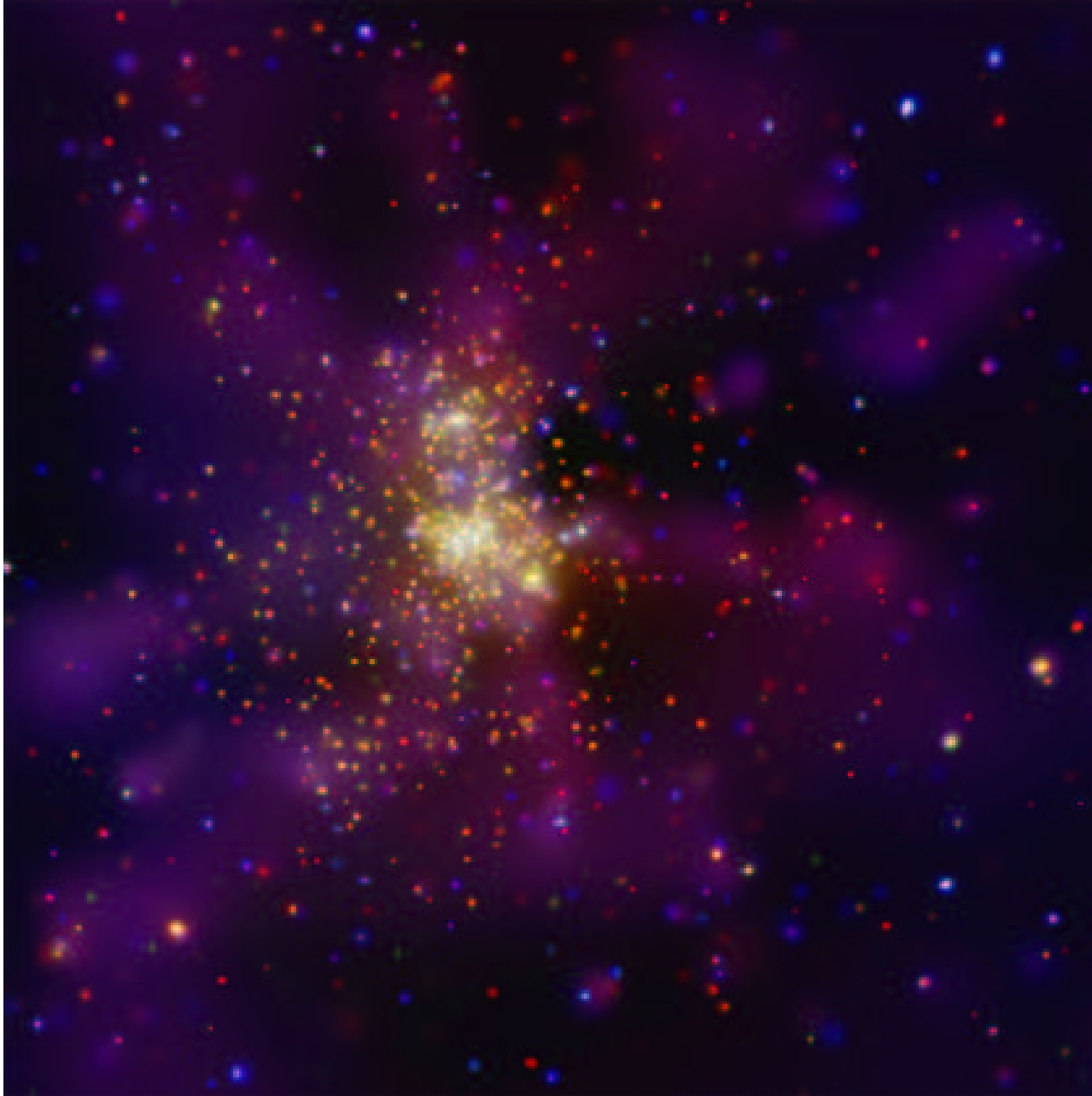


The X-Ray Universe



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astro.physik.uni-potsdam.de/~lida/x-ray.html

Chandra X-ray Observatory
Westerlund 2 - a young star cluster
 $d = 2 \times 10^4 \text{ ly}$

II. X-ray Telescopes



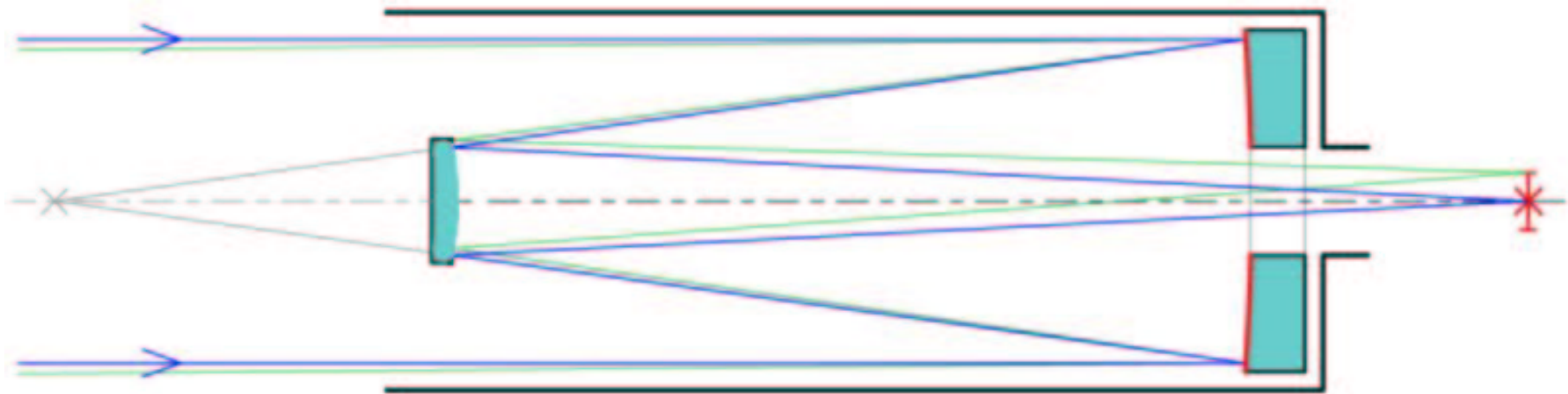
<http://chandra.harvard.edu/resources/>

II. 1. Introduction

Before we look at astrophysical X-ray sources, we need to understand how the images are formed and how radiation is detected.

- Wolter Telescopes (soft X-rays up to 15 keV)
- Lobster Eye Telescope
- Collimators
- Coded Mask Telescopes (hard X-rays)

II.2. Reminder of optical telescopes

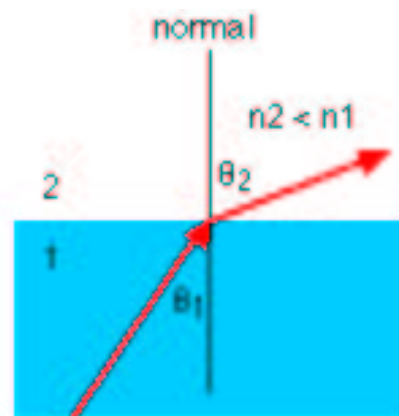
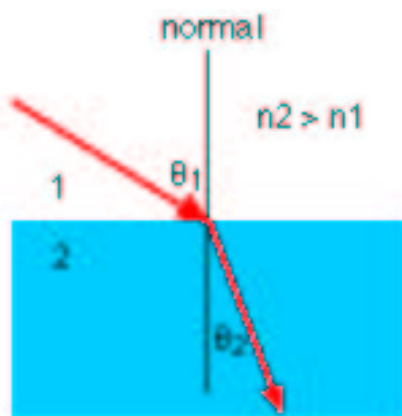


Cassegrain telescope (src. Wikipedia)

- Nowadays, optical telescopes are reflectors
- E.g. Primary mirror -> Secondary mirror -> Detector
- Main characteristics of a telescope
 - * collecting area $\pi d^2/4$, where d is mirror diameter
 - * angular resolution $\theta=1.22\lambda/d$ (perfect seeing)

II. 3. Snell's law

The relationship between angles of incidence and refraction for a wave impinging on an interface between two media with different indices of refraction.



Snell's law: $n_1 \sin \theta_1 = n_2 \sin \theta_2$ or, equivalently, $\sin \theta_1 / \sin \theta_2 = v_1 / v_2$

$$\frac{\sin \theta_1}{\sin \theta_2} = \frac{n_2}{n_1}$$

$$\sin \theta_2 = \frac{n_1}{n_2} \sin \theta_1$$

- Total internal reflection: $\theta_2 \geq 90^\circ$
- The incident angle θ_c : $\frac{n_1}{n_2} \sin \theta_c \geq 1 \Rightarrow \theta_c = \arcsin \frac{n_2}{n_1}$
- $n(\text{air})=1$, $n(\text{glass})=1.6$, $n(\text{silver})=0.18$, $n(\text{gold})=0.47$, $n(\text{diamond})=2.4$
- optical fibers, mirrors, diamond cutting

II. 4. Refraction of photons

In general, the index of refraction is given by the Maxwell relation:

$$n = \sqrt{\epsilon\mu},$$

where ϵ is the dielectricity constant; $\mu \sim 1$ is permeability of the material.

For free electrons, e.g. in metal,

$$\epsilon = 1 - \left(\frac{\omega_p}{\omega}\right)^2 \quad \text{with} \quad \omega_p^2 = \frac{4\pi n_e e^2}{m_e},$$

ω_p - plasma frequency, $\omega = 2\pi c/\lambda$, n_e number density of electrons

$$\epsilon = 1 - \frac{n_e e^2}{\pi m_e c^2} \lambda^2 = 1 - \frac{n_e r_e}{\pi} \lambda^2,$$

where $r_e = \frac{e^2}{m_e c^2} \approx 2.8 \times 10^{-13}$ cm - the classical electron radius

II. 5. Critical angle

The index of refraction from a metal surface of photons with λ

$$n = \sqrt{1 - \frac{n_e r_e}{\pi} \lambda^2} \approx 1 - \frac{n_e r_e}{2\pi} \lambda^2$$

electron number density $n_e = \frac{\rho}{(Z/A)m_H}$, where $m_H = 1.66 \times 10^{-24}$ g

$$n \approx 1 - 5.4 \times 10^{10} \rho \lambda^2$$

Critical angle for reflection θ_c , $\sin\theta_c = n_2/n_1$ lets $\theta_c = 90 - \alpha_c \Rightarrow$

$\cos\alpha_c = n_2$ when $n_1 = 1$ (e.g. vacuum)

remember $\cos\alpha \sim 1 - \alpha^2/2$, also λ in \AA , $1\text{\AA} = 10^{-8}\text{m}$

$$1 - \frac{\alpha_c^2}{2} = 1 - 5.4 \times 10^{10} \rho \lambda^2 \Rightarrow \alpha_c \approx 5' \frac{\lambda}{1\text{\AA}} \sqrt{\frac{\rho}{1\text{g cm}^{-3}}}$$

