

# Polarimetry: a different window to the sky

*even for small telescopes*

Paolo Picchi, UniFi

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# MAIN TOPICS COVERED IN THIS TALK

- Basic Principles and Polarigenesis

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- Optical Polarization (instrumentation and data analysis)

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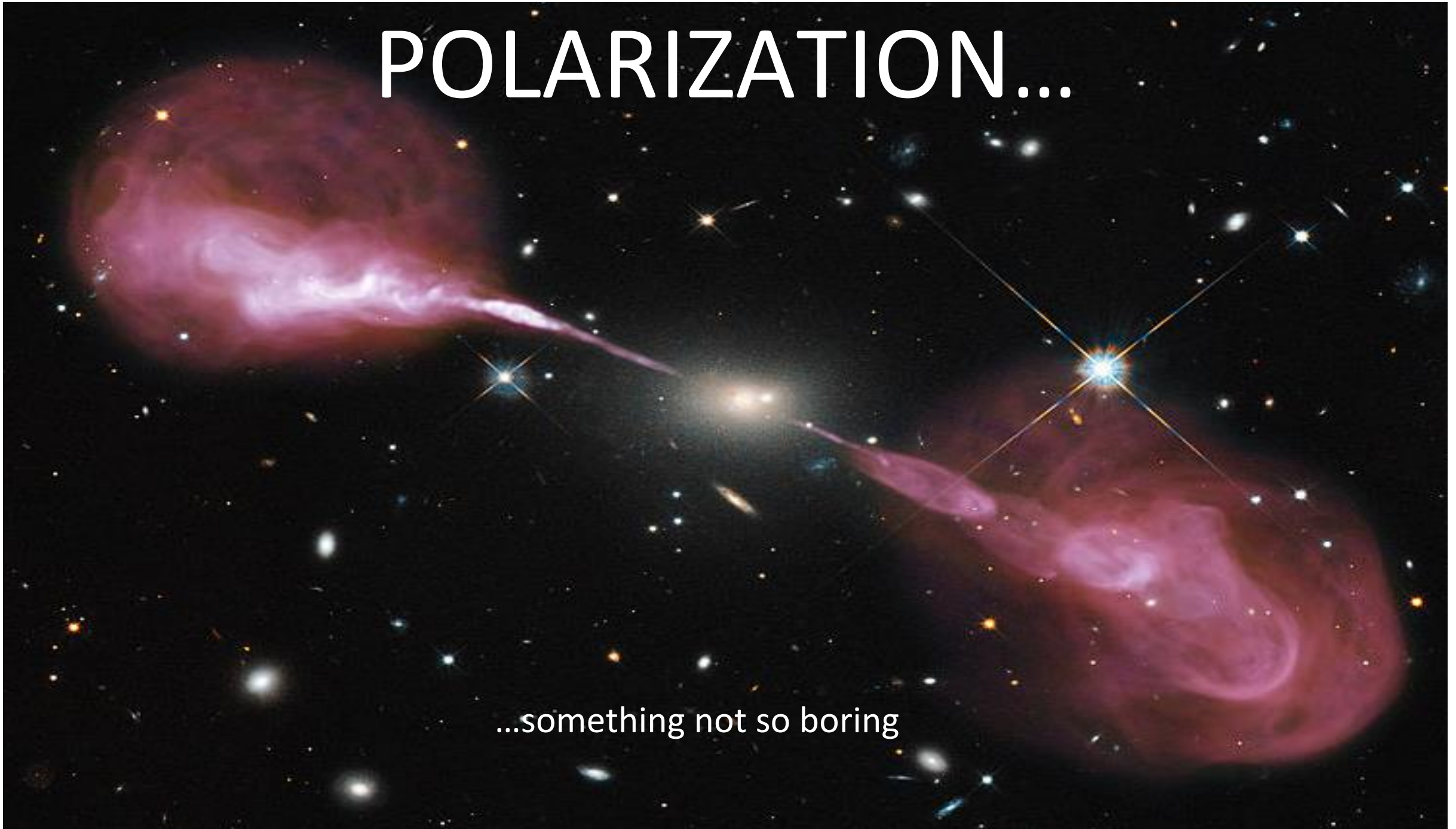
- Basic Principles and Polarigenesis
- Optical Polarization (instrumentation and data analysis)
- Polarization observations with small telescopes (Pros and Cons)

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- Optical Polarization (instrumentation and data analysis)
- Polarization observations with small telescopes (Pros and Cons)
- Polarimetry with small telescopes: A **practical** example

# POLARIZATION...

...something not so boring



# Why studying polarization?

- For **unresolved** astrophysical sources it is the most powerful tool to probe the **distribution** of the emitting material.

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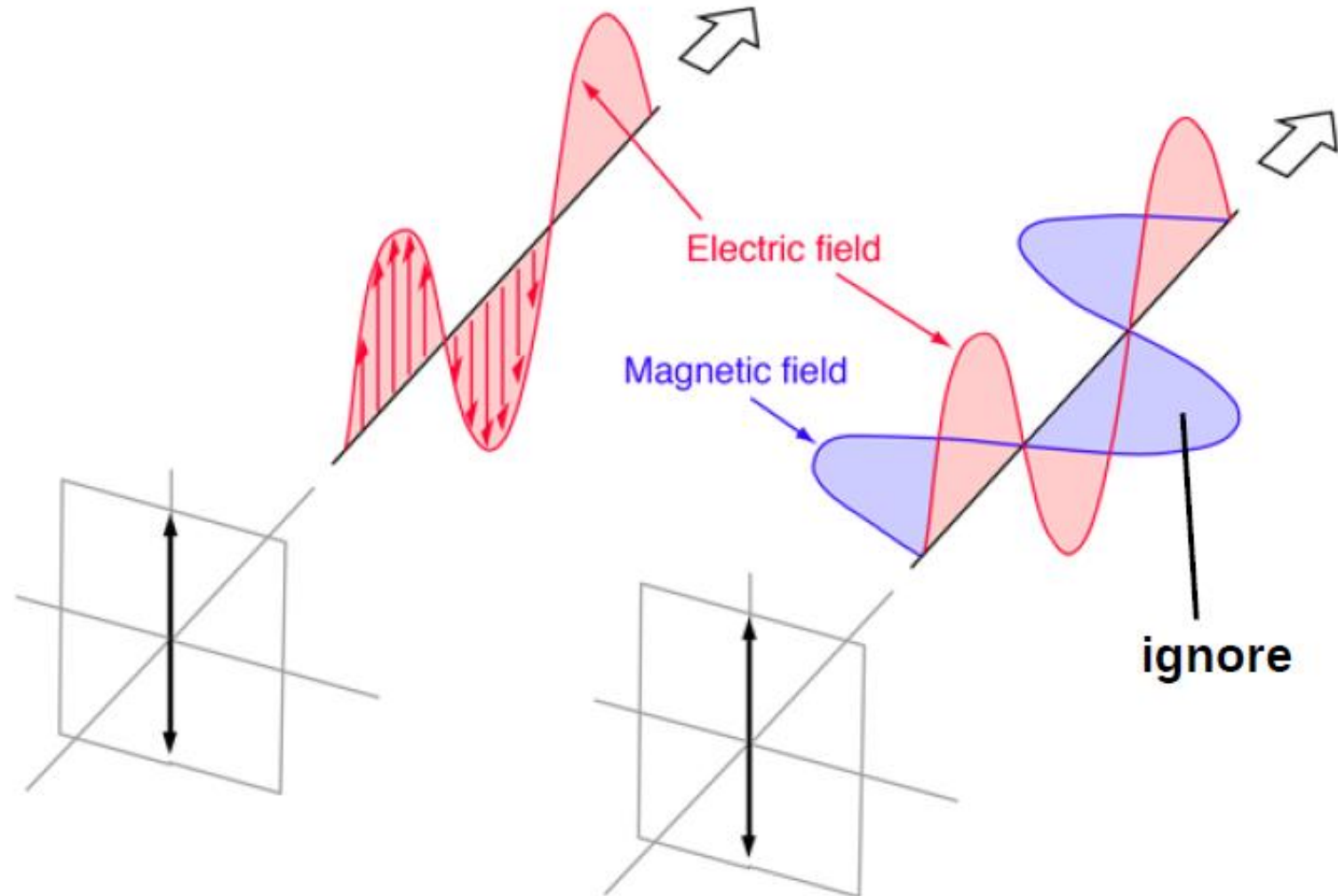
- For **unresolved** astrophysical sources it is the most powerful tool to probe the **distribution** of the emitting material.
  
