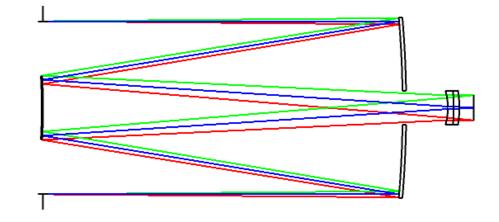


Lecture 13 Telescopes



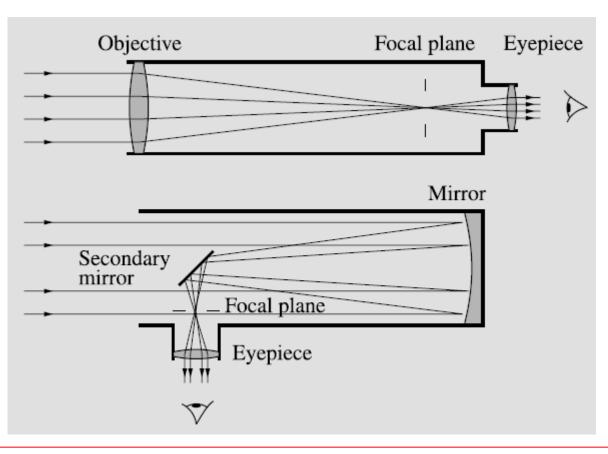
Ahmet Bingül

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Sep 2024

Telescope

- Telescopes are designed to aid in viewing distant objects, such as the planets in our Solar System.
- There are two different types:
 - refracting telescopes uses a combination of lenses
 - reflecting telescopes uses a mirrors and a lenses





Telescope

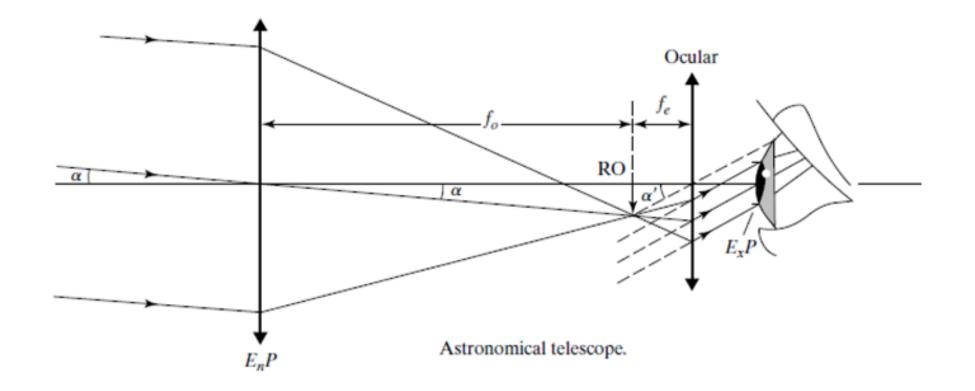
The telescope fulfils three major tasks in astronomical observations:

- 1. It collects light from a large area, making it possible to study very faint sources.
- 2. It improves resolution and increases the apparent angular diameter of the object.
- 3. It is used to measure the positions of objects.

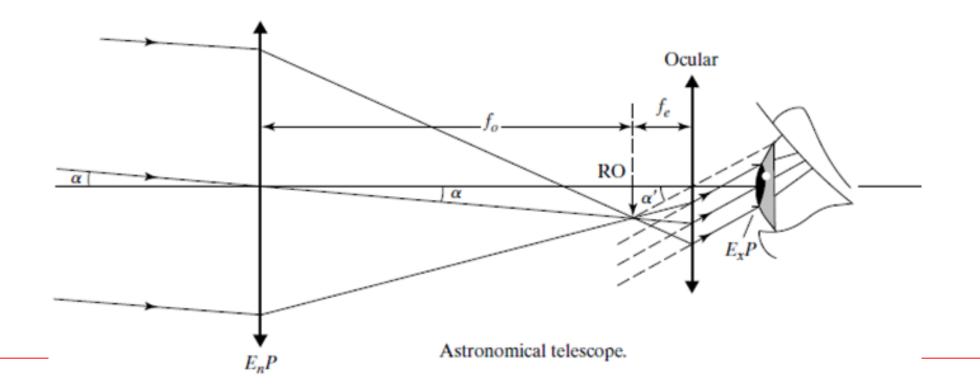
Keplerian (Astronomical) Telescope

It has two lenses:

- the **objective** which collects the incoming light and forms an image in the focal plane
- the eyepiece (ocular) which is a small magnifying glass for looking at the image.

