\
I_{[\mathrm{S} \mathrm{II}]} & =\frac{h c}{4 \pi \lambda_{[\mathrm{S} \mathrm{II}] 1}} \int n_{e} \gamma_{[\mathrm{S} \mathrm{II}] 1} \chi_{\mathrm{S}^{+}} n_{p} d s+\frac{h c}{4 \pi \lambda_{\mathrm{SS} \mathrm{II}] 2}} \int n_{e} \gamma_{[\mathrm{S} \mathrm{II}] 2} \chi_{\mathrm{S}^{+}} n_{p} d s \\
& =\left(\frac{\gamma_{[\mathrm{S} \mathrm{II}] 1}}{\lambda_{[\mathrm{S} \mathrm{II}] 1}}+\frac{\gamma_{[\mathrm{S} \mathrm{II}] 2}}{\lambda_{[\mathrm{S} \mathrm{II}] 2}}\right) \frac{h c}{4 \pi} \chi_{\mathrm{S}^{+}} \int n_{e} n_{p} d s ; \\
\chi_{\mathrm{S}^{+}} & =\left(\frac{\gamma_{[\mathrm{S} \mathrm{II}] 1}}{\lambda_{[\mathrm{S} \mathrm{II}] 1}}+\frac{\gamma_{[\mathrm{S} \mathrm{II}] 2}}{\lambda_{[\mathrm{S} \mathrm{II}] 2}}\right)^{-1} \frac{\alpha_{\mathrm{H} \alpha}}{\lambda_{\mathrm{H} \alpha}} \frac{I_{[\mathrm{S} \mathrm{II}]}}{I_{\mathrm{H} \alpha}}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Step 1 short form (continued)

- The numbers you need are

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\gamma_{[\mathrm{S} \mathrm{II}] 1}=6.514 \times 10^{-9} \mathrm{~cm}^{3} \mathrm{sec}^{-1} & \gamma_{[\mathrm{OIII}]}=1.133 \times 10^{-9} \mathrm{~cm}^{3} \mathrm{sec}^{-1} \\
\gamma_{[\mathrm{S} \mathrm{II}] 2}=9.702 \times 10^{-9} \mathrm{~cm}^{3} \mathrm{sec}^{-1} & \alpha_{\mathrm{H} \alpha}=8.643 \times 10^{-14} \mathrm{~cm}^{3} \mathrm{sec}^{-1}
\end{array}
$$

- Relative abundance in typical H II regions: $\chi_{\mathrm{O}}=(3.3 \pm 0.5) \times 10^{-4}, \chi_{\mathrm{S}}=(1.0 \pm 0.1) \times 10^{-5}$ (McCleod et al. 2016).
- Details: all the recombination coefficients, collision strengths, and A coefficients can be found on line in the CHIANTI atomic database:
https://www.chiantidatabase.org/chianti.html (choose the Direct Access link)
and references therein.
[ The CHIANTI data-file column headers are given by Del Zanna et al. 2015, appendices A1-A2. (Often easier to get the data from the original references.)