- Mapping of the magnetic field **(STRUCTURE !)**

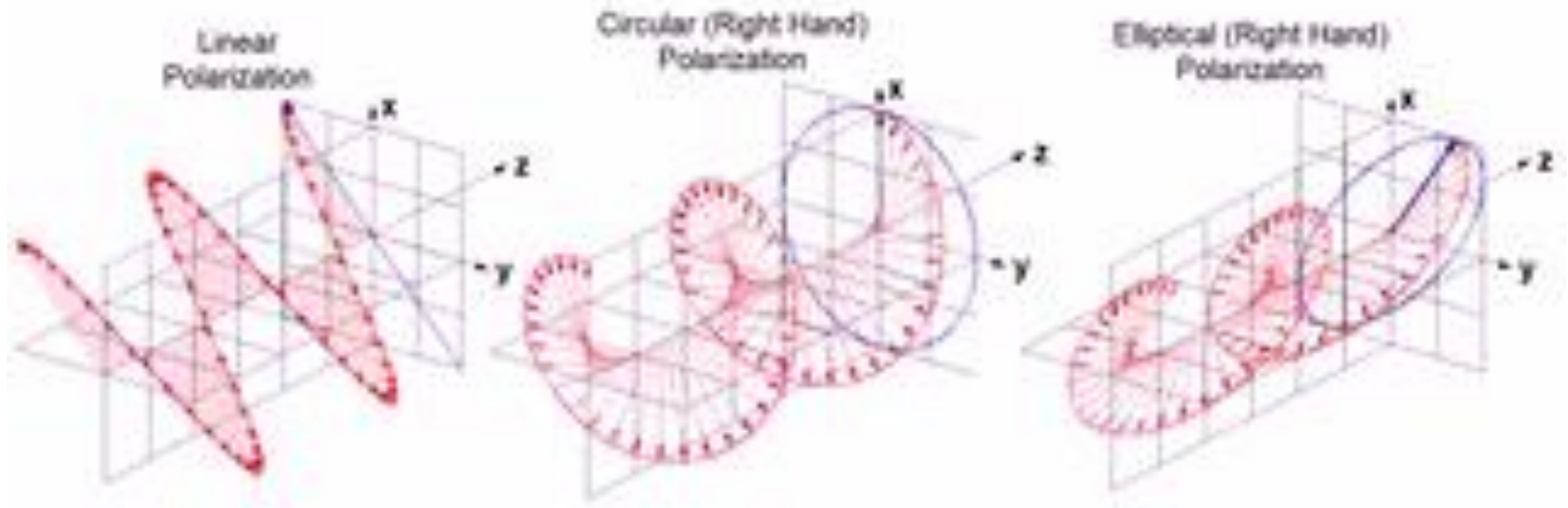


## Why studying polarization?

- For **unresolved** astrophysical sources it is the most powerful tool to probe the **distribution** of the emitting material.
- Mapping of the magnetic field **(STRUCTURE !)**
- Detailed study of nonthermal processes and associated emission regions (Synchrotron, Inverse Compton)

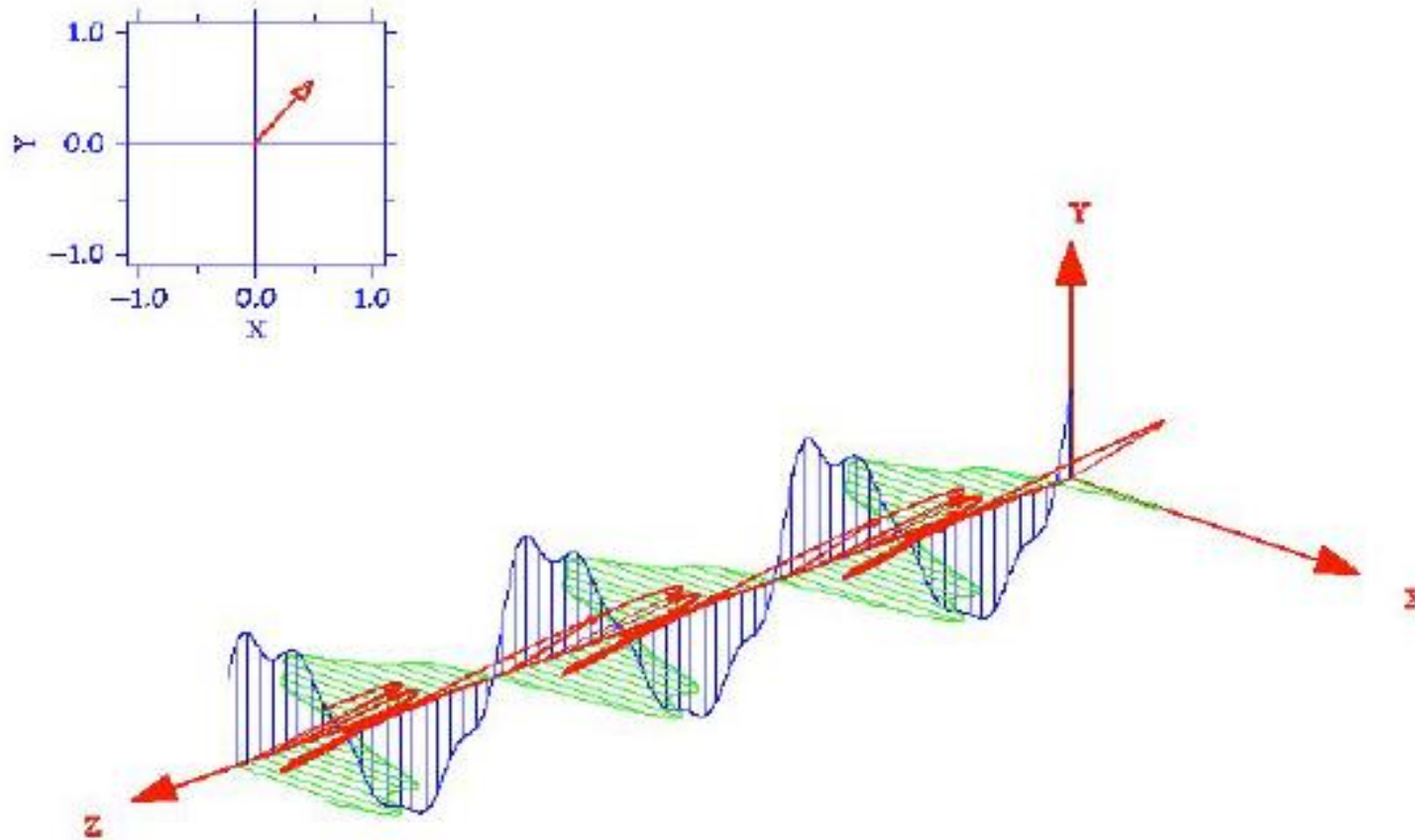
# Electromagnetic waves: Look at E field only