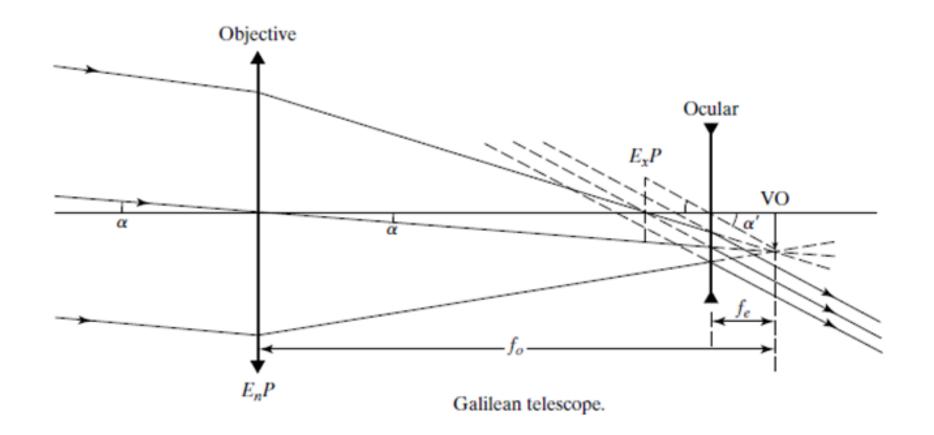


- The diameter of the objective, D_{EnP}, is called the Aperture or Entrance Pupil (EnP) of the telescope.
- Exit Pupil (ExP) of the telescope is the diameter of the output light rays. ExP of a telescope is usually selected as the size of human pupil (2 mm in daylight and 8 mm in dark). We desire: ExP diameter < (eyepiece diameter) [D_{ExP} < D_e]



Galilean Telescope

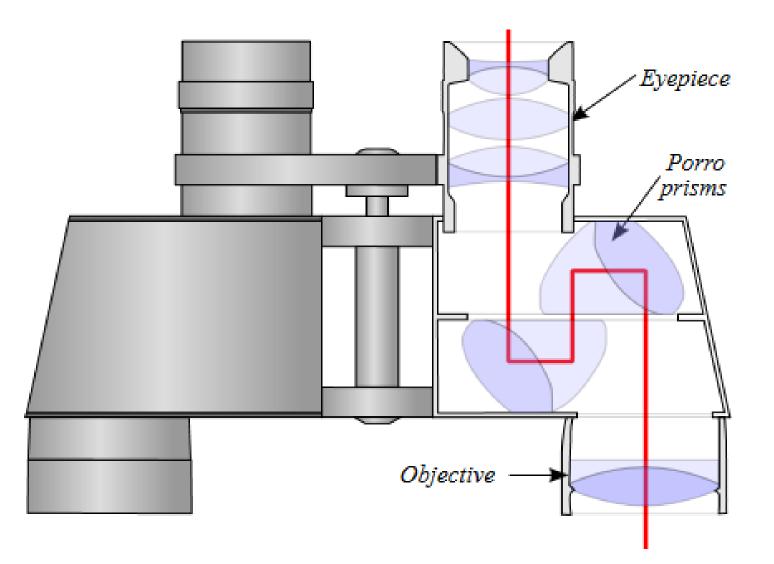
The Galilean or terrestrial telescope uses a positive objective and a negative eyepiece. It gives erect images and is shorter than the astronomical telescope with the same power.