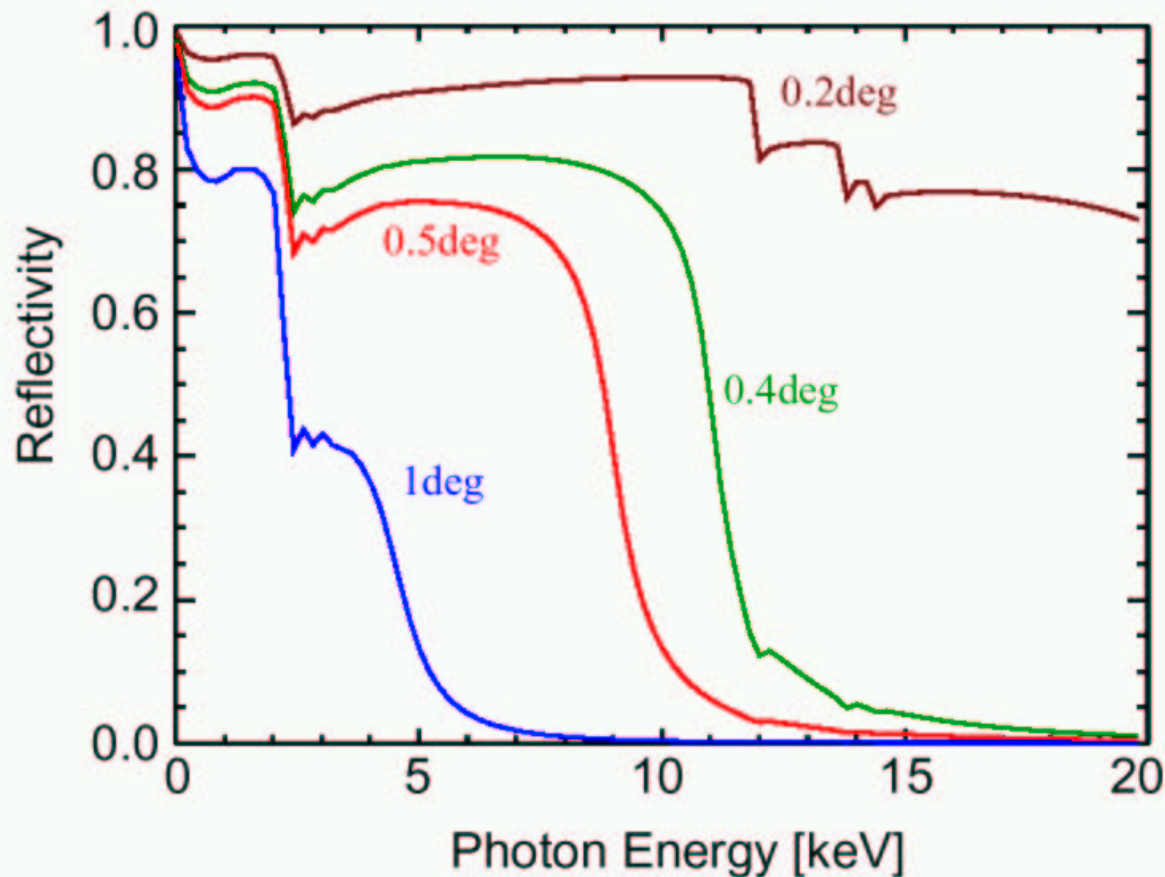
II. 6. Reflection of X-rays

Critical angle $\alpha_c \approx 0.5' \frac{\lambda}{1\text{\AA}} \sqrt{\frac{\rho}{1\text{g cm}^{-3}}}$

Optical $\lambda=6000\text{\AA} \Rightarrow \alpha_c \approx 50^\circ \sqrt{\frac{\rho}{1\text{g cm}^{-3}}}$

X-ray $\lambda=6\text{\AA} \Rightarrow \alpha_c \approx 3' \sqrt{\frac{\rho}{1\text{g cm}^{-3}}}$

Grazing!



To increase α_c need high ρ

XMM-Newton: gold

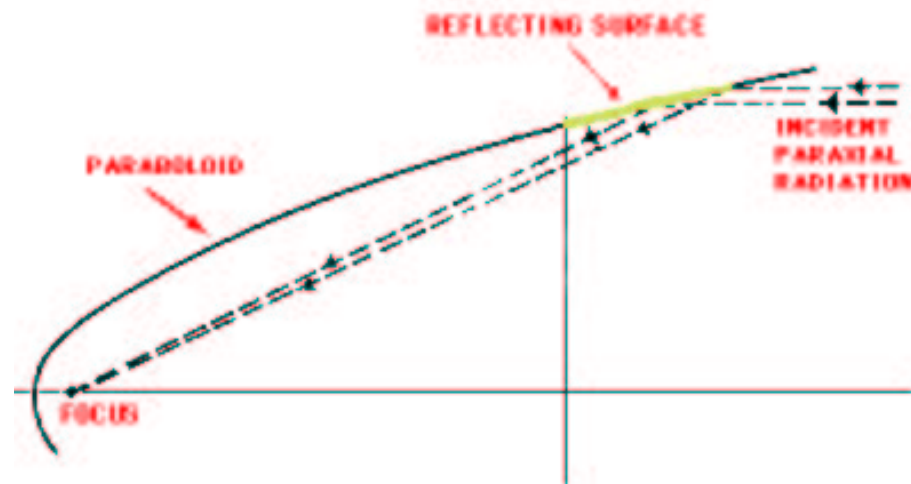
Chandra: iridium

see Ais-Nielsen & McMorrow, 2004,
Elements of modern X-rays physics

for hard X-rays: **Bragg's Effect**

Multilayered mirrors,
not yet in production

II. 7. Simple X-ray telescope



Abbe sine condition:

Ernst Karl Abbe (1840-1905)

Germany, University of Jena

must be fulfilled by optical system in order for it
to produce sharp images of off-axis as well as on-axis objects:

$$\frac{\sin u'}{\sin U'} = \frac{\sin u}{\sin U}$$

u, U angles of any two rays as they leave the object

u', U' angles of any two rays as they leave the object

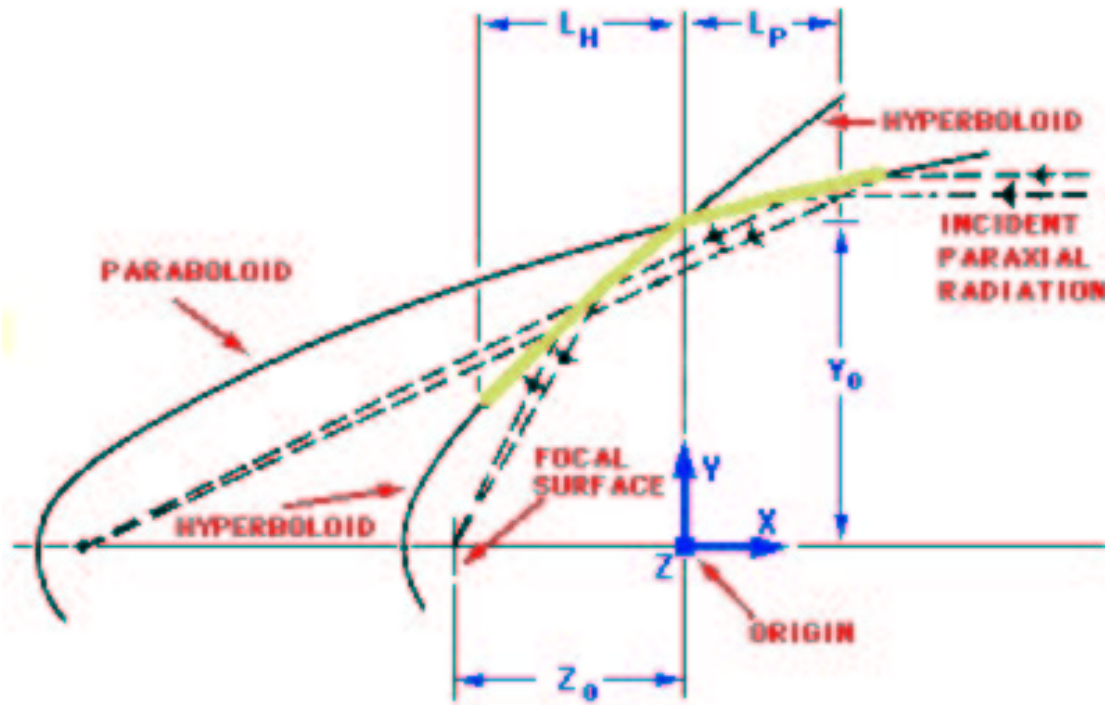
Same idea as
optical telescope primary

1960 R. Giacconi & B. Rossi

Only paraxial rays parallel
to the optical axis are focused:
Abbe sine condition not fulfilled

In optical telescopes:
secondary mirror

II. 8. Wolter I telescope



Hans Wolter (1911 - 1978)
Germany

1952 X-ray focusing optics that satisfies Abbe condition

Three types, practical Type I developed for microscopes

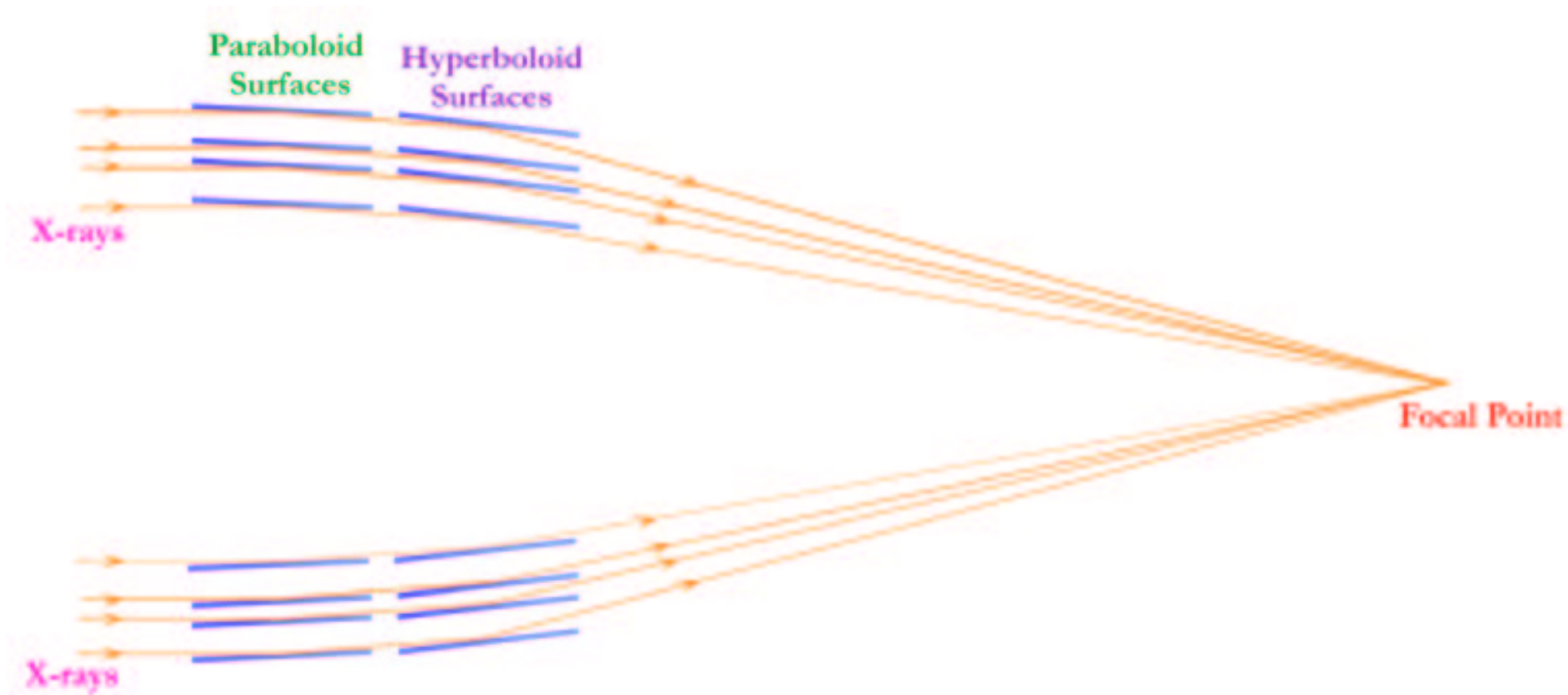
1961 R. Giacconi & B. Rossi
X-ray telescopes

Collecting area $A \propto \frac{\pi r^2 l}{f}$

where f is focal length

Small collecting area of a mirror
astrophysical X-ray sources are weak
How to increase collecting area?

