

Imagers and Detectors

ATI 2017 Lecture 9

M. Kenworthy // Leiden Observatory

Observations

Astronomical observations are:

Expensive

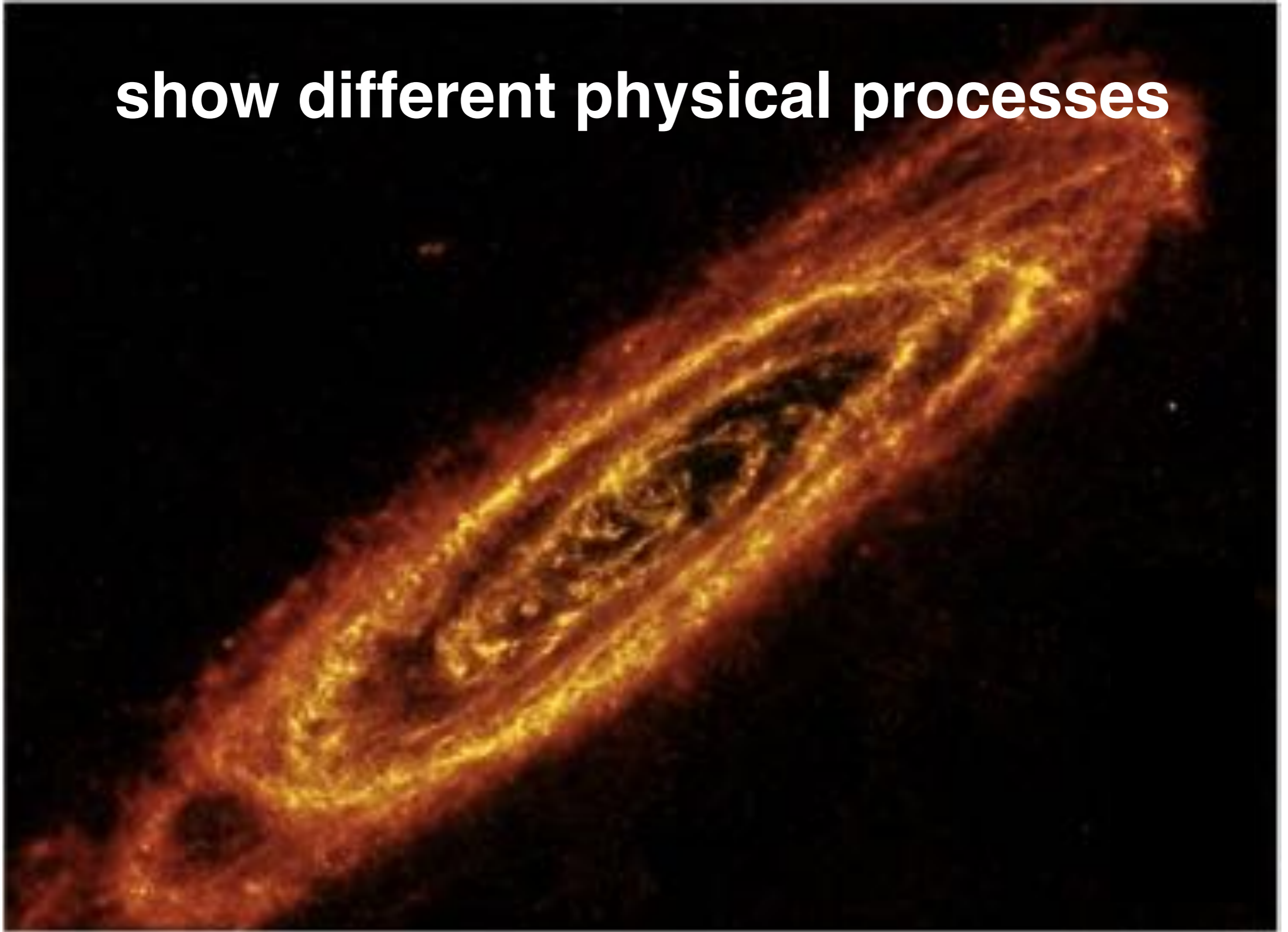
Impossible to repeat in a controlled way

An **OBSERVATION is a permanent record of what is seen
at the focal plane of a telescope.**