Binoculars

- Binoculars afford more comfortable telescopic viewing, allowing both eyes to remain active.
- In addition, the use of Porro (or other) prisms to produce erect final images also permits the distance between objective lenses to be greater than the interpupillary distance, enhancing the stereoscopic binocular vision.





Design Equations (for Keplerian, Galilean and Binoculars)

Angular magnification of the telescope is defined as: $m = \alpha'/\alpha$ From basic geometry, the following equations can be derived:

Magnification:
$$m = -\frac{f_o}{f_e}$$
 and $|m| = \frac{D_{EnP}}{D_{ExP}}$

Distance between Lenses: $t = f_o + f_e$

Angular Field of View:

$$\theta_{FOV} = \frac{D_e}{t}$$

Eye relief:

$$ER = r = \frac{(f_o + f_e)f_e}{f_o}$$

The eye relief of an optical instrument (such as a telescope, a microscope, or binoculars) is the distance from the last surface of an eyepiece within which the user's eye can obtain the full viewing angle. Or more techically, eye relief is the distance of the exit pupil from the eyepiece.

Example: Basic Binocular Design

Consider the design of 6 x 30 for binoculars. (6x means that the angular magnification is 6 and the diameter of the objective lens is 30 mm). Its objective focal length 150 mm and eyepiece diameter 15 mm. Then,

Exit pupil diameter: $D_{ExP} = 30 / 6 = 5 \text{ mm}$ Eyepiece focal length:fe = -150/-6 = 25 mmFOV: $\theta_{FOV} = 15 / (150+25) = 0.086 \text{ rad } (\sim 5^{\circ})$ Eye relief:r = 29.7 mm

Reflecting Telescope

We have seen that larger-aperture objective provide greater light gathering power and resolution.

Problems with refraction telescopes:

- > large homogeneous lenses are difficult to produce without optical defects
- > the weight of larger lens is difficult to support.
- > chromatic aberrations have to be overcame

Solution:

Reflecting surfaces are used in place of lenses.

Reflecting Telescope

Nowadays the most common telescope type is the mirror telescope. As a light-collecting surface, it employs a mirror coated with a thin layer of aluminium.

The form of the mirror is usually *parabolic*. A parabolic mirror reflects all light rays entering the telescope parallel to the main axis into the same focal point.

The image formed at this point can be observed through an eyepiece or registered with a detector.

One of the advantages of reflectors is the absence of chromatic aberration, since all wavelengths are reflected to the same point.

Some Basic Reflecting Telescopes

1. Newtonian Telescope

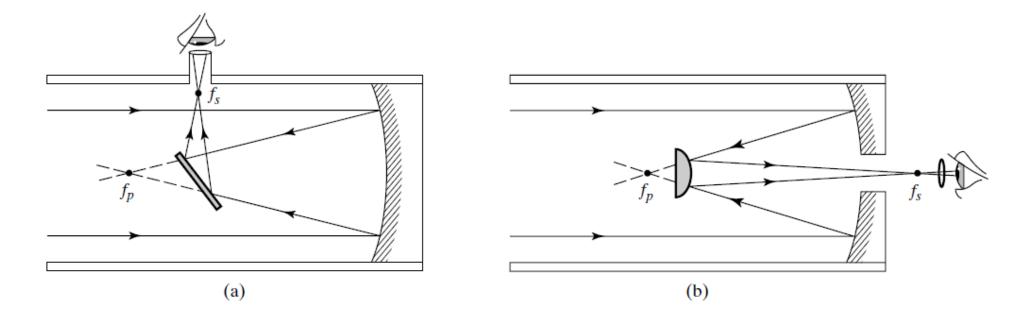
- Uses two mirrors: parabolic and flat.
- > Typical f-numbers: f/3 . . . f/10.
- > Total length of telescope is in the order of focal length of mirror.

2. Cassegrain Telescope

- Uses two mirrors: parabolic and convex hyperbolic.
- > Typical f-numbers: f/8 . . . f/15.
- > Primary and secondary focal foints are the foci of the hyperbola.
- Total length of the telescope is much shorter than Newtonian for the same primary focal length.