II. 9. Nested mirrors



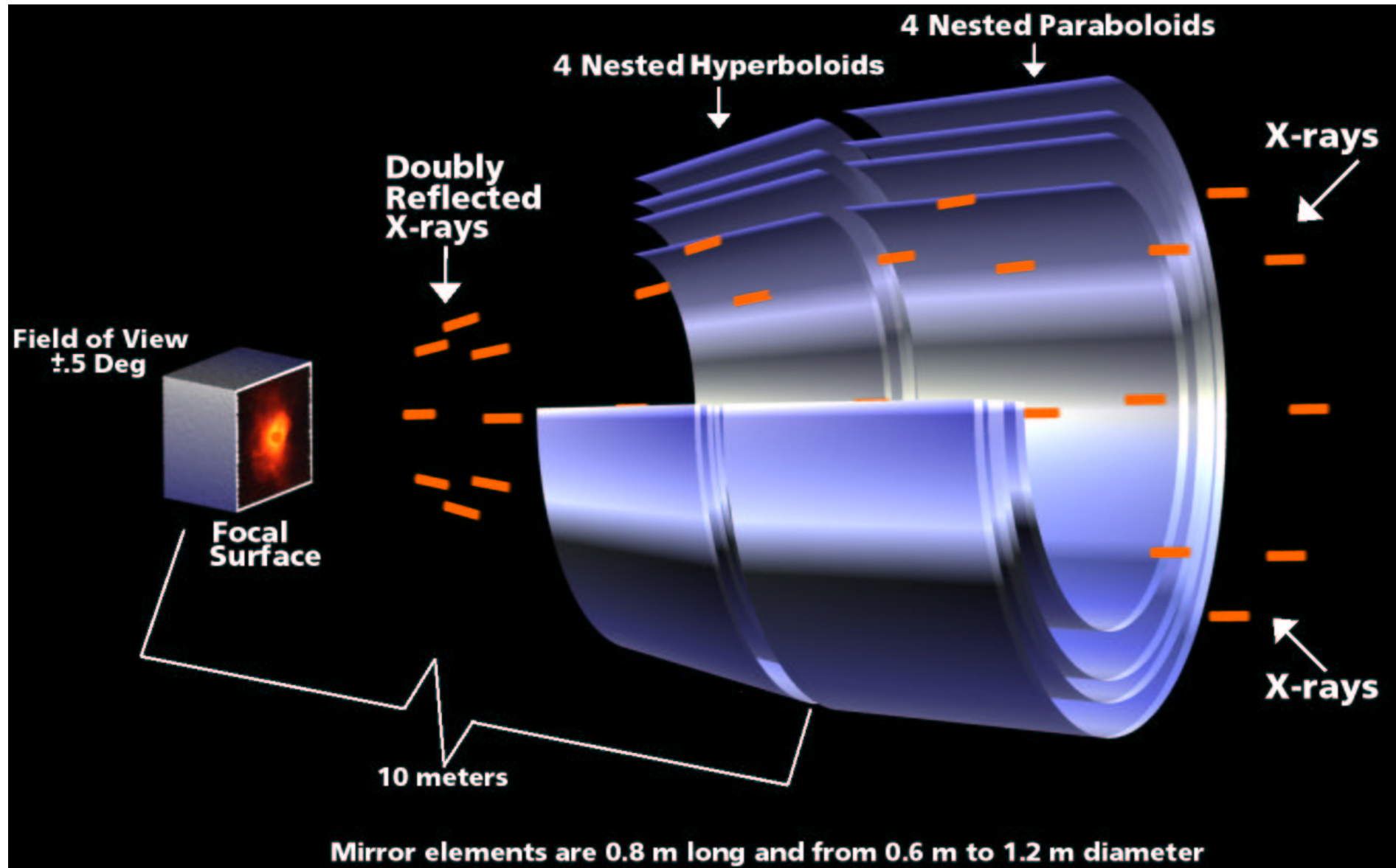
Chandra: four nested pairs of mirrors

Two reflections are required to make an image.

The grazing angle: 3.5 degrees for the outer pair

The grazing angle: 2 degrees for the inner pair.

II. 10. High Resolution Mirror Assembly (HRMA) on Chandra.



Chandra: four nested pairs of mirrors

II. 11. High Resolution Mirror Assembly (HRMA) on Chandra.



CXO Mirror Being Assembled at Eastman-Kodak
(Photo: Eastman-Kodak)

Optics:

Wolter Type-I

Mirror coating:

Iridium

Mirror outer diameters:

1.23, 0.99, 0.87, 0.65 m

HRMA mass:

1484 kg

θ_c :

3.42, 2.75, 2.42, 1.80 degrees

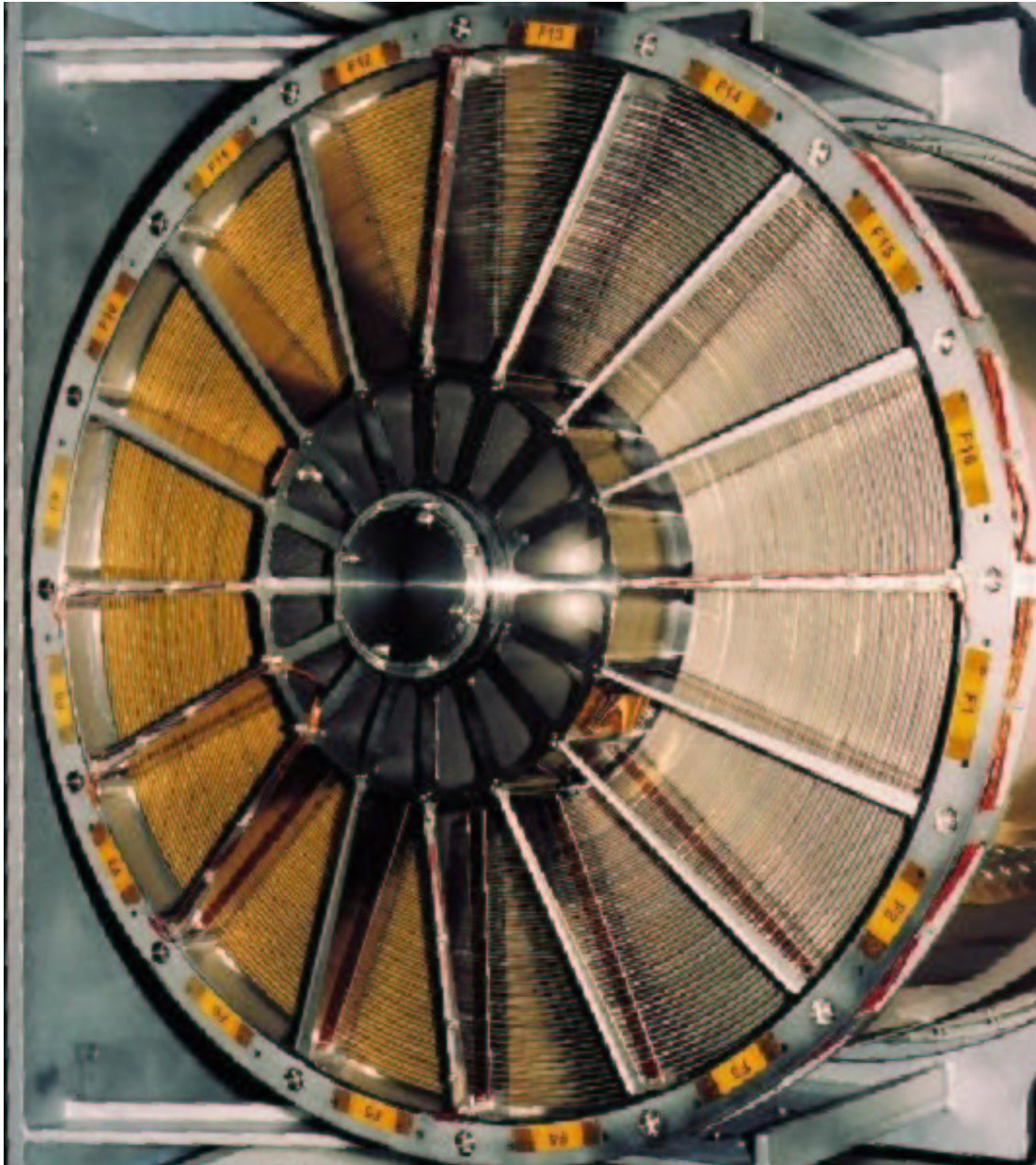
PSF FWHM (with detector):

0.5 arcsec !!!

Effective area:

0.25 keV:800 cm², 8.0 keV:100 cm²

II. 12. XMM-Newton mirrors



XMM-Newton mirrors during integration

Image courtesy of Doerner Satellitensysteme GmbH

European Space Agency 

Optics:

Wolter Type-I

Nested mirrors:

58

Mirror coating:

gold

Mirror outer diameters:

3.5,...,1.5 m

Focal length

7.5m

PSF FWHM (with detector):

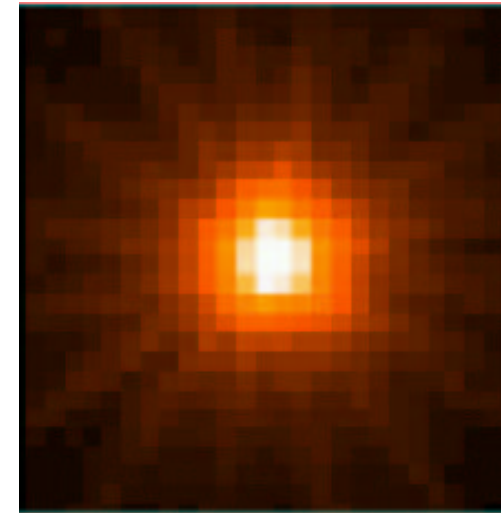
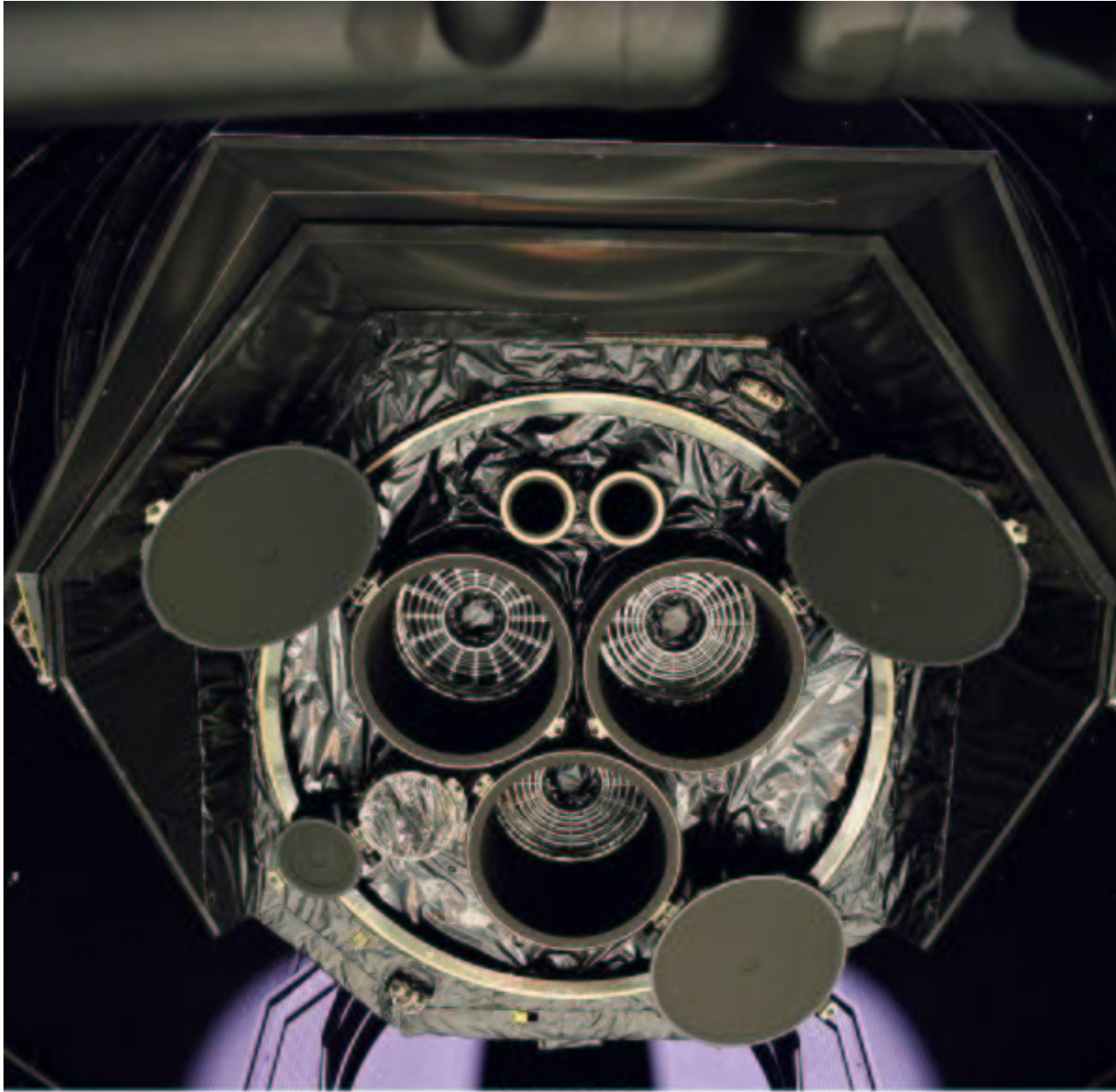
4 arcsec !!!