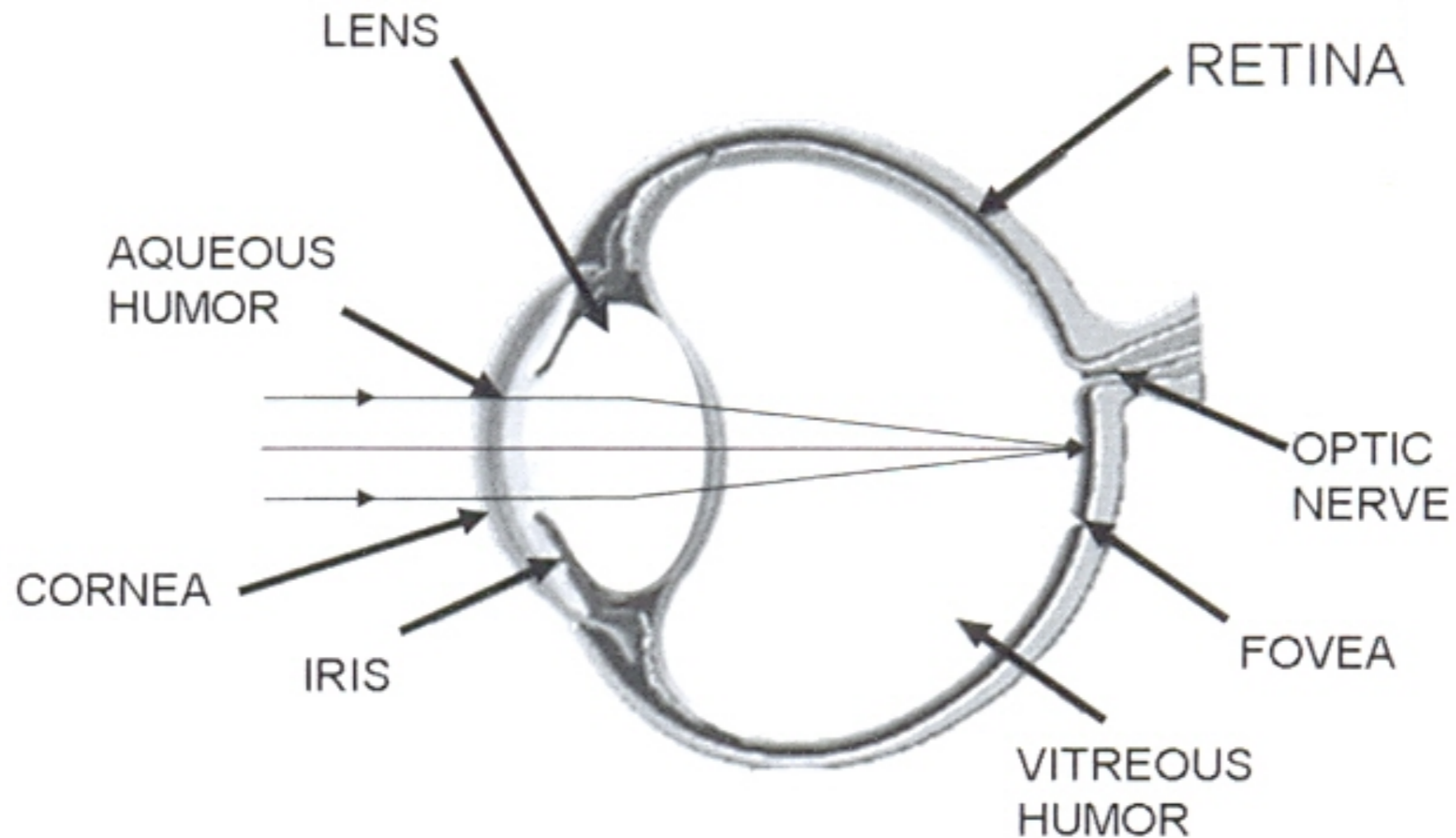
Different Wavelengths...