3. Gregorian Telesscpope

- Uses two mirrors: parabolic and concave elliptical.
- > The primary and secondary focal points of this telescope are the foci of the ellipse.



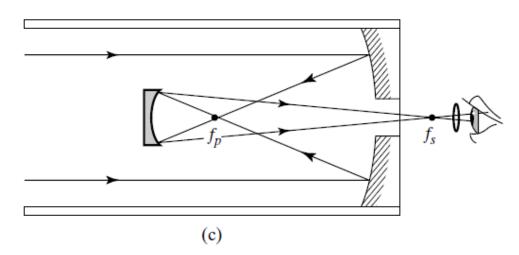


Figure 34 Basic designs for reflecting telescopes. (a) Newtonian telescope. (b) Cassegrain telescope. (c) Gregorian telescope.

Our Newtonian Telescope Project

http://www1.gantep.edu.tr/~bingul/hezarfen



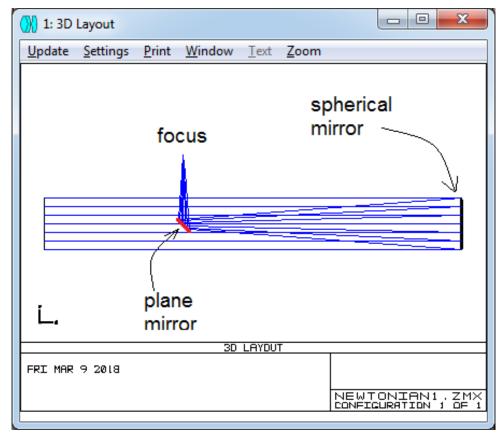
- The largest *reflecting* telescopes in the world are at the Keck Observatory on Mauna Kea, Hawaii at an elevation of **4145 meters**.
- Two telescopes with diameters of 10 m, each containing 36 hexagonally shaped, computer-controlled mirrors that work together to form a large reflecting surface.



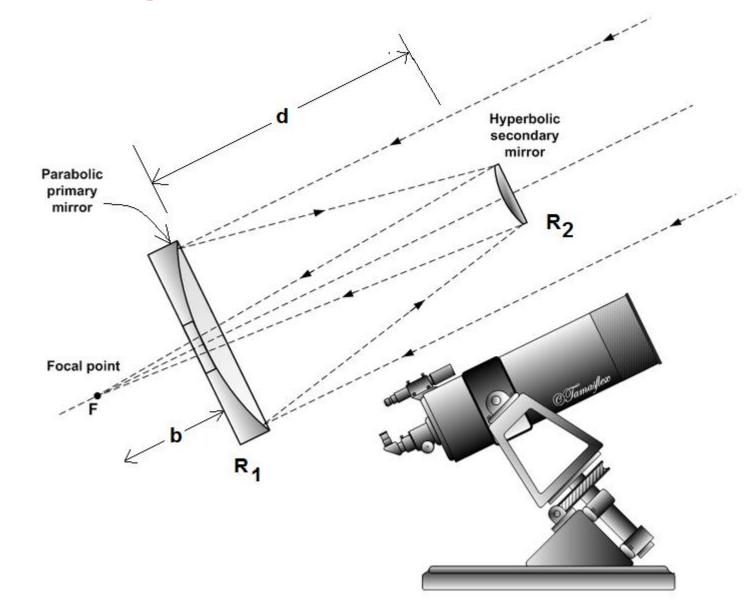
Example: Newtonian Telescope

(a) In Zemax, full the simulation of the Newtonian Telescope; one concave mirror and one flat mirror. Let the entrance pupil 150 mm, radius of curvature of the mirror is |R| = 1.5 m and the distance between primary and secondary mirror is 0.6 m. Image plane is placed at a distance 0.2 m from the flat (secondary) mirror.