MakeAGIF.com

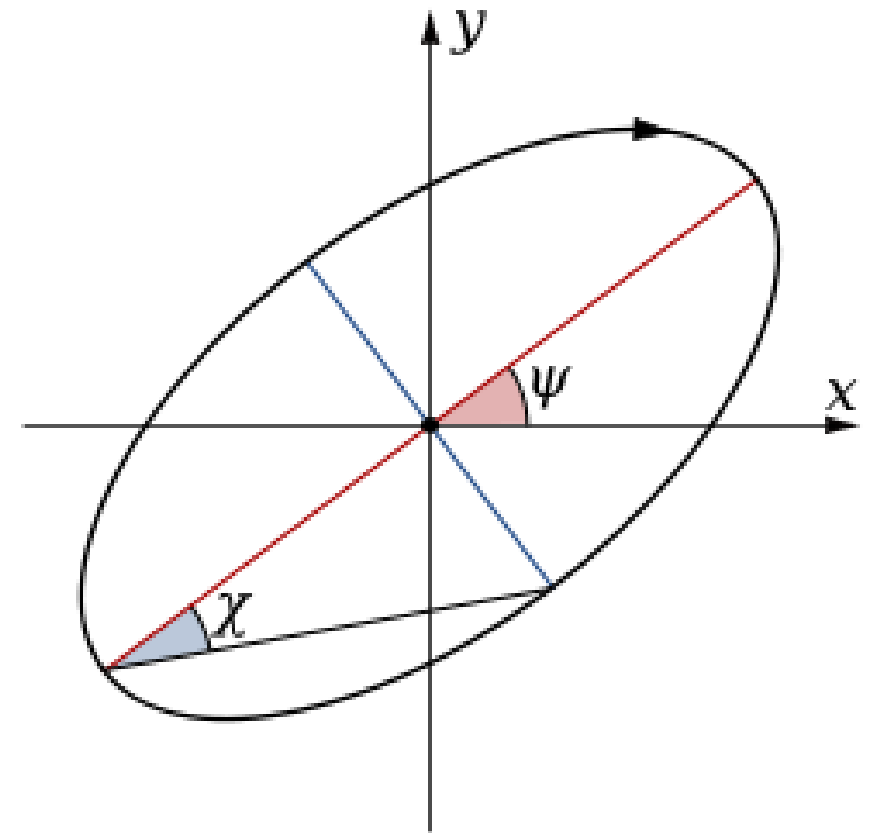
## Unpolarized Light

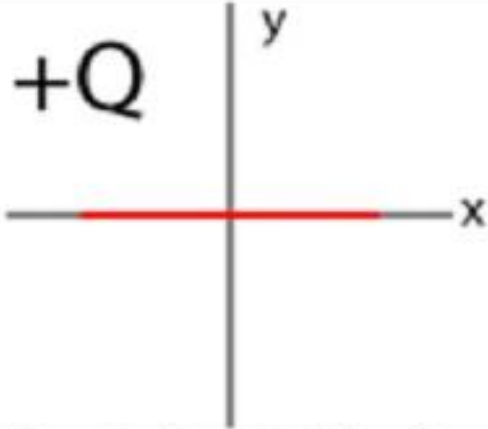
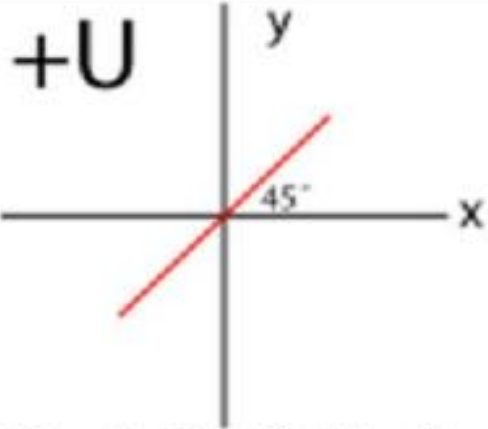
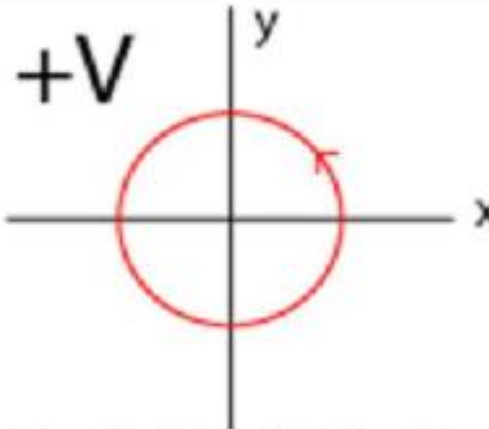
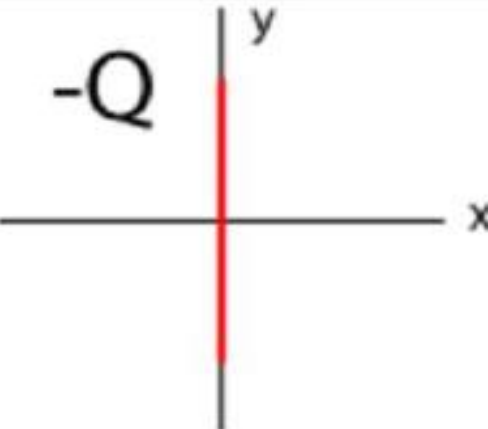
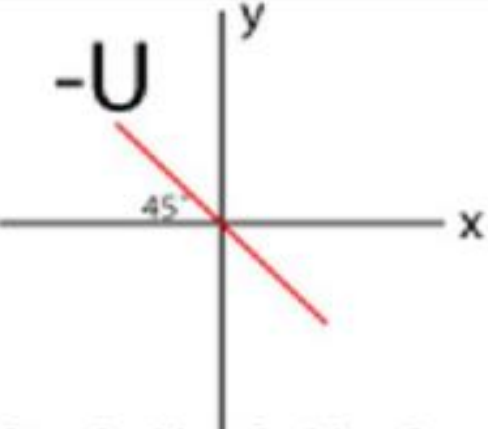
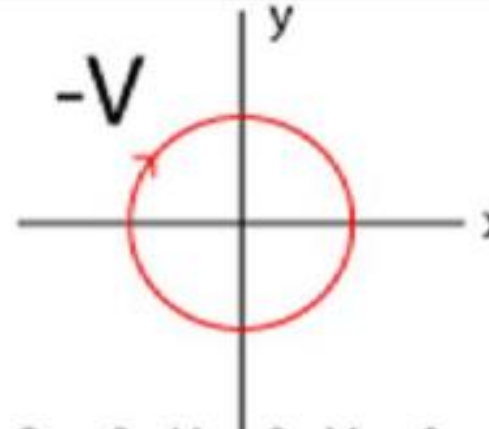


When integrating over time, the net polarization is null

# Stokes Parameters

$$\begin{aligned}
 I &\longleftrightarrow S_0 = I \\
 Q &\longleftrightarrow S_1 = Ip \cos 2\psi \cos 2\chi \\
 U &\longleftrightarrow S_2 = Ip \sin 2\psi \cos 2\chi \\
 V &\longleftrightarrow S_3 = Ip \sin 2\chi
 \end{aligned}$$



100% Q	100% U	100% V
<p data-bbox="428 244 563 329"><b>+Q</b></p>  <p data-bbox="420 635 853 692"><math>Q &gt; 0; U = 0; V = 0</math></p> <p data-bbox="598 699 675 749">(a)</p>	<p data-bbox="1065 244 1200 301"><b>+U</b></p>  <p data-bbox="1057 635 1490 692"><math>Q = 0; U &gt; 0; V = 0</math></p> <p data-bbox="1235 699 1312 749">(c)</p>	<p data-bbox="1676 244 1811 301"><b>+V</b></p>  <p data-bbox="1668 635 2102 692"><math>Q = 0; U = 0; V &gt; 0</math></p> <p data-bbox="1847 699 1923 749">(e)</p>
<p data-bbox="466 815 575 901"><b>-Q</b></p>  <p data-bbox="420 1206 853 1263"><math>Q &lt; 0; U = 0; V = 0</math></p> <p data-bbox="598 1270 675 1320">(b)</p>	<p data-bbox="1103 815 1212 872"><b>-U</b></p>  <p data-bbox="1057 1206 1490 1263"><math>Q = 0, U &lt; 0, V = 0</math></p> <p data-bbox="1235 1270 1312 1320">(d)</p>	<p data-bbox="1714 815 1824 872"><b>-V</b></p>  <p data-bbox="1668 1206 2102 1263"><math>Q = 0; U = 0; V &lt; 0</math></p> <p data-bbox="1847 1270 1923 1320">(f)</p>

In general, the light that we will measure **is always partially polarized**, therefore:

$$\sqrt{Q^2 + U^2 + V^2} \leq I$$

$$P = \frac{\sqrt{Q^2 + U^2 + V^2}}{I}, P_C = \frac{V}{I}$$

$$PA_L = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \frac{U}{Q} \longrightarrow \text{PRESERVING QUADRANT TANGENT}$$

$$PA_C = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \frac{V}{\sqrt{Q^2 + U^2}}$$