show different physical processes



The Human Eye



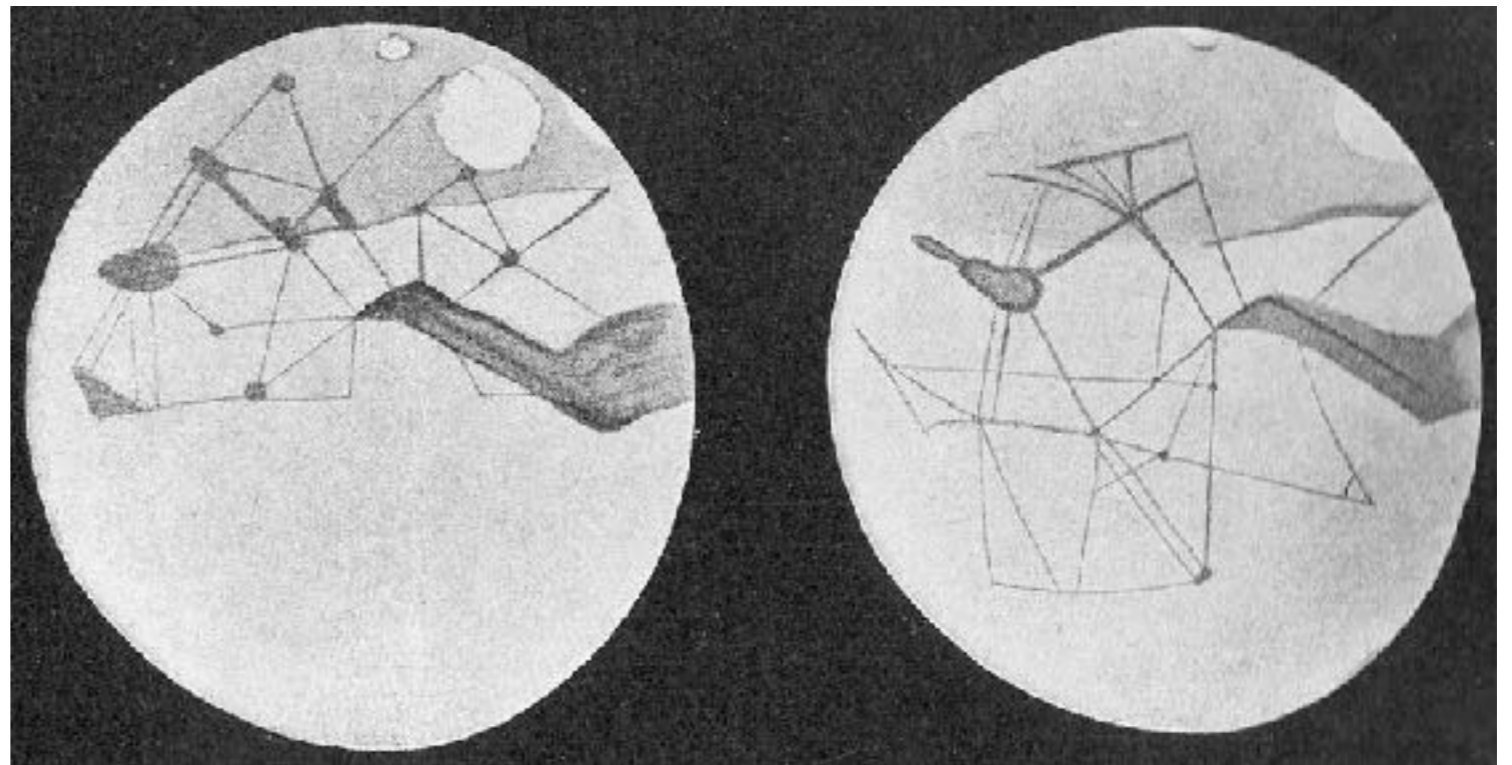
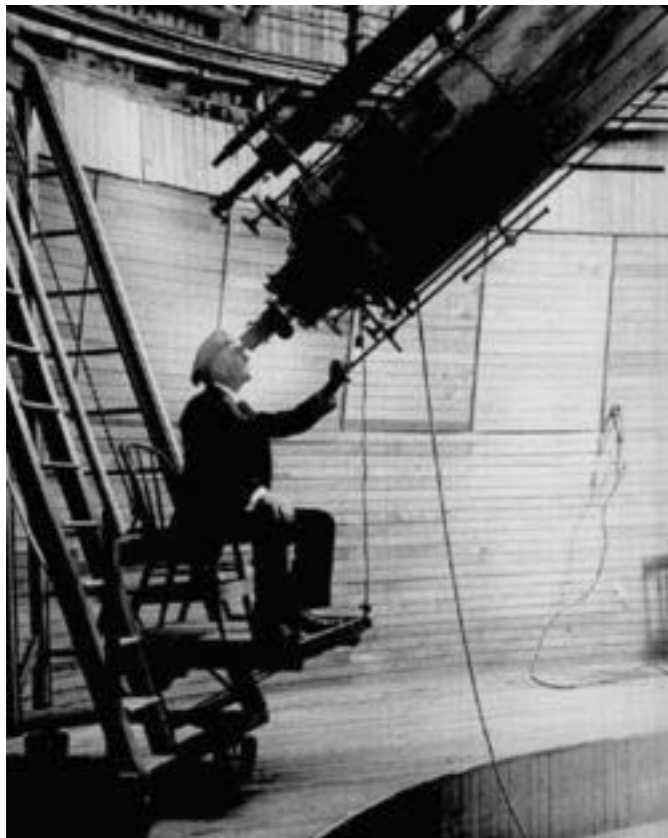
Theoretical: $\theta \sim \lambda/D \sim 0.5\mu m/7mm \sim 14''$