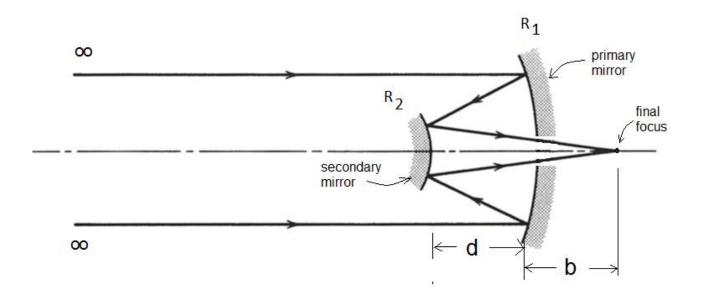
- (b) What is the geometric radius of the spot diagram on the image plane?
- (c) What is the dimension of secondary mirror?
- (d) Determine the location of image plane where we have a minimum spot size.
- (e) What is magnification of the telesccope with an eyepiece having focal length of 20 mm?



Cassegrain Telescope



 R_1 = radius of primary (first) mirror R_2 = radius of secondary mirror d = distance between mirrors b = back focal distance (BFD) f = focal length of the telecscope $f_1 = R_1/2 < 0$ (focal length of Mirror 1) $f_2 = R_2/2 < 0$ (focal length of Mirror 2)



For two spherical mirrors, we can obtain the following equations via paraxial ray tracing:

$$\frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} - \frac{d}{f_1 f_2} \qquad \qquad d + b = \left(1 - \frac{d}{f_1}\right)f$$

Example: Cassegrain Telescope

Implement a Cassegrain Telescope whose system parameters are:System focal lengthf = 800 mmDistance between mirrorsd = 200 mmBack focal distance (BFD)b = 50 mmPrimary mirror diameterD = 200 mm

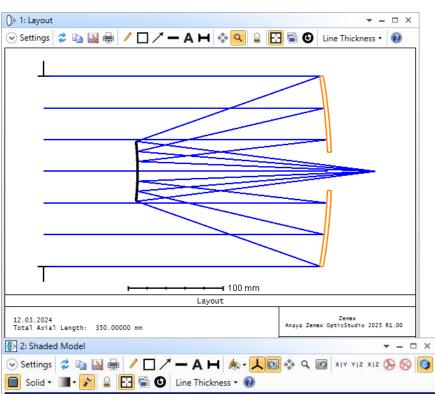
We have two equations:

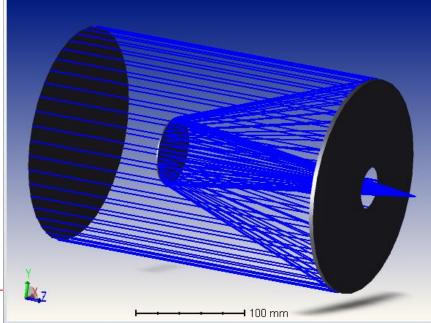
$$\frac{1}{800} = \frac{1}{f_1} + \frac{1}{f_2} - \frac{200}{f_1 f_2} \qquad 250 = 800(1 - \frac{200}{f_1})$$

Solving for focal lengths and radii of the mirrors: $f_1 = +290.909 \text{ mm} \implies |R_1| = 581.818 \text{ mm}$ $f_2 = -142.857 \text{ mm} \implies |R_2| = 285.714 \text{ mm}$

Note that the total distance of telescope is b+d = 250 mm. Focal length is f = 800 mm.

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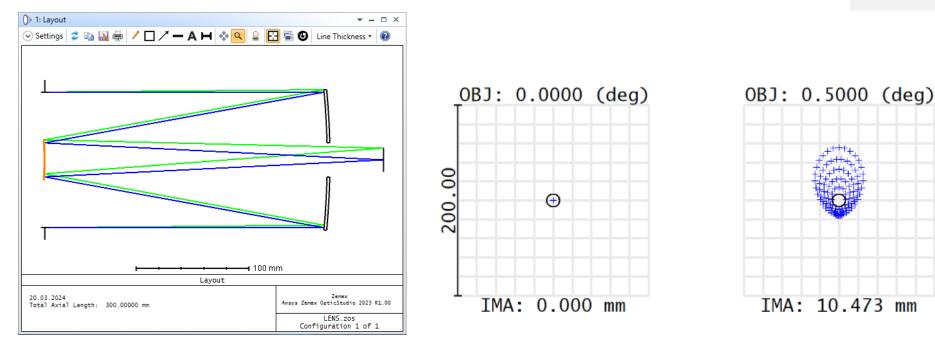


Cassegrain Design with Field Corrector Lenses

The typical Cassegrain design is known for its excellent on-axis optical performance but tends to perform poorly in off-axis applications.