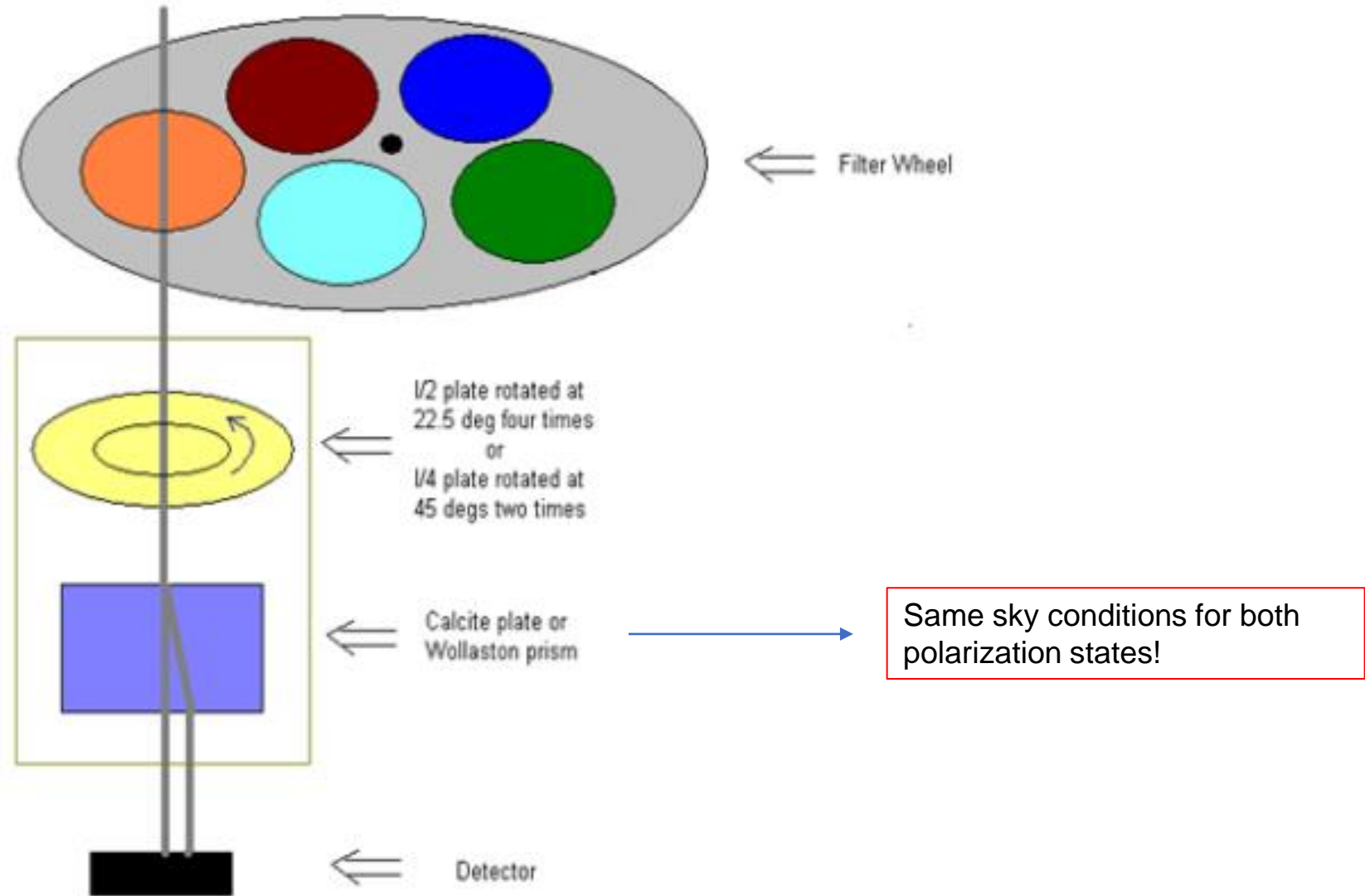
(USUALLY  $V \ll Q, U$  IN OPTICAL OBSERVATIONS)



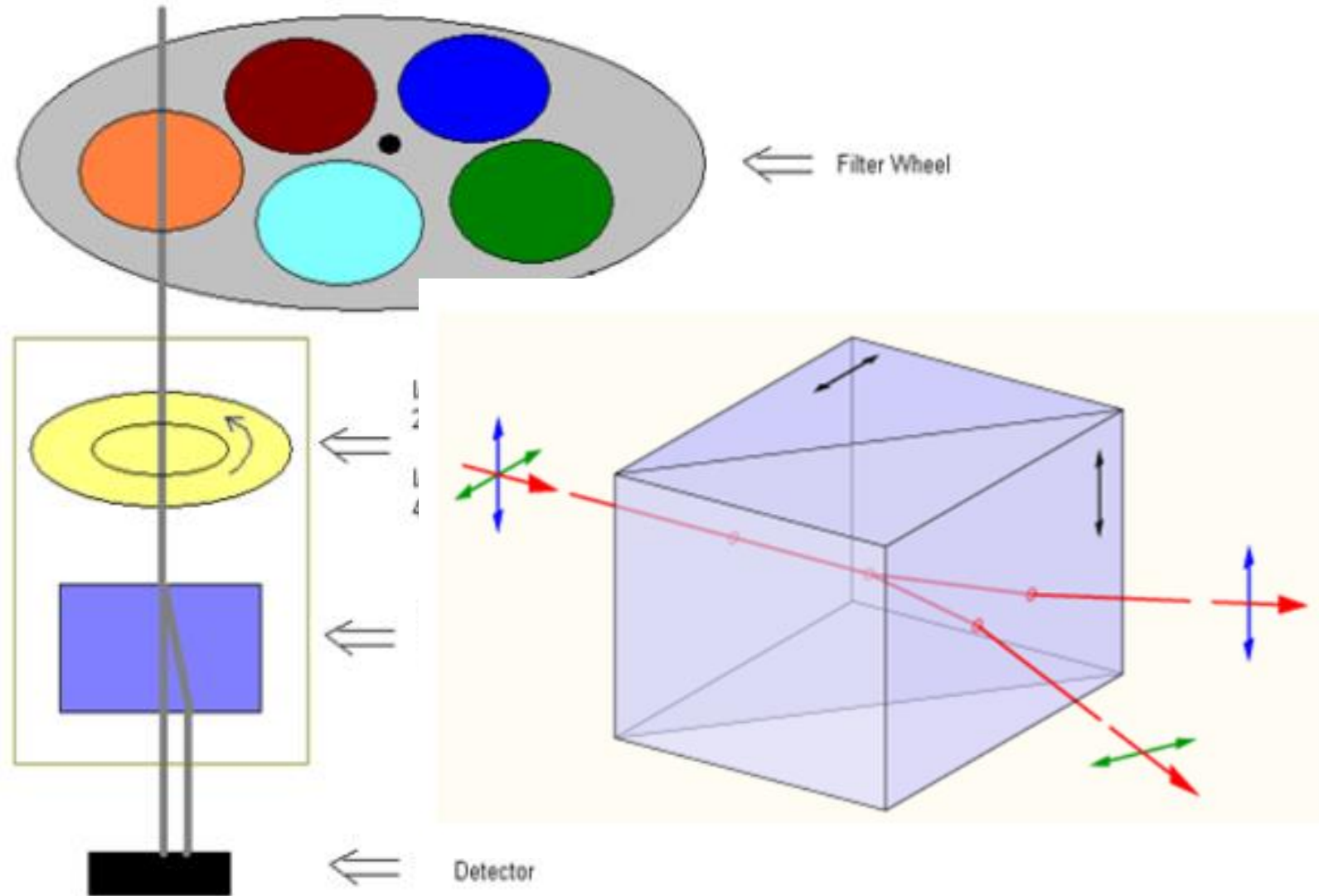
- Stokes parameters fully describe the polarization state of a light beam, regardless if it's partially polarized/unpolarized.
- Stokes parameters describe the polarization state of a light beam irrespective of its spectrum (monochromatic or polychromatic).
- Stokes vectors are additive (Chandrasekhar 1950). The polarization status of a beam resulting from two beams is due to the sum of two beams. This is true if the two beams **are not** correlated (no phase dependence)! (**Use Jones calculus otherwise**).