Effective area:

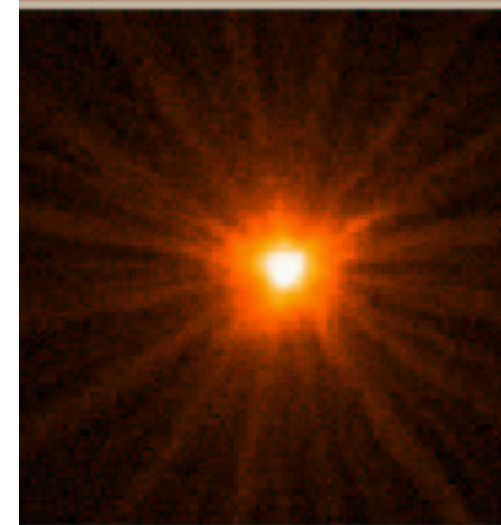
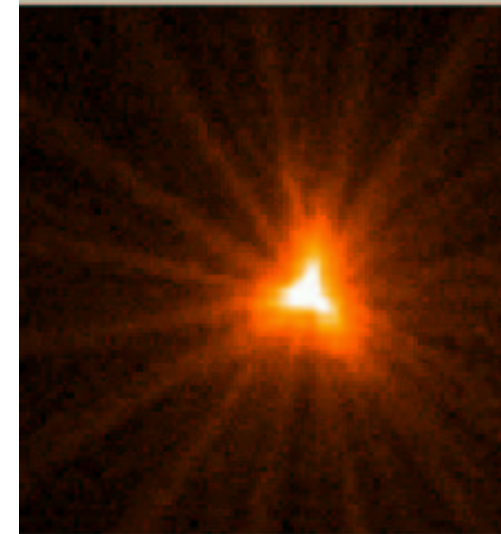
1 keV:2000 cm², 8.0 keV:1600 cm²

II. 13. Three telescopes of XMM-Newton

Image of the on-axis PSF for the three telescopes



100'' × 110''



EPIC PN camera
larger pixels

II. 14. Lobster Eye Telescopes

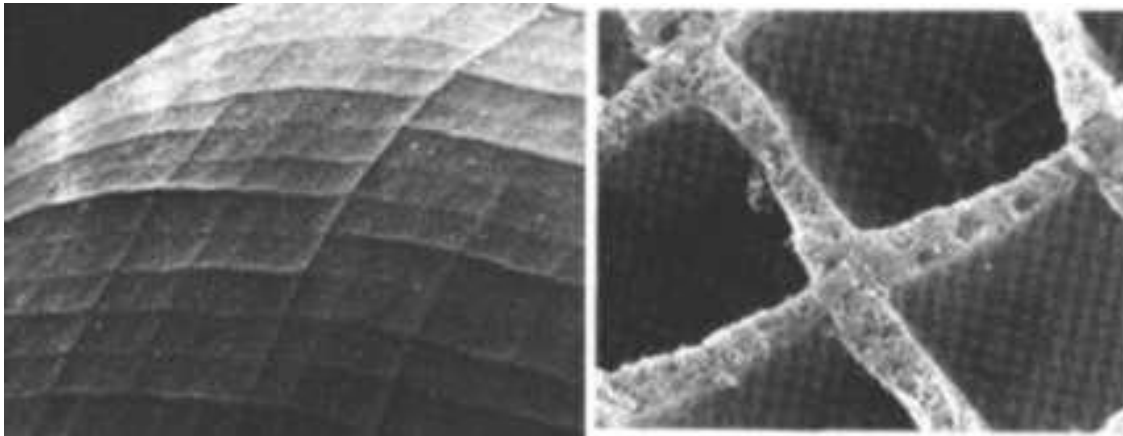
Wolter I telescopes are inefficient:
mirrors are used nearly edge-on

Heavy, expensive

The FoV is small, half-degree XMM

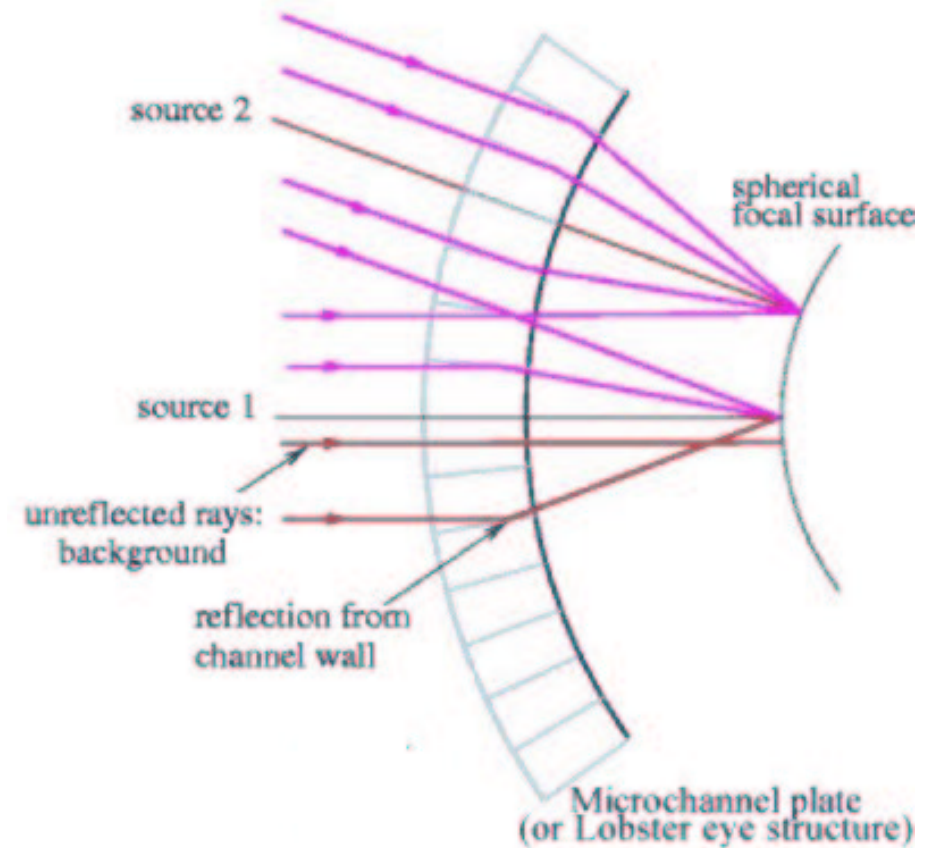
Need for many pointings

Lobster Eye



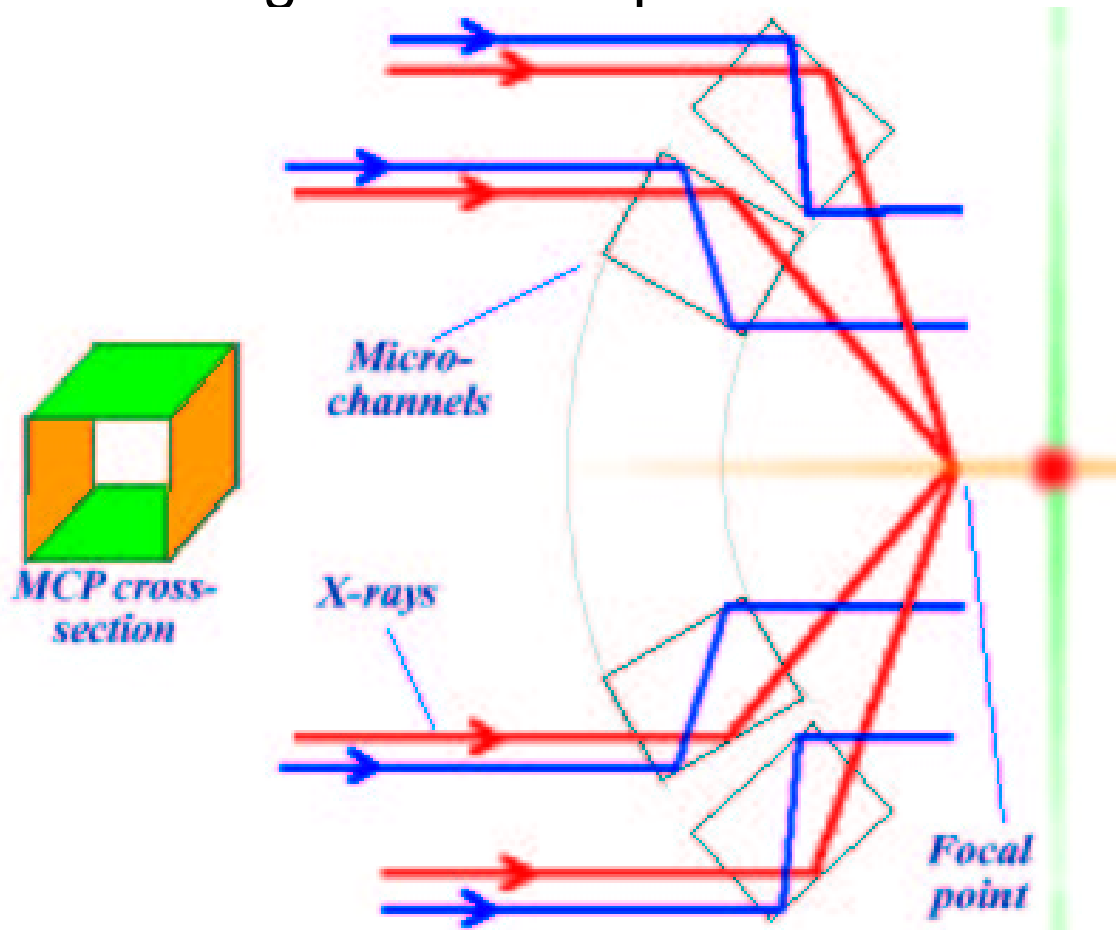
Lobster eye uses grazing incidence
in optical