In practice: $\theta \sim 1$ arcminute

The Eye's Computer



Percival Lowell

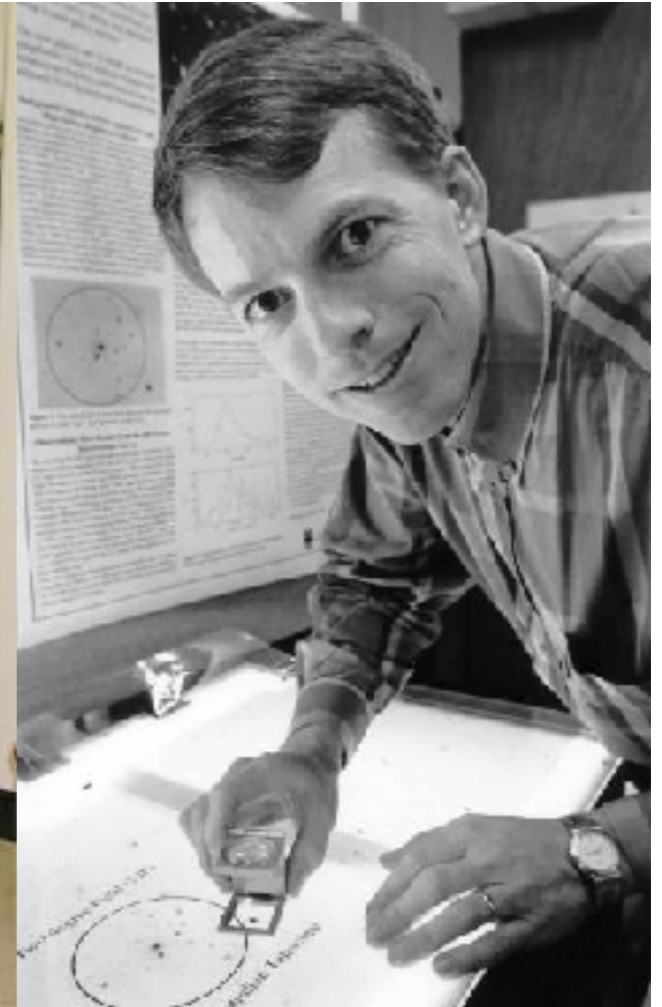


**Seeing canals on
Mars**

The Eye's Computer

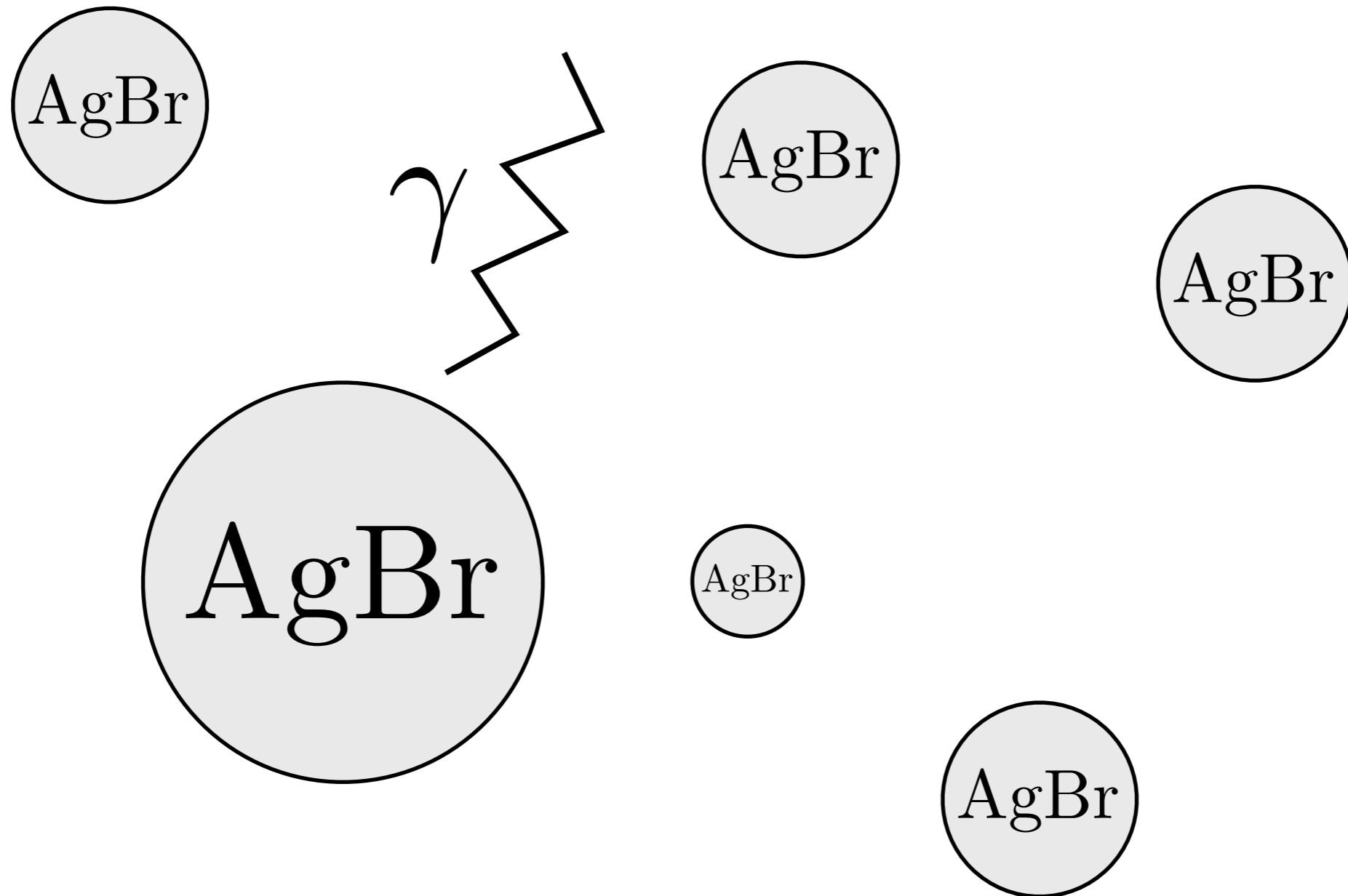


Photographic Plates



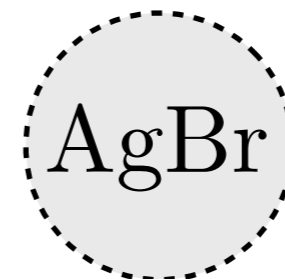
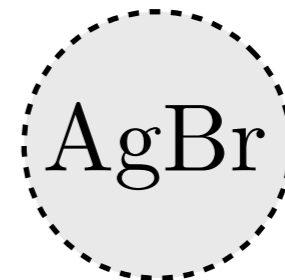
Photographic Plate Principle

Expose grains of slightly soluble Silver
Halide salts to light:



Photographic Plate Principle

Chemical fixing - remove stray ions and
develop ALL silver in a grain:



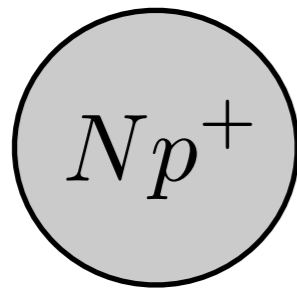
Photodetectors

Classical Mechanics treat electric charges as point particles interacting with electric fields

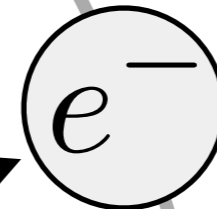
Electric Potential Energy between two charges:

$$U_E = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_1 q_2}{r_{12}}$$

Electron with mean separation r_{12}



Atomic Nucleus with N protons



Quantum Mechanics

Particles in an energy potential $V(x)$ are described by the Schrödinger wave equation and the wavefunction $\psi(x,t)$:

$$\frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi(x,t)}{\partial x^2} + V(x)\psi(x,t) = i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(x,t)}{\partial t}$$



“Kinetic energy”



“Potential energy”



“Total energy”

$$\psi(x,t) = u(x)e^{-iEt/\hbar}$$

probabilities not certainty

The square of the wave function gives the relative probability of finding the particle in a small region:

$$P(x, t) = \psi^* \psi$$

After you've observed the particle in a specific place, put that in as the new wave function and run the equation forwards again

(this is the bit which makes many people unhappy)

remove time dependency

Many problems are simplified to steady state
(particles in a box, no energy added or removed)

$$\frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 u(x)}{\partial x^2} + V(x)u(x) = E u(x)$$