# Polarimeters design

# The basic type of polarimeter that can be installed on a small telescope

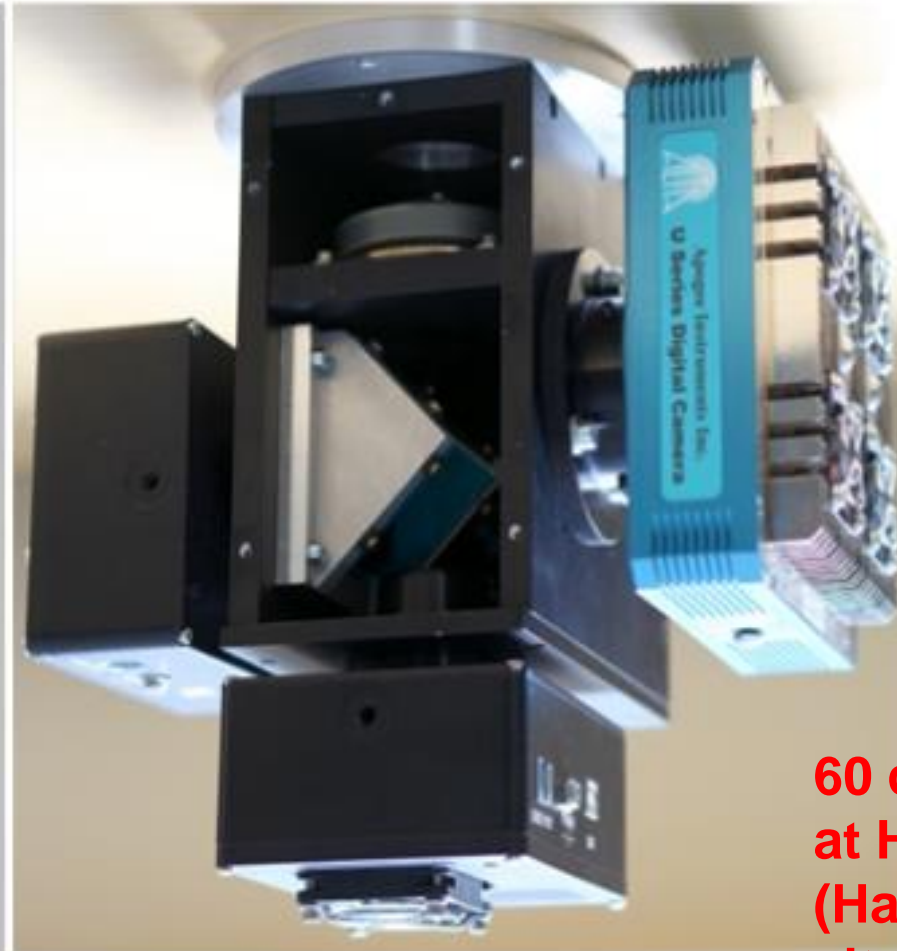
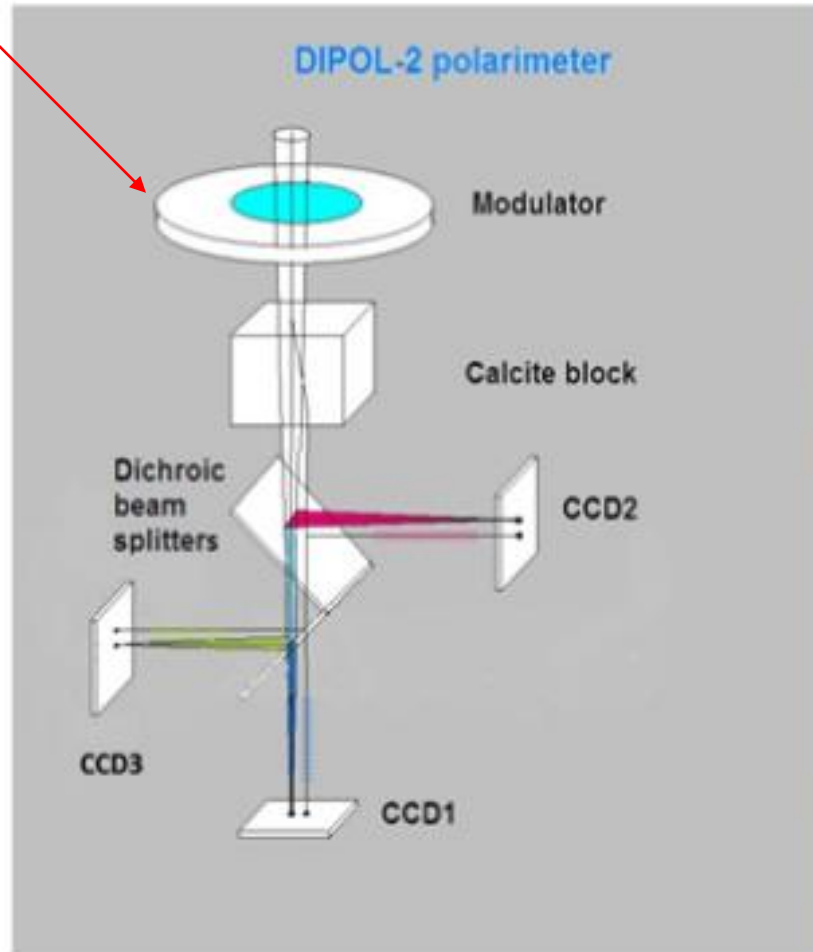


The basic type of polarimeter that can be installed on a small telescope



Another polarimeter: more sensitivity without so much effort...

**SUPER-ACHROMATIC!**



**60 cm Telescope  
at Haleakala  
(Hawaii) telescope  
site.**

# Data analysis

- N HWP positions (4, 8, 16...) are taken, so we have a **set of  $2N$  equations** to be solved. Even if two positions would be sufficient to find Q and U, at least 4 positions are considered. Redundancy helps in reducing systematic errors and dispersions in the measurements!

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- If one has a polarimeter with a Wollaston prism, on the CCD they will compare two images of the target: these are the so-called ordinary ( $I_o$ ) and extraordinary rays ( $I_e$ ). This double-beam approach has the advantage of taking into account seeing variations in both polarization beams.

$$I_o = \frac{1}{2}(I + Q \cdot \cos(2\theta) + U \cdot \sin(2\theta))$$

$$I_e = \frac{1}{2}(I - Q \cdot \cos(2\theta) - U \cdot \sin(2\theta))$$

$$F_i = \frac{I_o - I_e}{I_o + I_e}$$

$$I = I_o + I_e$$



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- From the definitions of  $P$  and  $\chi$ , we have

$$F_i = P \cos(4\theta_i - 2\chi)$$

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- It can be demonstrated that the best choice for the HWP is in applying  $\Delta\theta = \frac{\pi}{8}$ , this guarantees you the less dispersions among Stokes parameters. Moreover, If one applies this:

$$\begin{cases} Q = \frac{2}{N} \sum_i^N F_i \cos(\frac{\pi}{2} i) \\ U = \frac{2}{N} \sum_i^N F_i \sin(\frac{\pi}{2} i) \end{cases}$$

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- If one has a good polarimeter, usually **4 angles are sufficient**. In this case, one can obtain Q and U in the following way

- $r = \frac{I_e}{I_o}; r_{TOT} = r_0 + r_{22,5^\circ} + r_{45^\circ} + r_{67,5^\circ}$

- $$\begin{cases} Q = \frac{r_0 - r_{45^\circ}}{r_{TOT}} \\ U = \frac{r_{22,5^\circ} - r_{67,5^\circ}}{r_{TOT}} \end{cases}$$

# ERROR ANALYSIS

Remember that what one measures are the Stokes Parameters, while usually, from the scientific point of view, P and PA are considered.  
If Q, U follows gaussian distributions, P and PA do not!!

$$P = \frac{\sqrt{Q^2 + U^2}}{I}$$
$$PA = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \frac{U}{Q}$$

$$\sigma_P = \sqrt{\frac{Q^2}{P^2} \sigma_Q^2 + \frac{U^2}{P^2} \sigma_U^2}$$
$$\sigma_{\chi} = \frac{\sigma_P}{2P}$$

First order and no correlation!

How much photons do we require?



$$\sigma_P = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N/2} \cdot SNR}$$

This means that with **SNR=100** and **N=4**, we obtain a **RMS error of 0,7%** in P.

If we want a precision of 0,1%, a **SNR~700** is needed!

- All of these results are valid if the Stokes Parameters (and P and  $\chi$ ) follow **Gaussian distributions**.
- For Q and U this is valid for **SNR $\sim$ 3**, but NOT for P and  $\chi$ !
- The reason for this is that P is the quadrature sum of Q and U and therefore statistical errors always sum in the positive direction.

- The error distribution tends to the Rayleigh function

$$f(P) = \frac{P}{\langle P \rangle^2} \left\{ 1 - \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{P}{\langle P \rangle}\right)^2\right] \right\}$$

$$R \sim R_M' \left[ 1 - \left(\frac{\sigma'}{R_M'}\right)^2 \right]^{1/2}$$

*Wardle&Cronberg, ApJ  
(1974)*

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Other problems arise when dealing with polarization observations: Wollaston defects, HWP angle errors, sky polarization, background subtraction...but all of these can be controlled and calibrated

# POLARIMETRY: OBSERVATIONS WITH SMALL TELESCOPES

(< 2 m)

- Stellar Physics (Radiative transfer, Be Stars, YSO, WRs, stellar/disk-winds, circumstellar matter...).
- Exoplanets (atmospheres)
- Galactic maps of the ISM (caveat: high-resolution instruments and very good observing site needed).

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## Why a small telescope?

- Polarimetry require a lot of time (and photons), so the use of this technique is more difficult to obtain on very large telescopes → A small telescope has less constraint from this point of view (even if has its limitations on low magnitudes objects).
- Usually, it is crucial to map how a given structure changes in time, to constrain the physical processes going on that are affecting the polarization state → a small telescope can tackle this objective (with a dedicated instrument for example).
- If there's a transient one can map the polarization change of the source. A small telescope can have fast reaction times if no time is allocated.
- Last but not least: can provide new (and very good!) data to students for their theses or PhD project, permitting a more open science without trying to have time on high-end telescopes (see next example!).