10^6 channels, approx. 20 micron



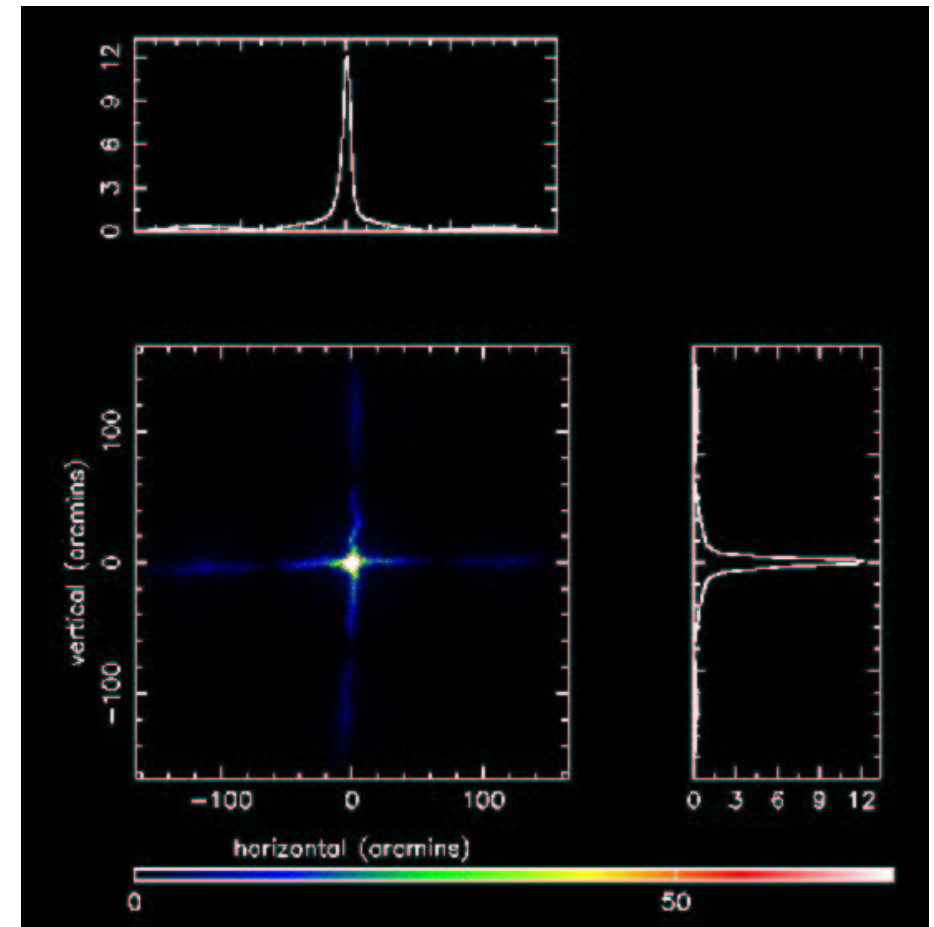
II. 15. Lobster-ISS

Will be flown onto ISS
now in stage of development



Rays with odd number of reflections
in both vertical and horizontal planes
arrive in the central focus

All others make cross structure and **background**



Central circle a.3 arcmin; 0.93 keV

from www.src.le.ac.uk/projects/lobster/ov_optics.htm

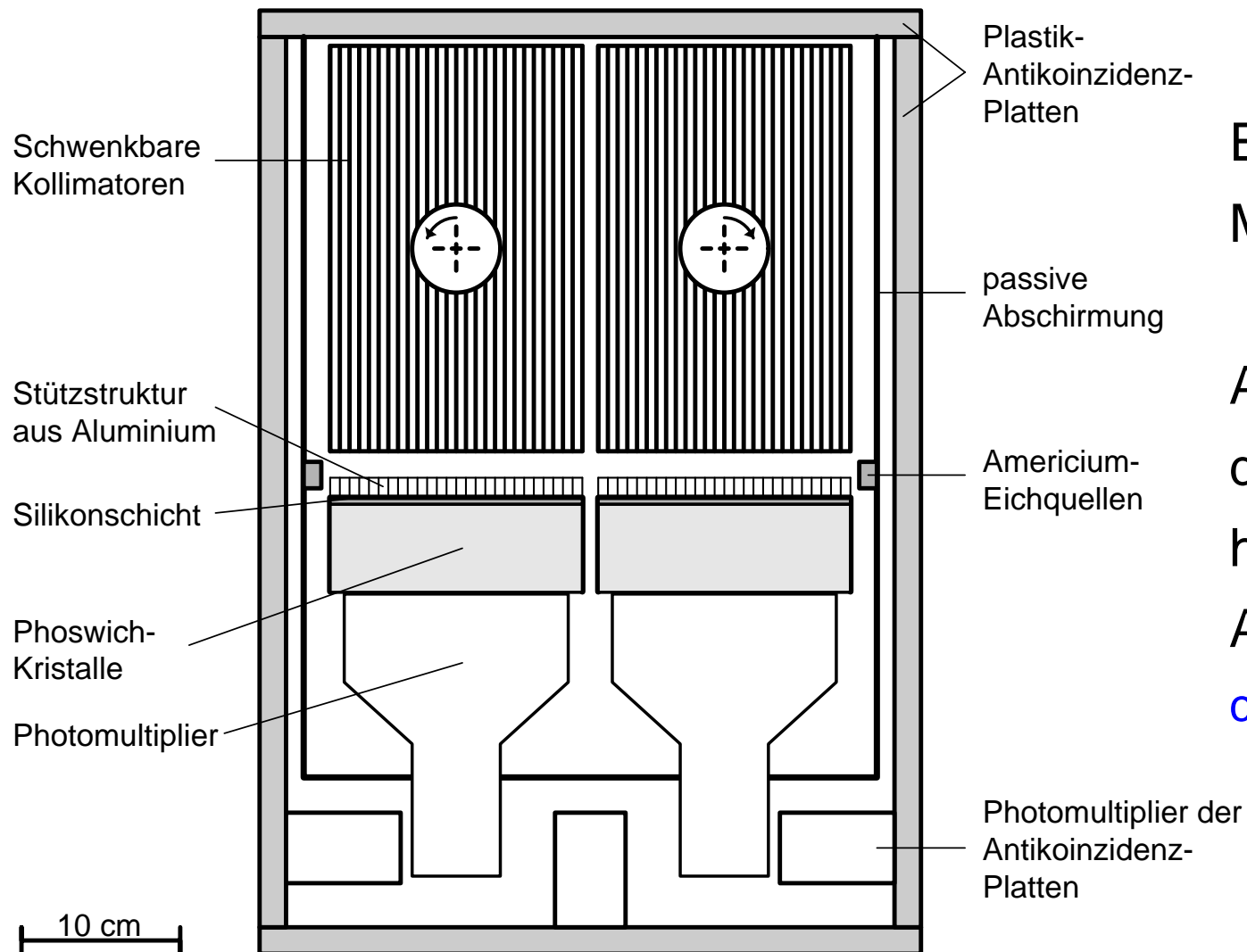
II. 16. Collimators

At energies above 10 keV, imaging with mirrors is not possible

(..development of multilayer mirrors)

How to understand where the X-rays are coming from?

Simpliest: pinhole camera version honeycomb collimator



Example: Kvant modul
MIR station, 1987

Angular resolution $\sim d/h$,
d is tube diameter,
h is tube length

Angular resolution - degrees
compare: Chandra: 0.5arcsec!

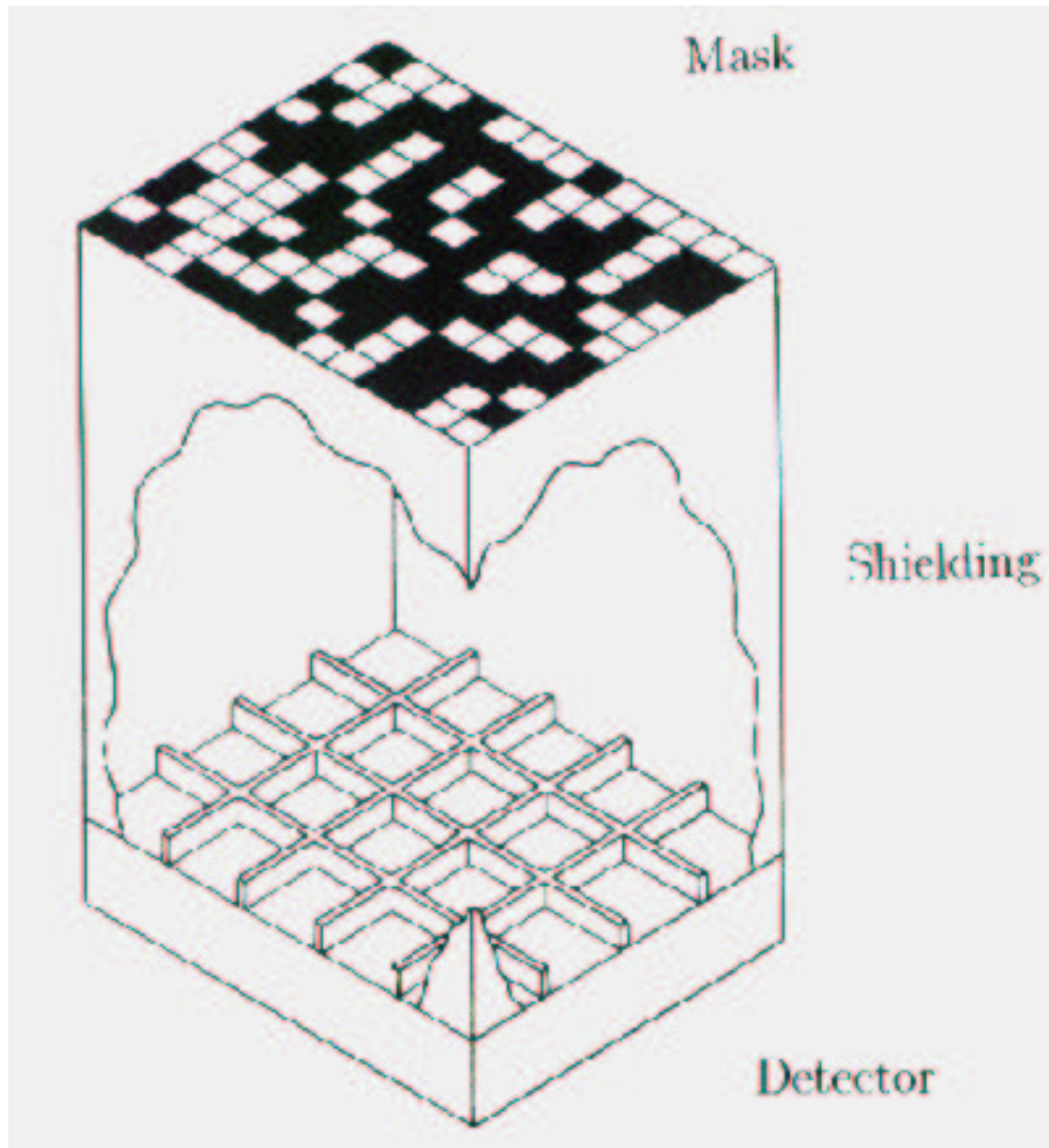
II. 17. The Mir space station in 2000 with the Kvant attached.



II. 17. Coded Mask Telescopes

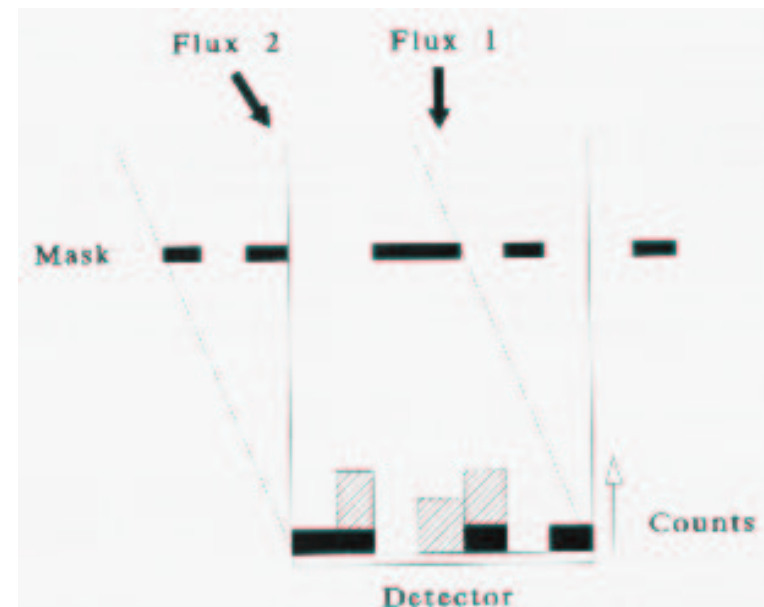
Collimators have no imaging capabilities