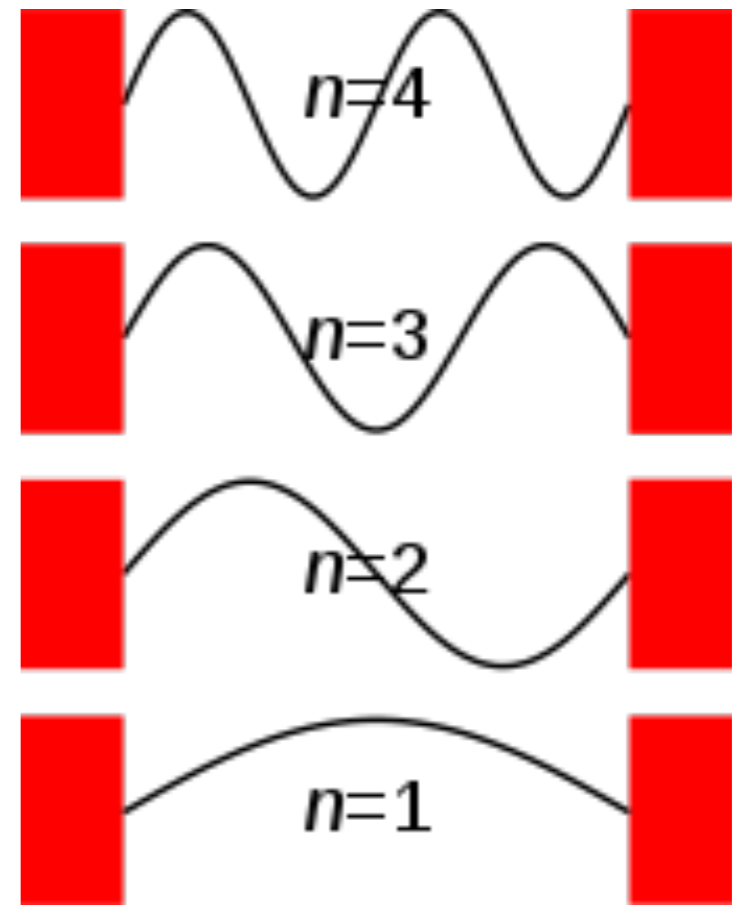
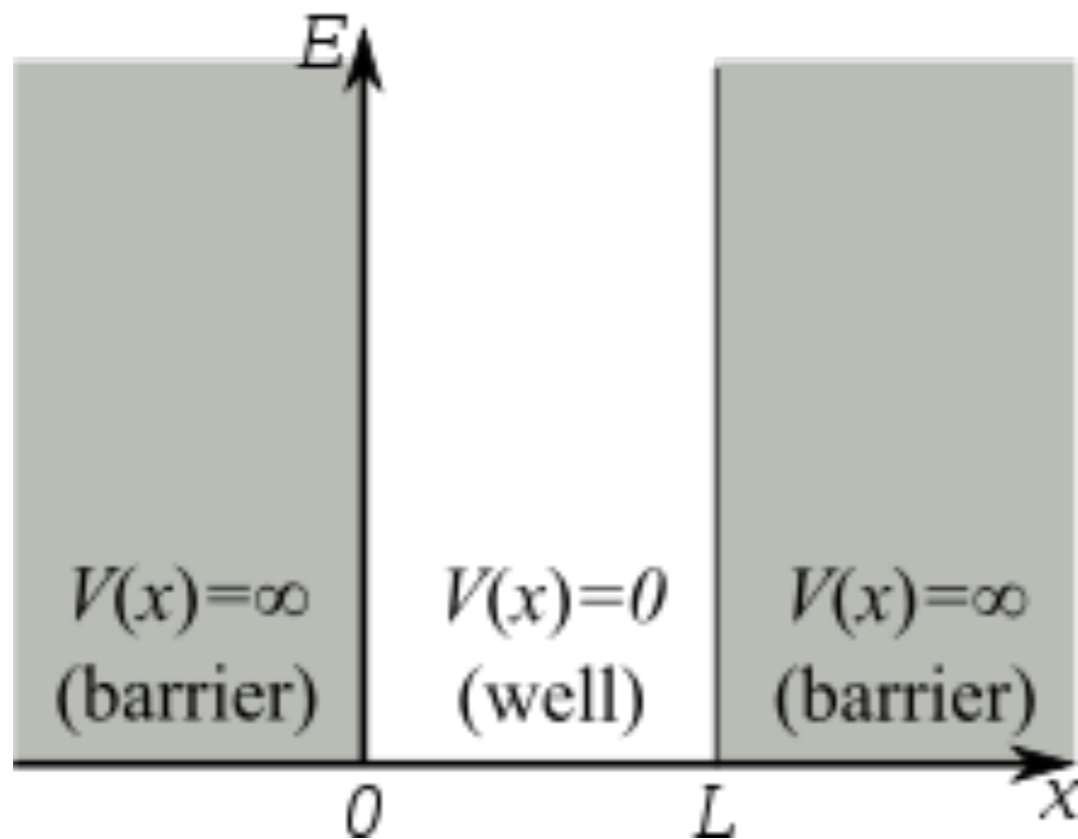
This is the Time Independent Schrödinger Equation

$$\psi(x, t) = u(x)e^{-iEt/\hbar}$$

The full equation with the time dependency separated

particle in a 1-D box

Infinite walled box of size L has many wave function solutions:



The four lowest wave function solutions

particle in a 1-D box

The wave function:

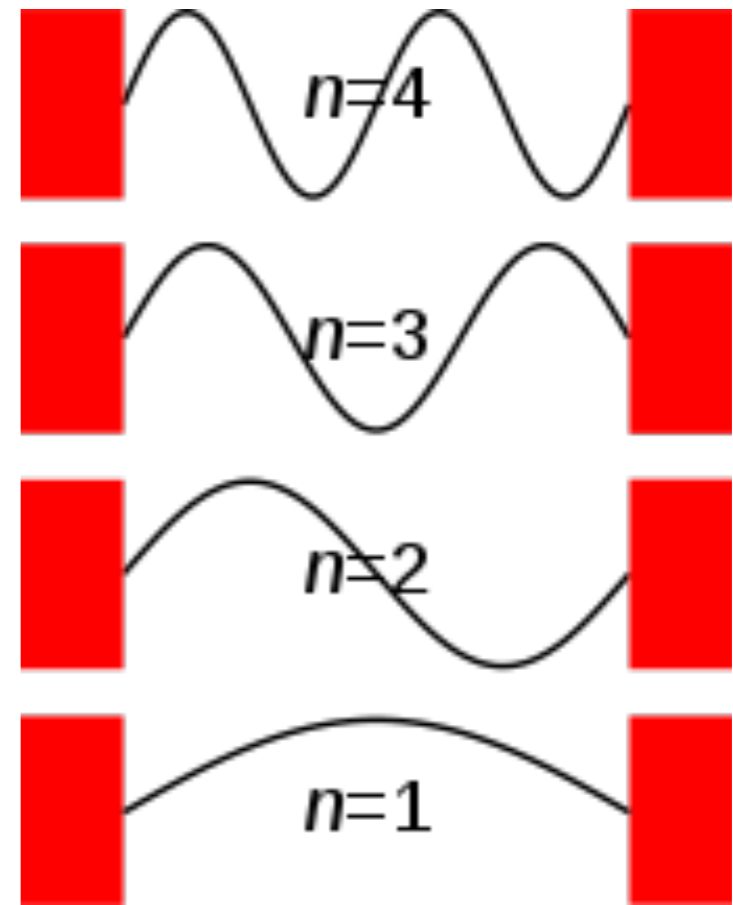
$$\psi_n(x, t) = \left\{ A \sin \left(k_n \left(x - x_c + \frac{L}{2} \right) \right) e^{-i\omega_n t} \right.$$