# **POLARIMETRY WITH SMALL TELESCOPES: A PRACTICAL EXAMPLE.**

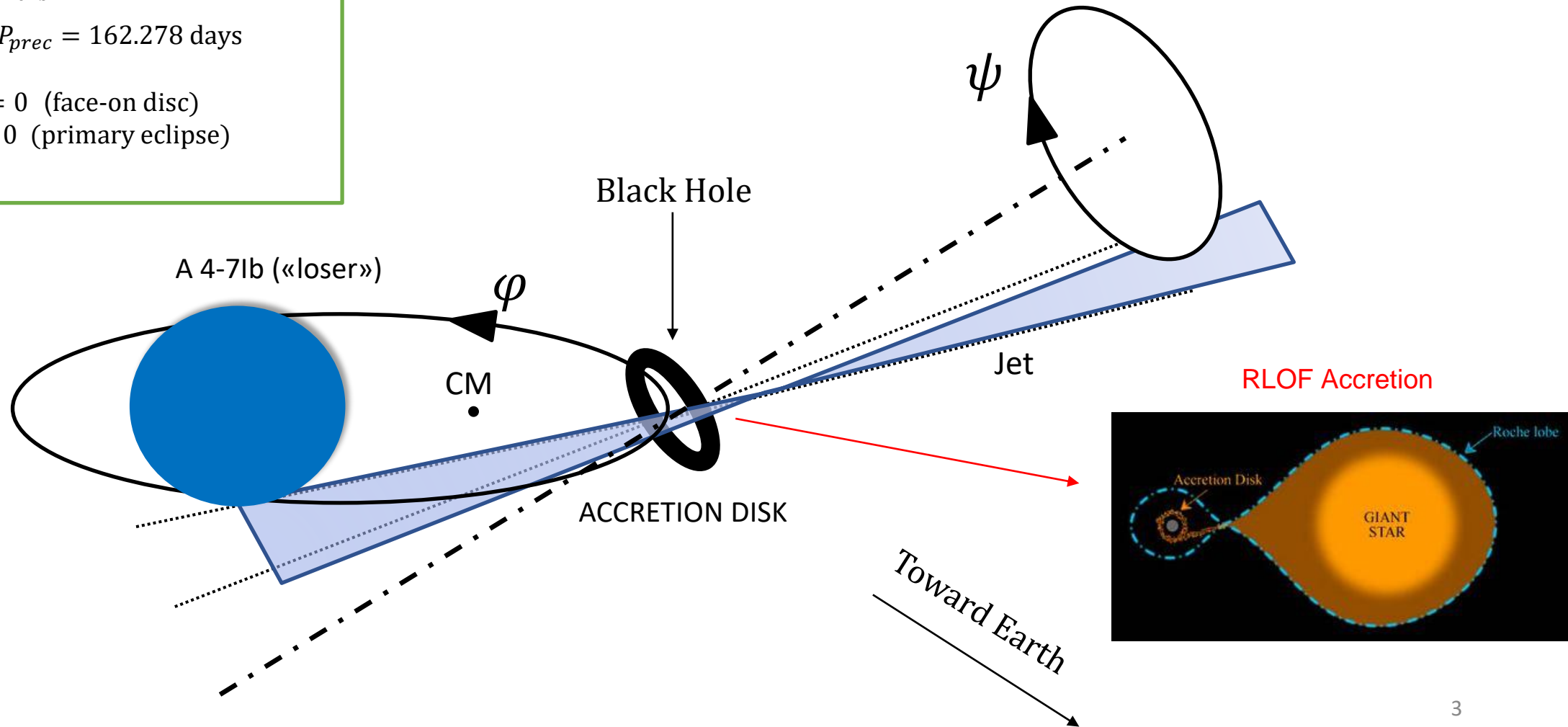
# SS 433: the prototype among microquasars.

$$P_{orb} = 13.08221 \text{ days}$$

$$P_{prec} = 162.278 \text{ days}$$

$\psi = 0$  (face-on disc)

$\varphi = 0$  (primary eclipse)

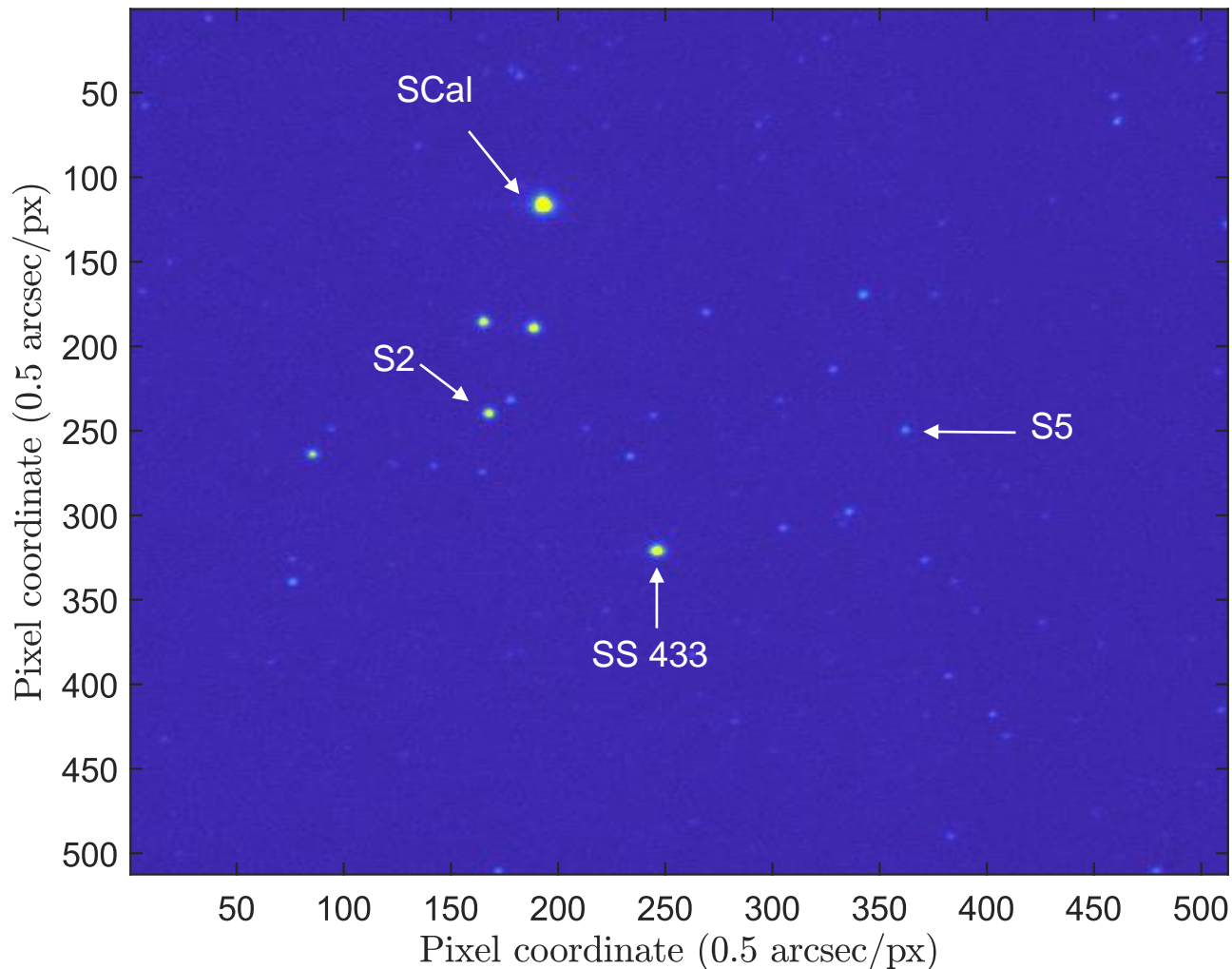


# Once the data are calibrated you still cannot work on the data...ISM!!

METHOD APPLIED FOR SS 433

The ISM contributes to the measured polarisation!