Coded Masks: imaging for hard X- and γ -rays

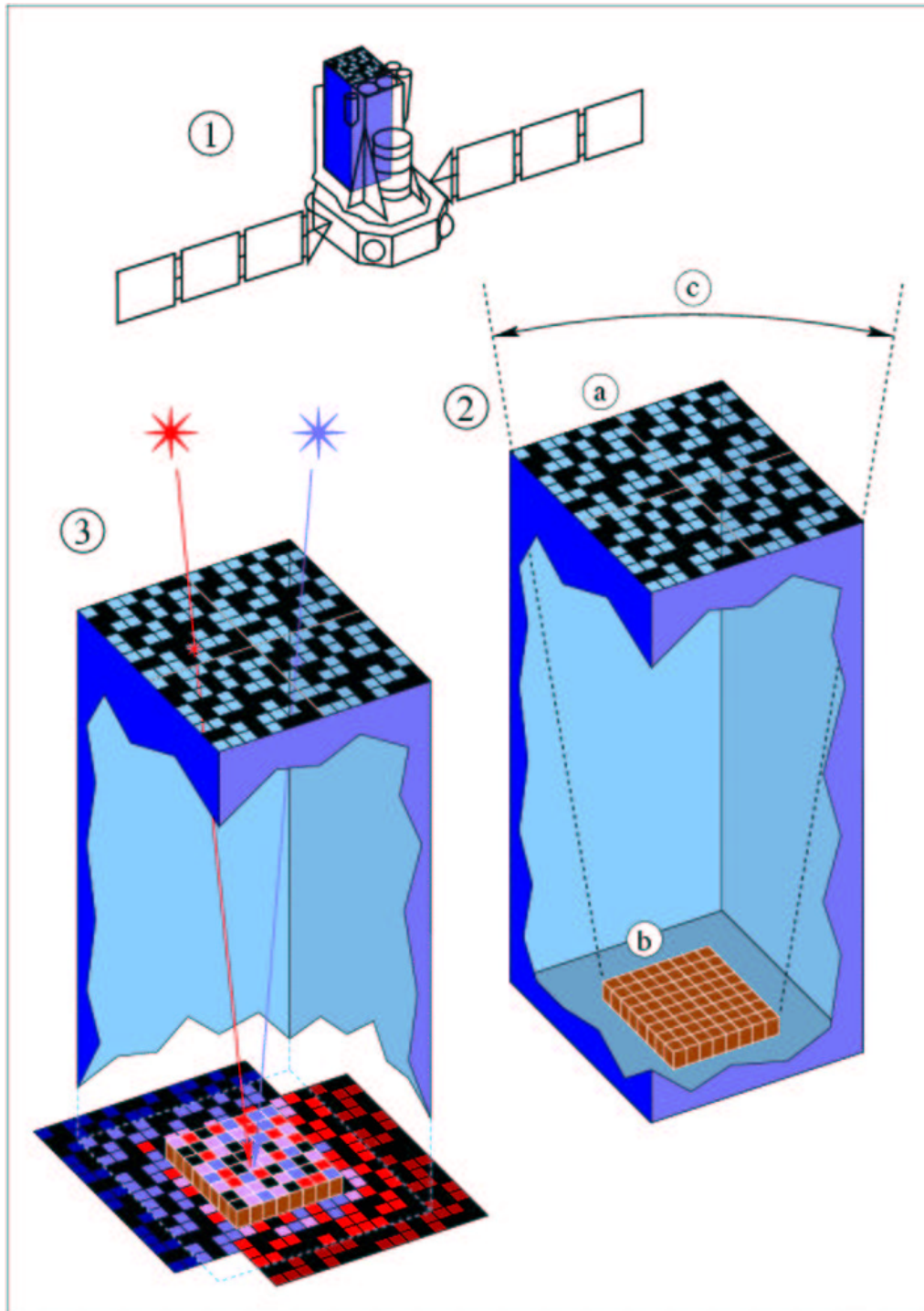


Shift of the projected shadow relative the telescope axis.

For multiple sources:
image deconvolution.



II. 17. IBIS on board of INTEGRAL



Principle of image reconstruction:
mask shadow on detector plane:

Detector: pixel at (x,y) with "response"

$$R(x, y) = C(x, y) - \langle C \rangle ,$$

$C(x,y)$: measured signal in the pixel

$\langle C \rangle$ average signal in the detector

Compare $R(x,y)$ to response expected if there were a source at α, δ on the sky using **cross-correlation function** $CCF(\alpha, \delta)$

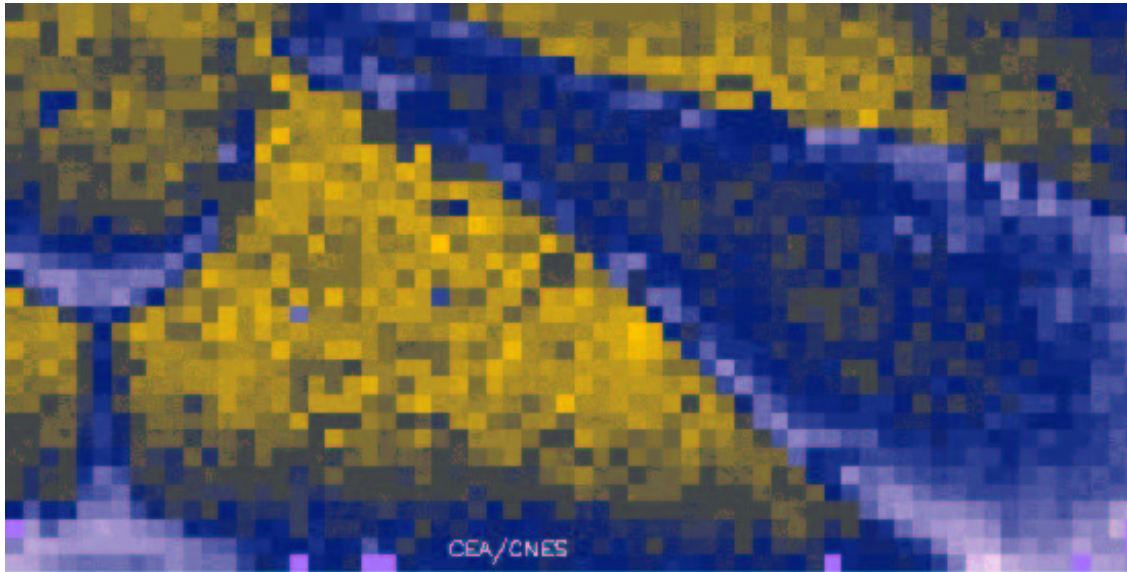
$$CCF(\alpha, \delta) = \int \int R(x, y) R(x, y; \alpha, \delta) dx dy$$

CCF has peak if match with real source

Subtract this source and repeat

"IROS" iterative removal of sources

II. 19. Shadowgram



ISGRI detector
Pre-flight model
122 keV

INTEGRAL

The International Gamma-Ray
Astrophysics Laboratory

ESA's Horizon 2000

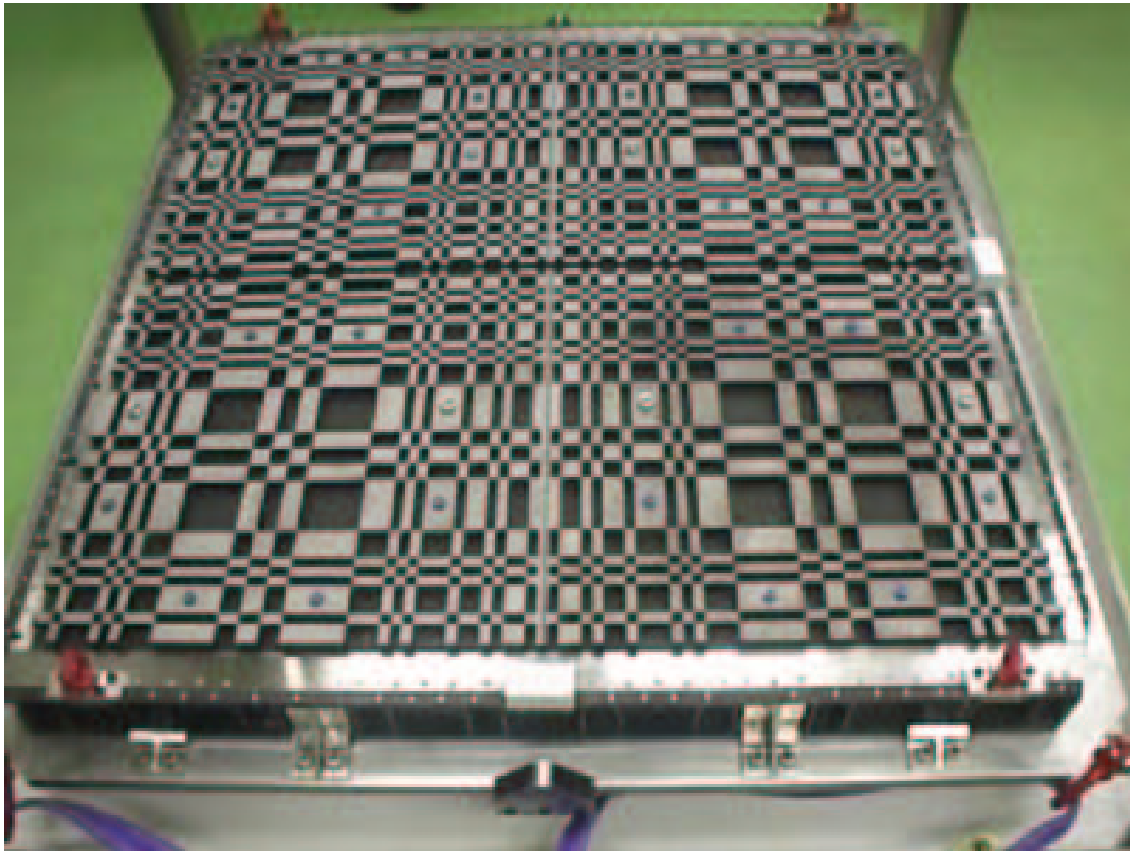
3 keV - 10 MeV

Angular resolution FWHM 12 arcmin

FOV 8 x 8 degrees



II. 19. IBIS



<http://pollux.uv.es/integral/Masks/>

ISGRI detector

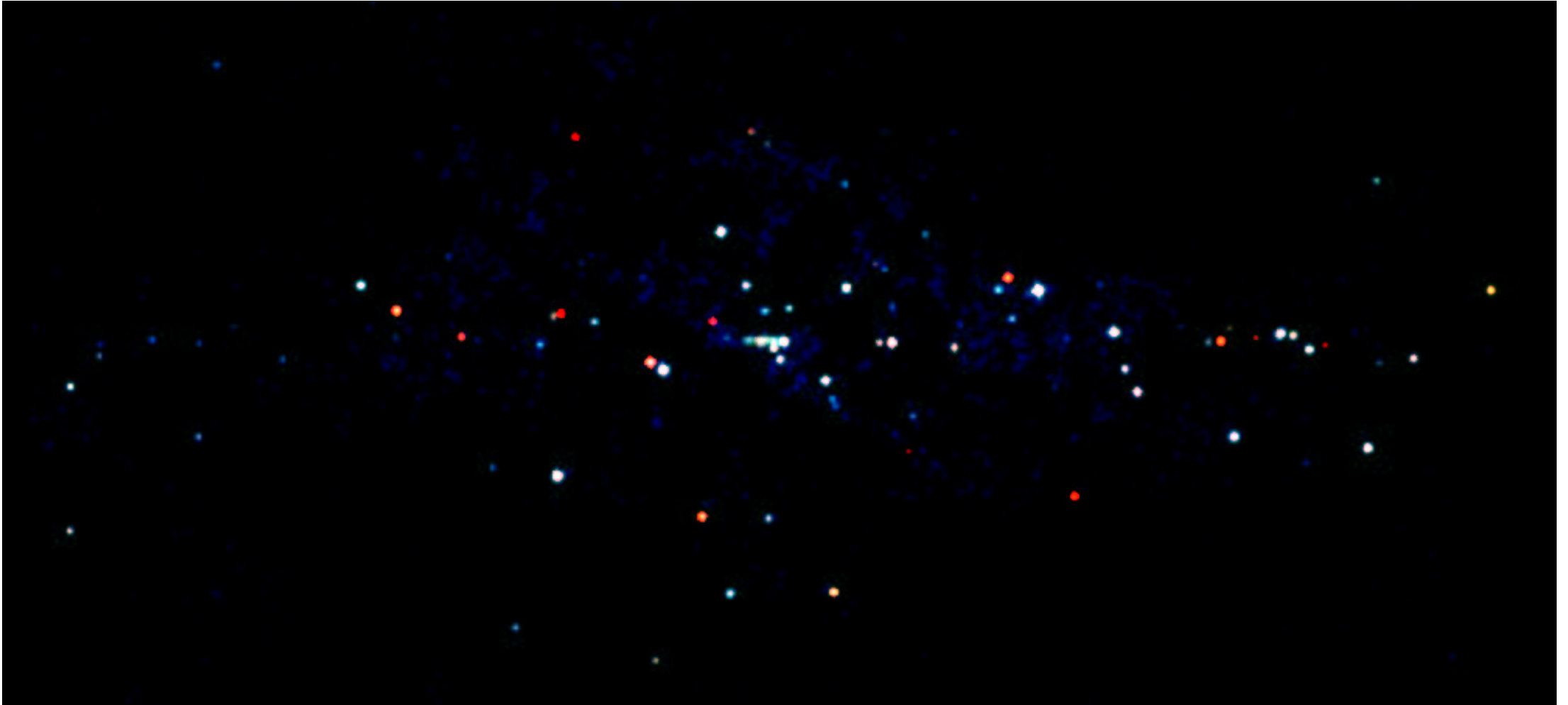
IBIS

(Imager on Board INTEGRAL Satellite)