For parabolic mirror, third order angular aberration is given by:

 $AA3 = 3a_1y^2\theta/R^2 + 2a_2y\theta^2/R + a_3\theta^3$



E.g. Cassegrain design with f/10, D= 120 mm, and FOV = 1°.

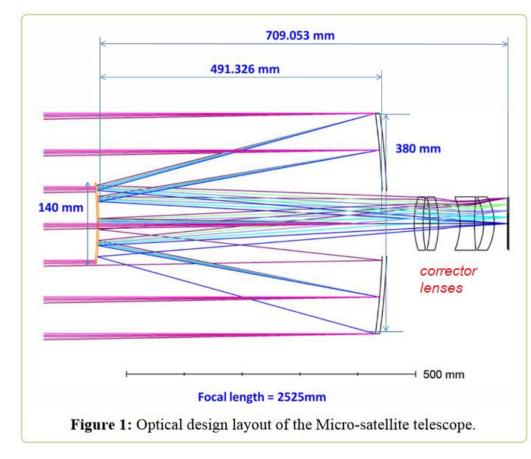
Cassegrain Design with Field Corrector Lenses

To improve off-axis performance usually a field corrector lens system is added to the mirror system before image sensor.

Note:

If we want to design Cassegrain Telescope whose target (final) focal length F with a corrector lens,

- 1. Design Cassegrain mirror system with focal length a bit grater or smaller than the target F. Namely, two-mirror focal length should be: $F' = F + \Delta F$ or $F' = F - \Delta F$
- 2. Add corrector lenses and optimize full system to reach target focal length, F.



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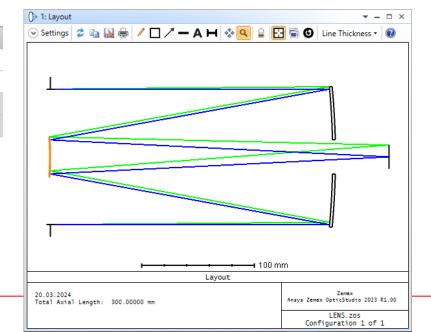
Example: Cassegrain Telescope with Corrector Design

Design a Cassegrain Telescope with corrector to satisfy the following specifications:

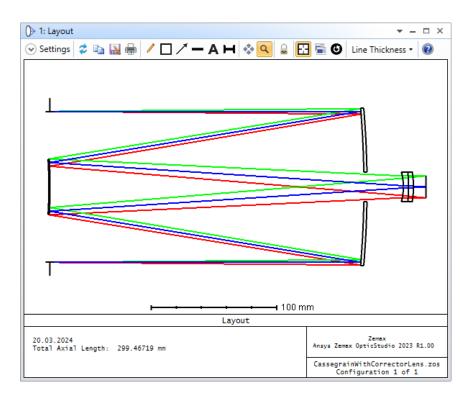
- EFFL = 1000 mm
- F/# = 10
- WAVE = F, d, C (visible)
- $FOV = 1^{\circ}$
- TOTR < 300 mm

Step 1: Design Cassegrain mirrors such that system focal length is F' = 1200 mm as follows:

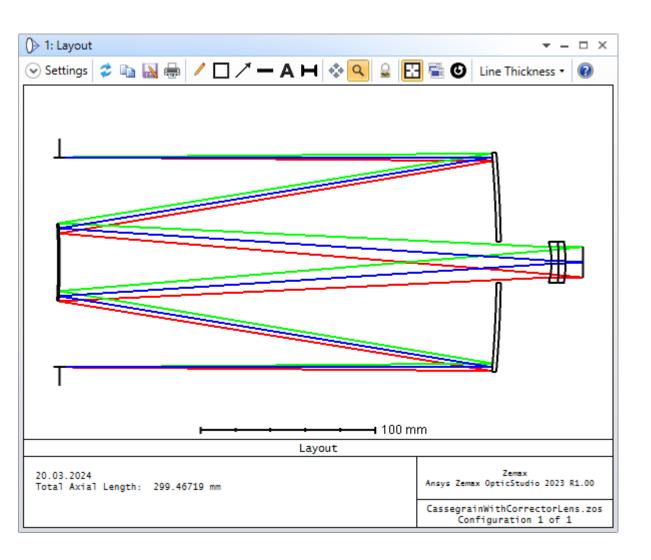
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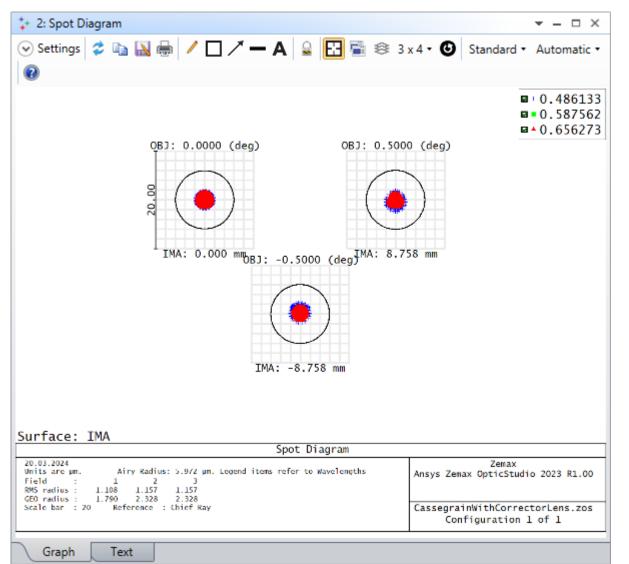


Step2: Add a doublet lens and optimize the system as follows. Notice F = 1000 mm.



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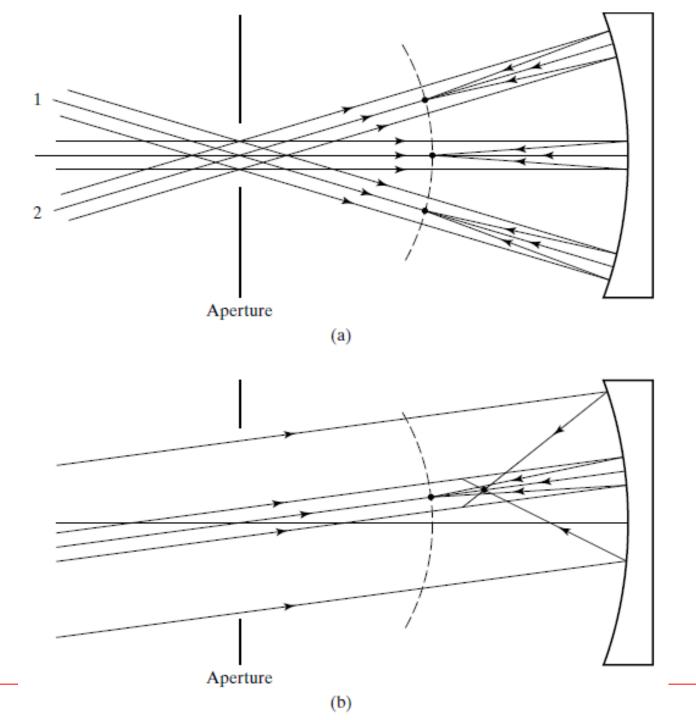