SS 433 field of view



$$q_{obs} = q_{SS433} + q_{ISM}$$

$$u_{obs} = u_{SS433} + u_{ISM}$$

Serkowski law:

$$p(\lambda) = p_{max} \exp(-1.13 \ln^2 \frac{\lambda}{\lambda_{max}})$$

Filter	$P(\%)$	$PA(^{\circ})$
<i>B S2</i>	$1.91 \pm 0.06$	$49.2 \pm 1.0$
<i>B S5</i>	$1.10 \pm 0.20$	$51.7 \pm 5.2$
<i>B SCal</i>	$4.29 \pm 0.20$	$176.3 \pm 1.3$
<i>V S2</i>	$1.86 \pm 0.06$	$48.0 \pm 0.9$
<i>V S5</i>	$1.58 \pm 0.21$	$52.6 \pm 3.7$
<i>V SCal</i>	$4.37 \pm 0.07$	$176.1 \pm 0.5$
<i>R S2</i>	$1.78 \pm 0.03$	$48.0 \pm 0.4$
<i>R S5</i>	$1.27 \pm 0.09$	$49.7 \pm 2.0$
<i>R SCal</i>	$4.46 \pm 0.03$	$176.9 \pm 0.2$

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## Parallaxes and fit parameters for the Serkowski law

<i>Star</i>	<i>Parallax (mas)</i> (GAIA DR2)	$P_{max}$ (%)	$\lambda_{max}$ (Å)	$\frac{\chi^2}{dof}$
S2	$0.98 \pm 0.03$	$1.93 \pm 0.04$	$5082.5 \pm 192.2$	0.82
S5	$1.51 \pm 0.06$	$1.33 \pm 0.08$	$5786 \pm 1059$	1.98
S <i>Cal</i>	$0.25 \pm 0.08$	$4.48 \pm 0.03$	$6065.3 \pm 207.0$	3.49

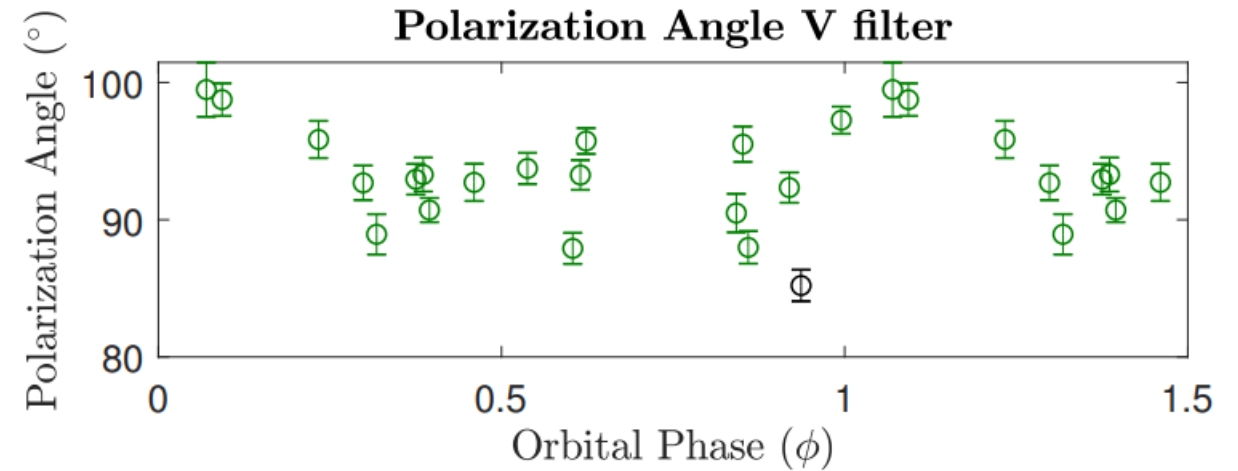
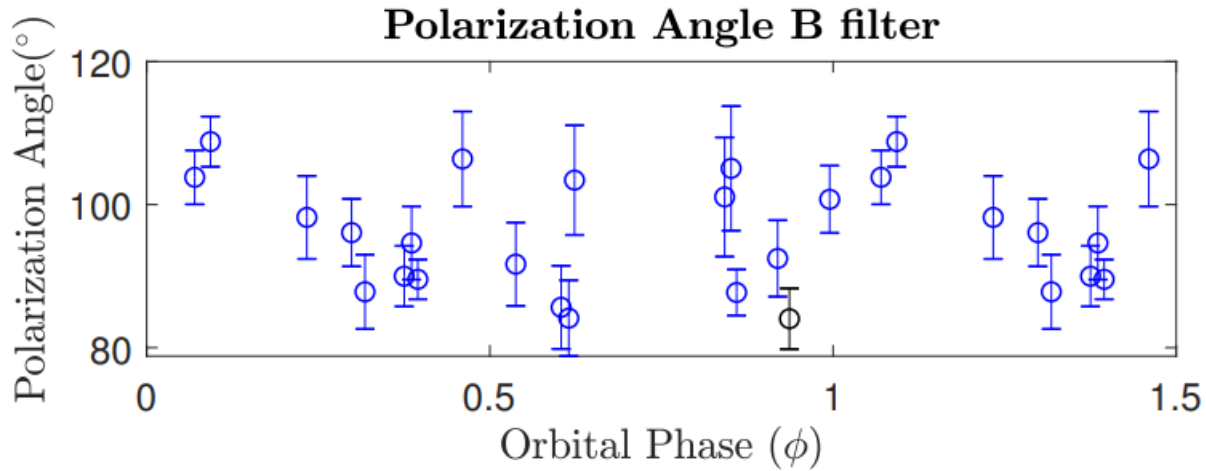
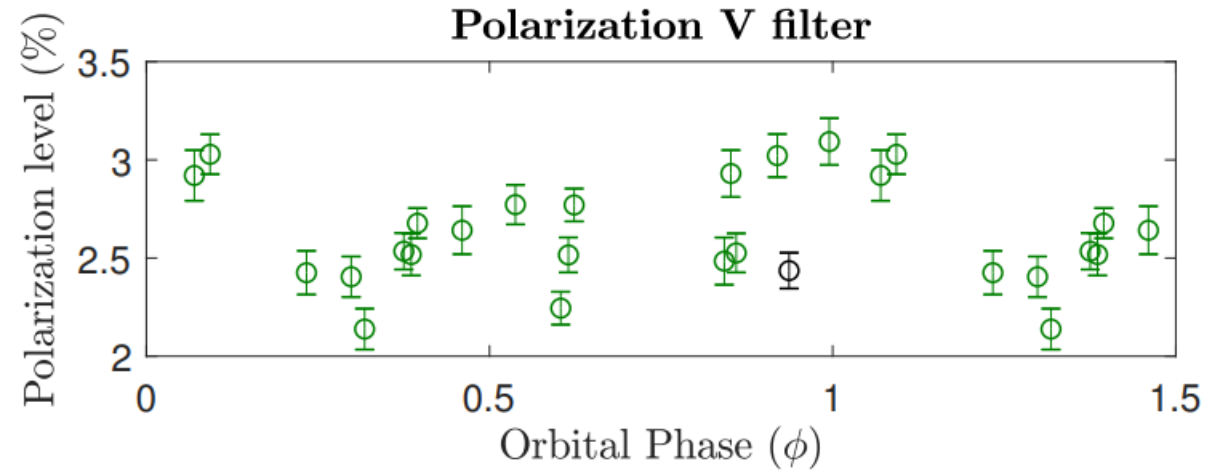
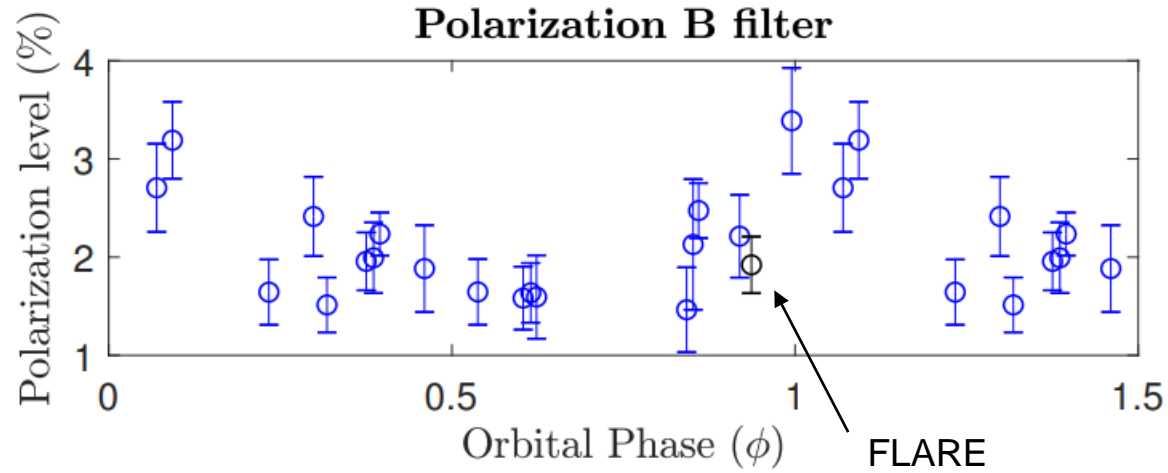
$$\text{Parallax}_{SS433} = 0.22 \pm 0.06 \text{ mas}$$

One needs to find the Serkowski law,  
corresponding to the ISM in proximity of SS433.