II. 20. INTEGRAL launched October 2002



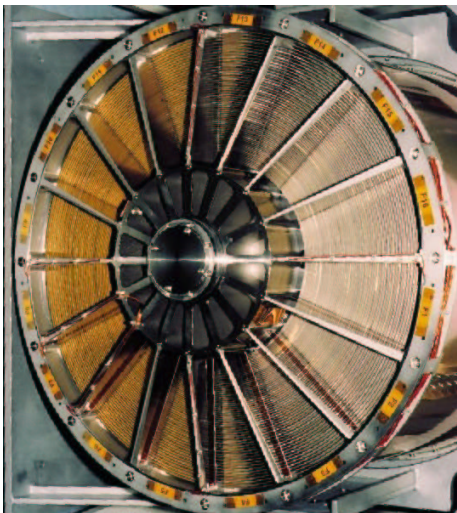
II. 21. Milky Way with Integral



<http://www.sciops.esa.int/>

mainly stellar remnants: black holes and neutron stars

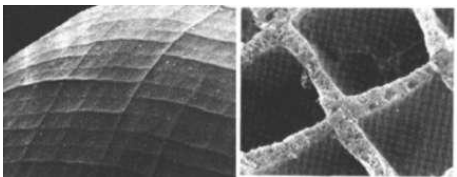
II. 22. X-ray telescopes: Summary



XMM-Newton mirrors during integration

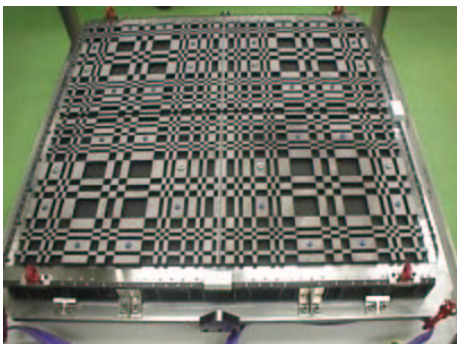
Image courtesy of Denis Sattler/Henryk Strupczewski European Space Agency

Wolter I mirrors (XMM-Newton, Chandra)



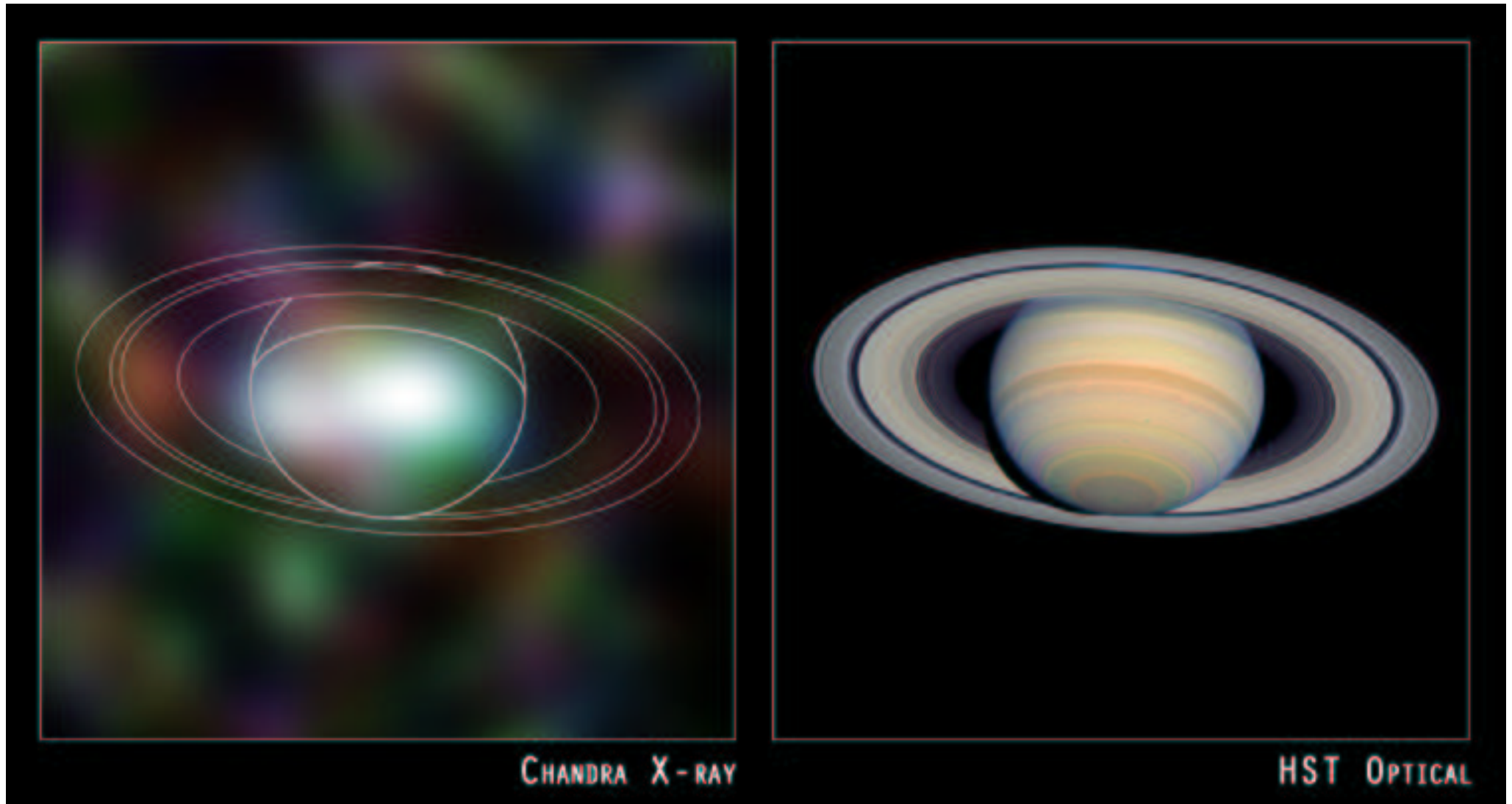
Lobster Eye (LOBSTER-ISS)

Collimators (RXTE)



Coded Mask (Integral)

III. X-ray Detectors



<http://chandra.harvard.edu/resources/>

III. 1. Introduction

Ideal detector for satellite-borne X-ray astronomy?

- High spatial resolution
 - Large useful area
- Excellent temporal resolution
 - Good energy resolution
 - Broad bandwidth
- Stable on timescales of years
- Very low internal background
- Immune to damage by the in-orbit radiation
 - Require no consumables
 - Simple and cheap
 - Light in weigh
- A minimal power consumption
 - No moving parts
 - Low data rate

Such a detector does not exist!

III. 2. Types of X-ray detectors

We want to detect a weak source against a fairly strong background.

1 ph with E 1..10 keV per 1 cm^2 per s is a strong X-ray source

Integrating detectors (such as film) not much useful

Source detection is done on a photon-by-photon basis.

Non-imaging and imaging detectors

NB Dualism! X-ray quantum is both particle and wave

Ionization detectors: X-ray hits detector and ionizes an atom:

Photo-electric absorption

Resulting free electron will create secondary electrons

Electric field: the electrons can be collected and **counted**.

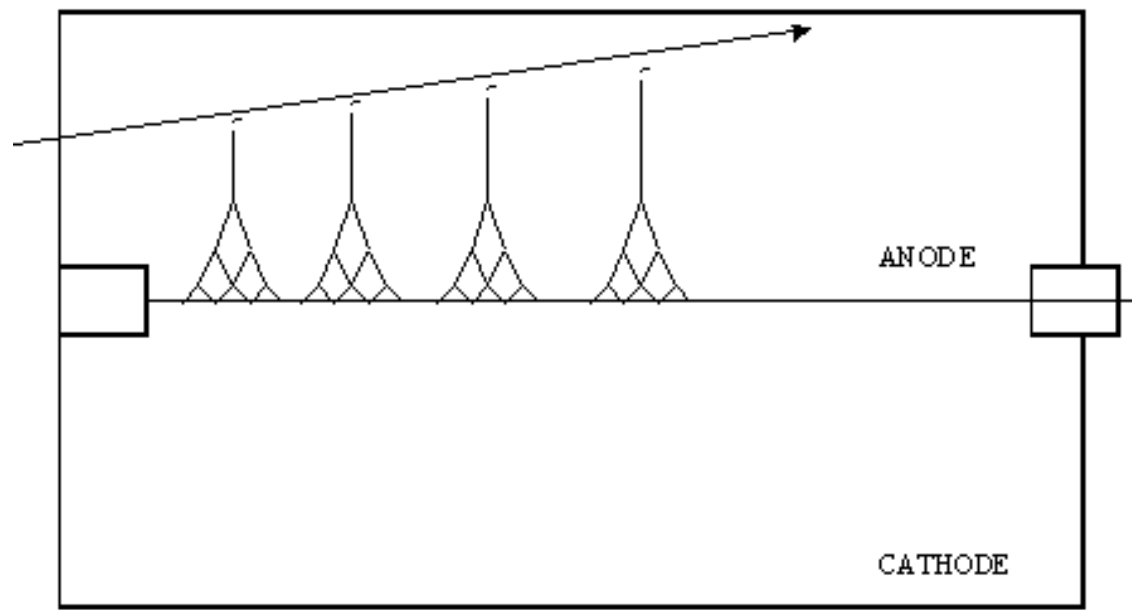
Measured charge is proportional to the deposited energy

Microcalorimeters: Excited electrons go back to the original energy

Returning to ground state they lose energy to heat

Measured heat is proportional to the deposited energy

III. 3. Proportional counters - Non-imaging



www.orau.org/ptp/

Measured voltage:

$$\delta U = -\frac{eN}{C} \cdot A$$

A is amplification factor ($10^4 \dots 10^6$)

A is constant, voltage puls $\propto eN \propto$ energy

Proportional counter.