...where:

$$k_n = \frac{n\pi}{L}$$

....and the ENERGY in state n is:

$$E_n = \hbar\omega_n = \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{2mL^2}$$



The four lowest wave function solutions

particle energy is quantised

The wave function:

$$\psi_n(x, t) = \left\{ A \sin \left(k_n \left(x - x_c + \frac{L}{2} \right) \right) e^{-i\omega_n t} \right\}$$

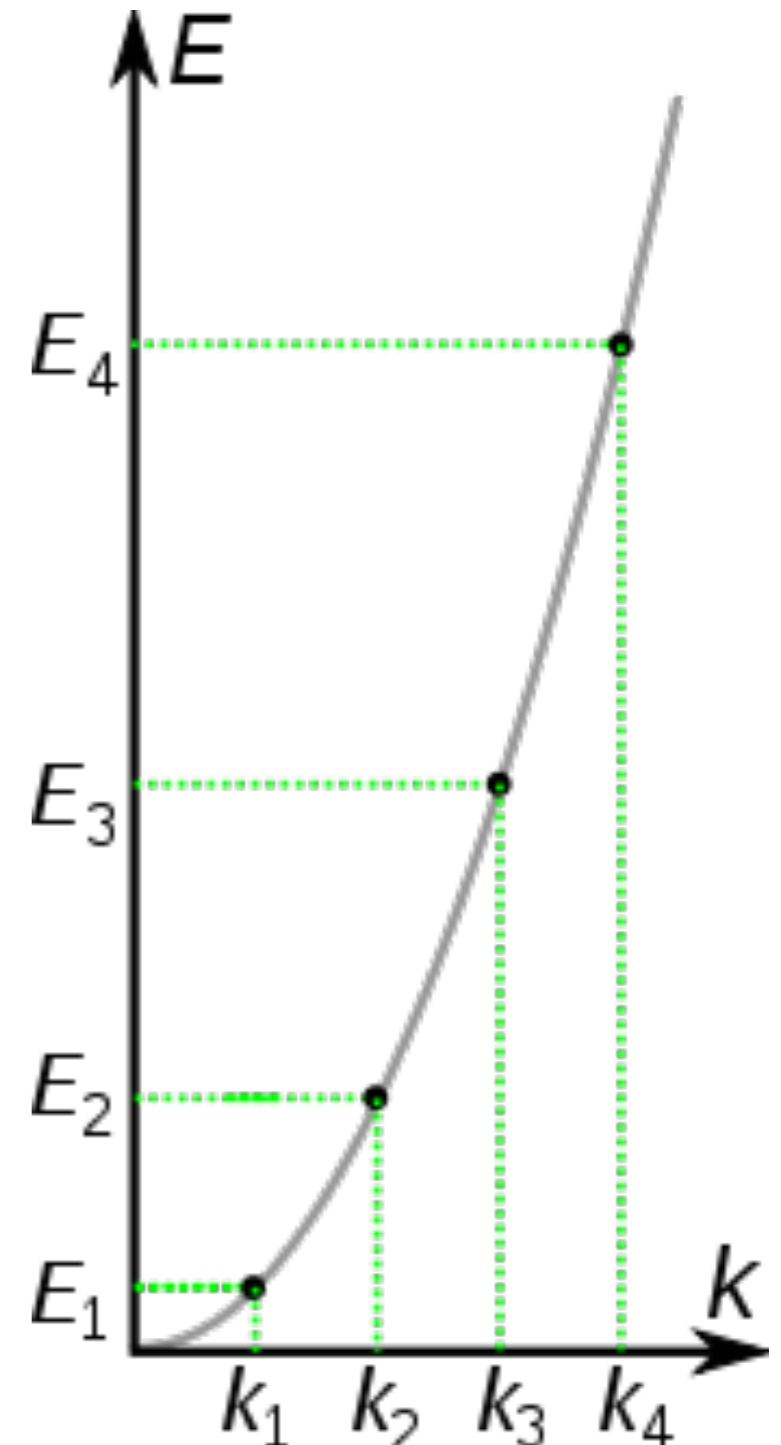
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source: [wikipedia/Particle_in_a_box](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Particle_in_a_box)