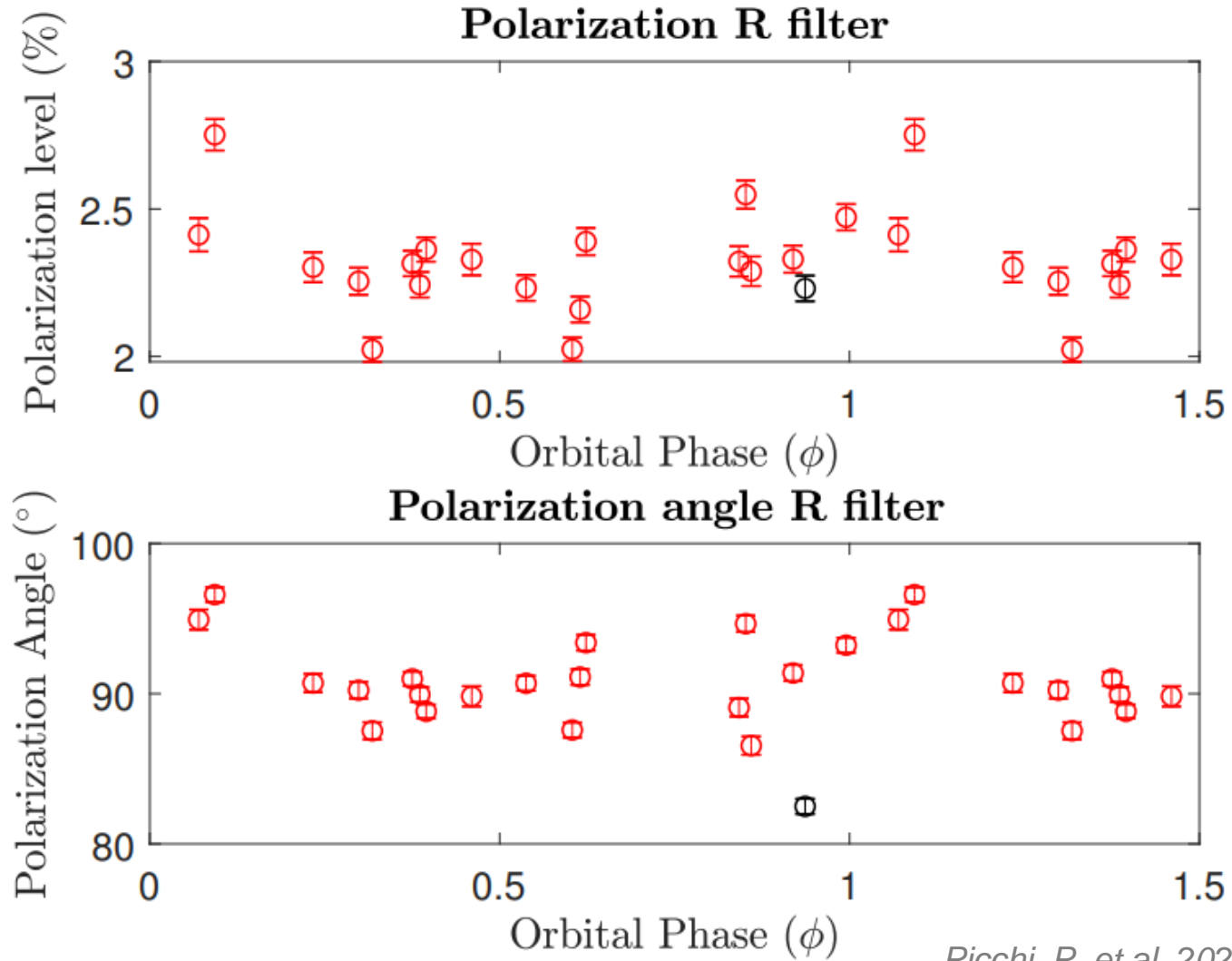
Filter	$q$ (%)	$u$ (%)
<i>U</i>	$3.21 \pm 0.20$	$-0.42 \pm 0.23$
<i>B</i>	$4.26 \pm 0.20$	$-0.55 \pm 0.19$
<i>V</i>	$4.33 \pm 0.07$	$-0.60 \pm 0.08$
<i>R</i>	$4.43 \pm 0.03$	$-0.48 \pm 0.03$

# RESULTS: Polarization





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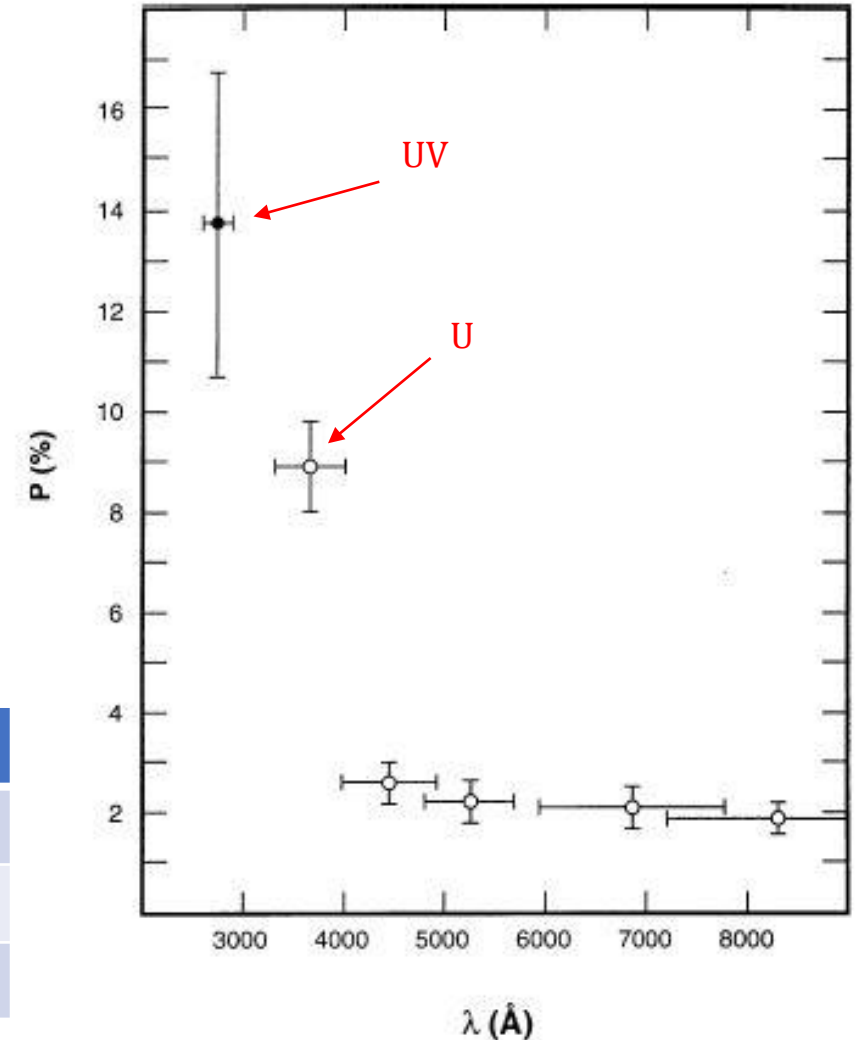
# JUST THOMSON SCATTERING?

Dolan et al. (1997) took Hubble UV polarimetry measurements (with HSP instruments) of SS433 at 2772 Å and in U, B, V, R, I bands.

Rayleigh scattering?  $\sigma_R = \sigma_T \left(\frac{\lambda_0}{\lambda}\right)^4$

They measured a dramatic increase in PL toward UV, but strange shift in PA! They raised problems for calibration issues!

Polarization angle (°)					
DOLAN			PICCHI		
U	B	V	U	B	V
90 ± 10	141 ± 16	92 ± 18	90.9 ± 2.2	91.7 ± 7.5	92.3 ± 2.7



Dolan et al. (1997)

**N.B. The jet position angle is of 100°!**

# CONCLUSIONS

- High quality polarimetric data have been taken with a small aperture telescope (60 cm) on a highly reddened source ( $B \sim 16$  mag,  $R \sim 12$  mag)
- First intrinsic polarization measurements of SS433 have been obtained → understanding of intrinsic polarization process in the UV-optical region
- Confirmed the structure of the disk-wind as indicated also by spectroscopic data

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**WHEN STUDYING HIGHLY COMPLEX SYSTEMS (AS OFTEN HAPPENS IN ASTROPHYSICS) IT IS CRUCIAL TO HAVE COMPLEMENTARY DATASETS THAT CAN DISENTANGLE THE MULTIPLE DEGENERACIES PRESENT IN THE SYSTEM.**



«I read in the *Moniteur*, a few months ago, that Biot had read at the Institut a very interesting memoir on the *polarization of light*. No matter how much I rack my brain, I have no idea what that means.»

Augustin-Jean Fresnel to his brother, Léonor, May 1814.



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## Questions, Comments, Concerns



### Contact details:

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