The Size of the Pulse:

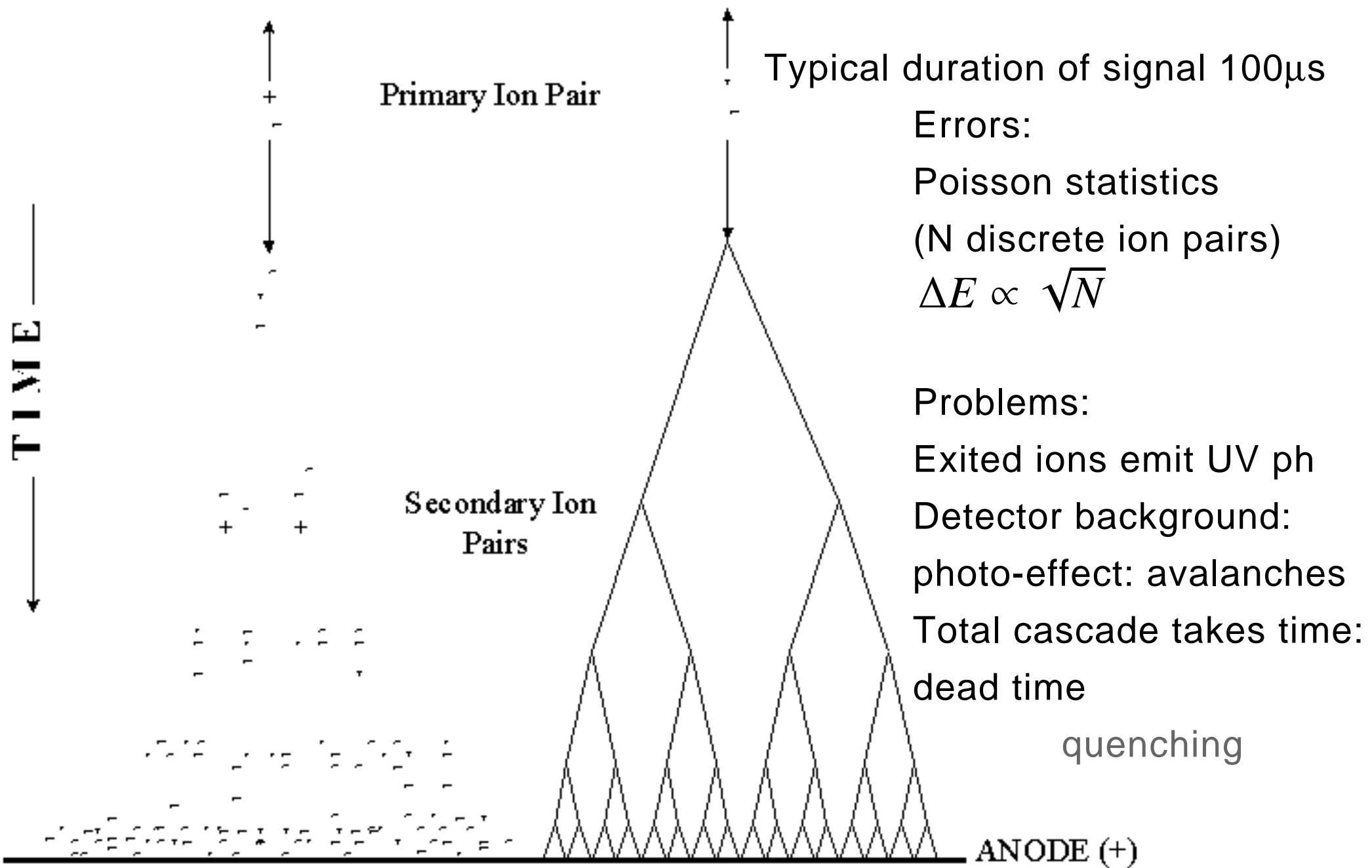
1. Operating Voltage.

The higher the operating voltage, the larger each avalanche and the larger the pulse.

2. Energy of X-ray photon.

The greater the energy of photon the larger the number of primary ions the larger the number of avalanches, and the larger the pulse.

III. 4. Proportional counters. Avalanche.



III. 5. Background.

Background results from:

- * Particles and Photons
- * Particles: cosmic rays, interplanetary rays, radiation belts around Earth
- * radioactivity of detector, trapped electrons, solar activity..
- * Cosmic X-ray background, unresolved sources, secondary UV photons
- * optical leakage, et cet...

Understanding the background is key to correct interpretation of the data

Non-Imaging Instruments: how to reject background?

Energy Selection:

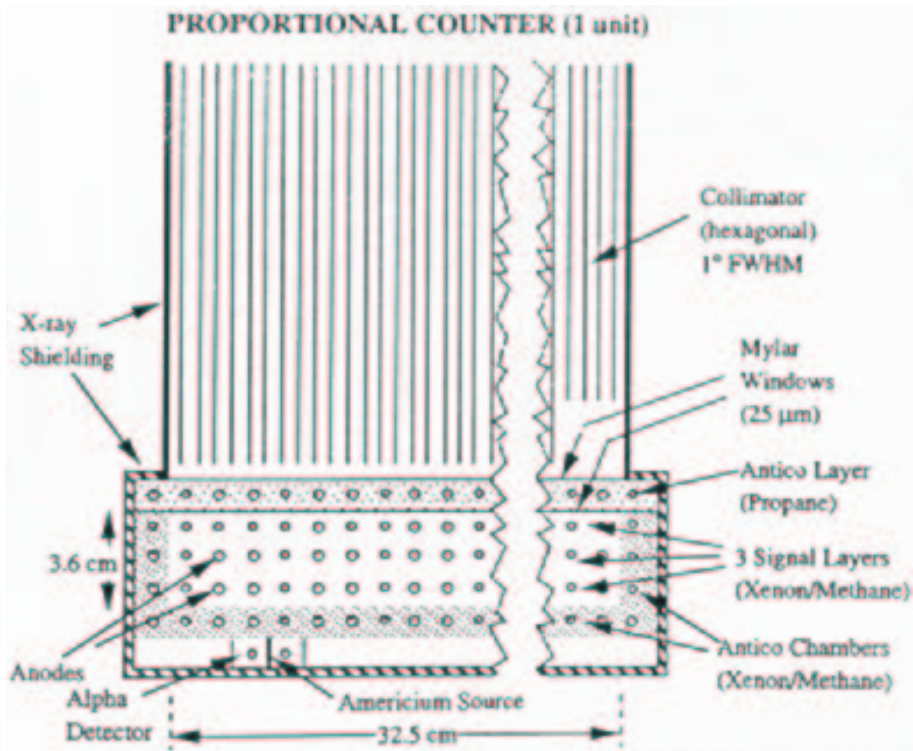
rejecting all events which deposit energies outside the X-ray bandpass

rise-time discrimination

anti-coincidence within a sub-divided gas cell

Reducing background by factor 100!

III. 6. The Rossi X-ray Timing Explorer Mission (1995-present)



<http://heasarc.gsfc.nasa.gov/docs/xte/xtegef.html>

NASA, 2 to 250 keV

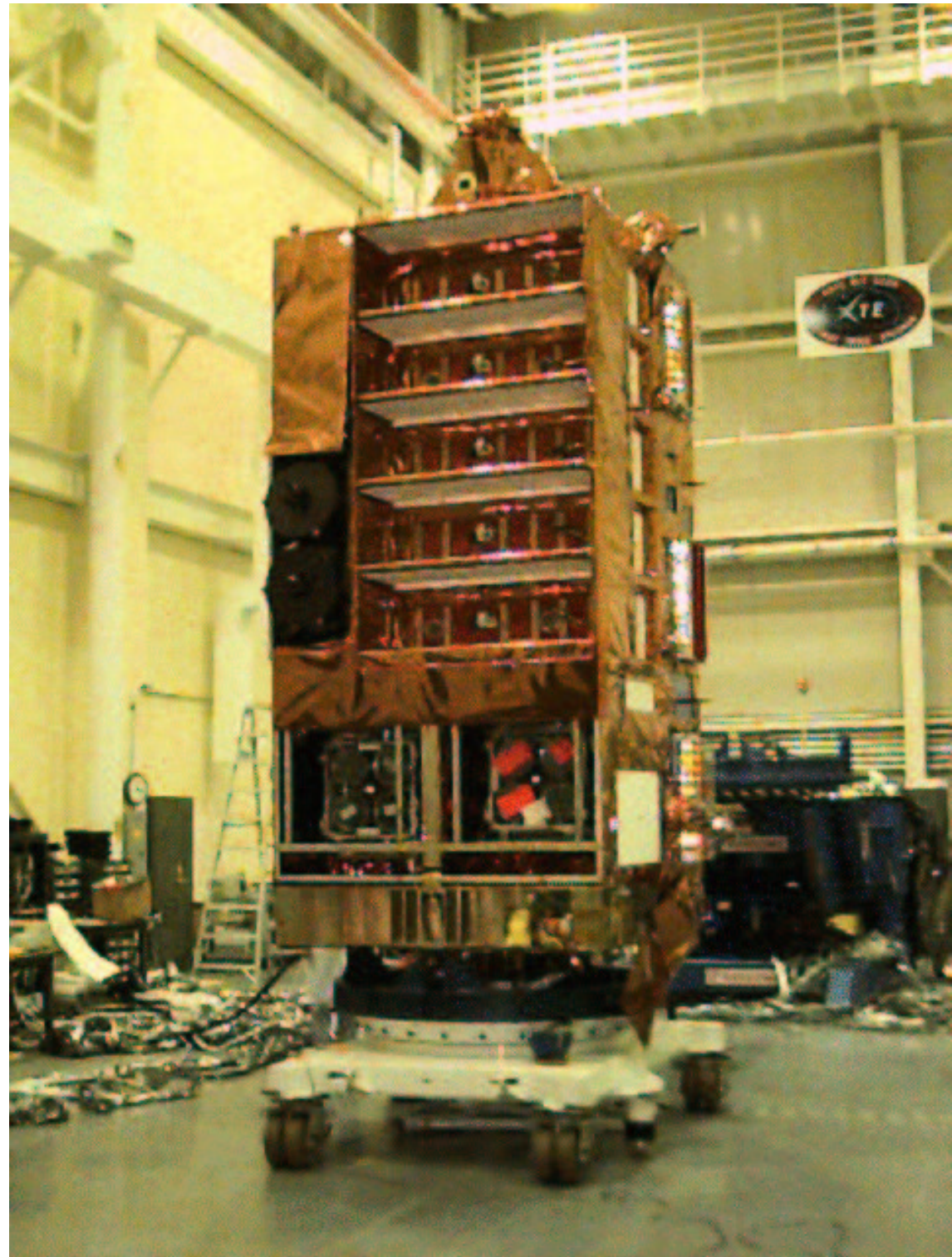
Proportional Counter Array

High-energy X-ray timing experiment

All Sky Monitor

μsec resolution, it is all about timing

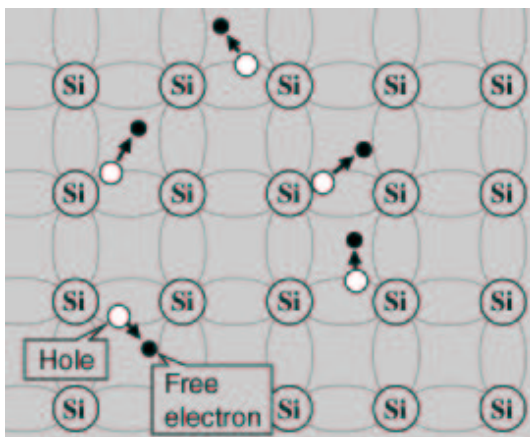
Blach Holes, pulsars, etc...



III. 7. CCD: Charge Coupled Devices - Imaging

- * An array of linked ("coupled") capacitors
- * Photons interact in a semiconductor substrate and are converted into electrons
- * An applied electric field collects and stores the electrons in pixels
- * Pixels are "coupled" and can transfer their stored charge to neighboring pixels
- * Stored charge is transferred to an output amplifier and read out

III. 8. Reminder: What is Semiconductor?



A silicon crystal is different from an insulator

- $T > 0$: finite probability that an electron in the lattice
- is knocked loose from its position
- behind is an electron deficiency called a "hole"
- voltage: both the electron and the hole contribute to small cu

The Doping of Semiconductors

The addition of a small percentage of foreign atoms in the regular crystal lattice of silicon or germanium changes their electrical properties producing n-type and p-type semiconductors.

see <http://hyperphysics.phy-astr.gsu.edu/hbase/hframe.html>

- Atoms with 5 valence electrons produce n-type semiconductors by contributing extra electrons.

- Atoms with 3 valence electrons produce p-type semiconductors by producing a "hole" or electron deficiency.

III. 9. Photoelectric Absorption

Photoelectric interaction of X-ray with Si atoms generates electron-hole pairs.

On average: $N_e = E_x/w$, N_e = number of electrons, E_x = energy of X-ray photon
 $W \sim 3.7 \text{ eV/e}^-$ (temperature dependent)

X-ray creates a charge cloud which can diffuse and/or move under influence of an electric field

A single metal-oxide-semiconductor (MOS) storage well,
the basic element in a CCD

- X-ray CCDs operated in photon-counting mode
- Spectroscopy requires 1 photon interaction per pixel per frametime
- Minimum frametime limited by readout rate
- Tradeoff between increasing readout rate and noise

To be continued...