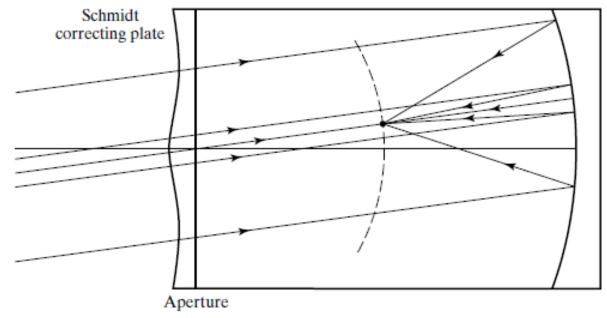


Catadioptric Telescopes

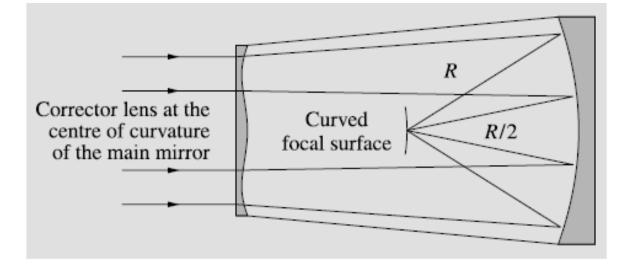
A catadioptric optical system is one where **refraction** and **reflection** are combined in an optical system, usually via lenses (dioptrics) and curved mirrors (catoptrics). Catadioptric combinations are used in focusing systems such as searchlights, headlamps, early lighthouse focusing systems, optical telescopes, microscopes, and telephoto lenses.

Perhaps the most celebrated catadioptric telescope is due to a design of Bernhardt Schmidt. He sought to remove the spherical aberration of a primary spherical mirror by using a thin refracting correcting plate at the aperture of the telescope.





⁽c) The Schmidt optical system.

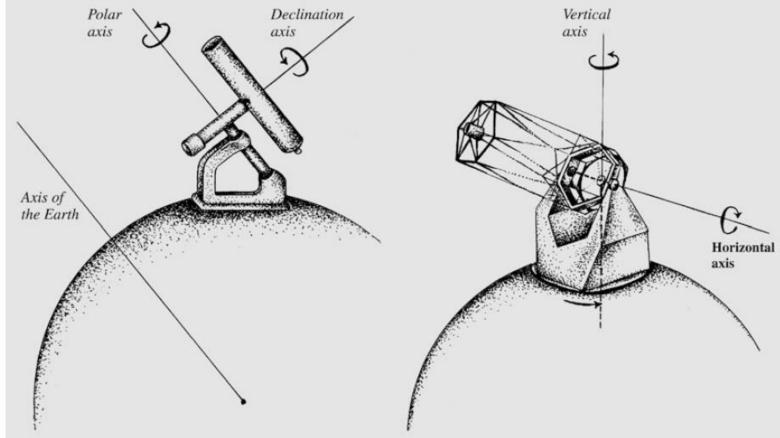


The principle of the Schmidt camera. A correcting glass at the centre of curvature of a concave spherical mirror deviates parallel rays of light and compensates for the spherical aberration of the spherical mirror. (In the figure, the form of the correcting glass and the change of direction of the light rays have been greatly exaggerated.) Since the correcting glass lies at the centre of curvature, the image is practically independent of the incoming angle of the light rays. Thus there is no coma or astigmatism, and the images of stars are points on a spherical surface at a distance of R/2, where R is the radius of curvature of the spherical mirror. In photography, the plate must be bent into the form of the focal surface, or the field rectified _ with a corrector lens

Mountings of Telescopes

A telescope has to be mounted on a steady support to prevent its shaking, and it must be smoothly rotated during observations. There are two principal types of mounting, equatorial and azimuthal

In the equatorial mounting, one of the axes is directed towards the celestial pole. It is called the polar axis or hour axis. The other one, the declination axis, is perpendicular to it. Since the hour axis is parallel to the axis of the Earth, the apparent rotation of the sky can be compensated for by turning the telescope around this axis at a constant rate. In the azimuthal mounting, one of the axes is vertical, the other one horizontal. This mounting is easier to construct than the equatorial mounting and is more stable for very large telescopes.



The equatorial mounting (left) and the azimuthal mounting (right)