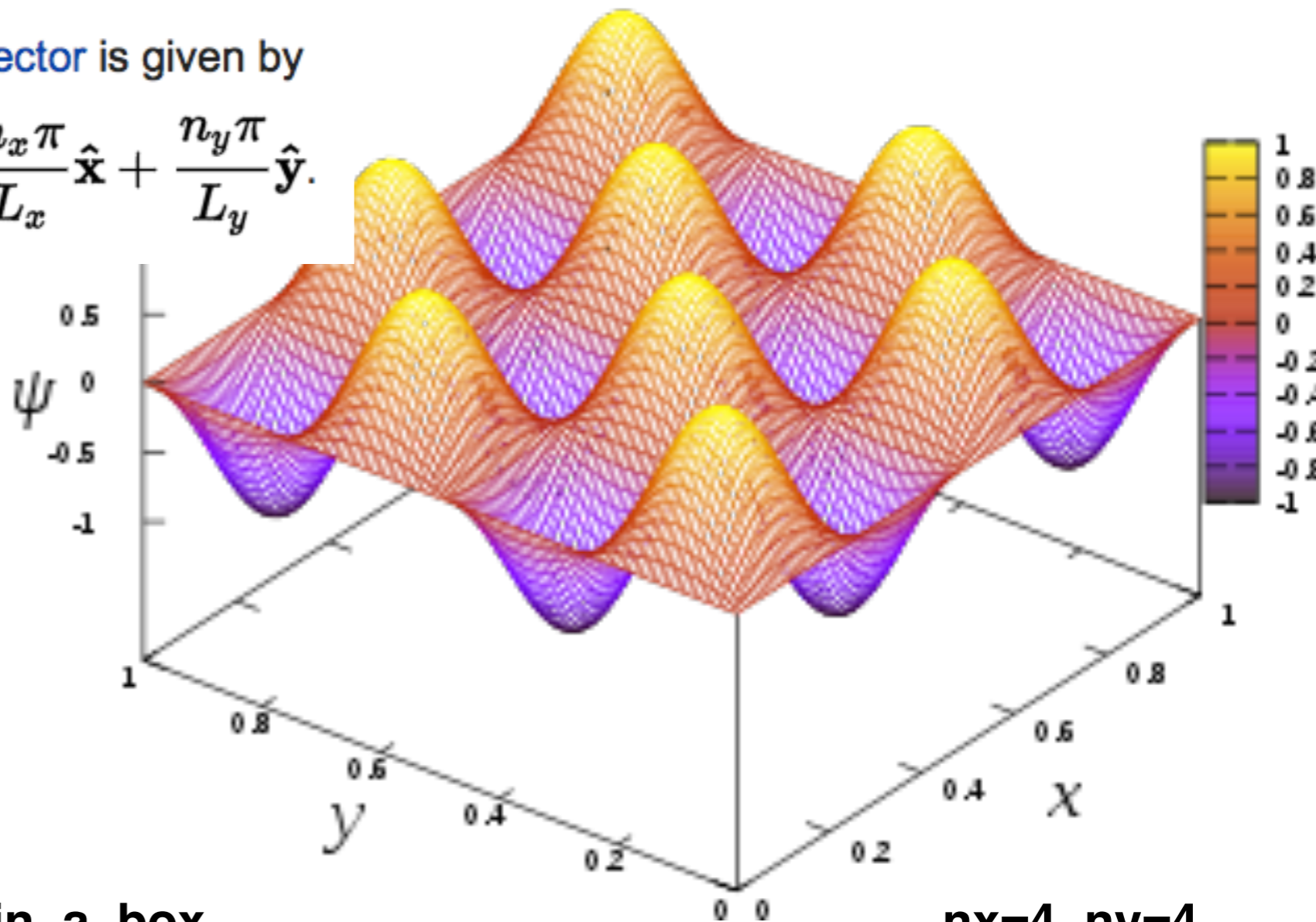
2D version has two quantum numbers

$$\psi_{n_x, n_y} = \psi_{n_x}(x, t, L_x) \psi_{n_y}(y, t, L_y),$$

$$E_{n_x, n_y} = \frac{\hbar^2 k_{n_x, n_y}^2}{2m},$$

where the two-dimensional **wavevector** is given by

$$\mathbf{k}_{n_x, n_y} = k_{n_x} \hat{\mathbf{x}} + k_{n_y} \hat{\mathbf{y}} = \frac{n_x \pi}{L_x} \hat{\mathbf{x}} + \frac{n_y \pi}{L_y} \hat{\mathbf{y}}.$$

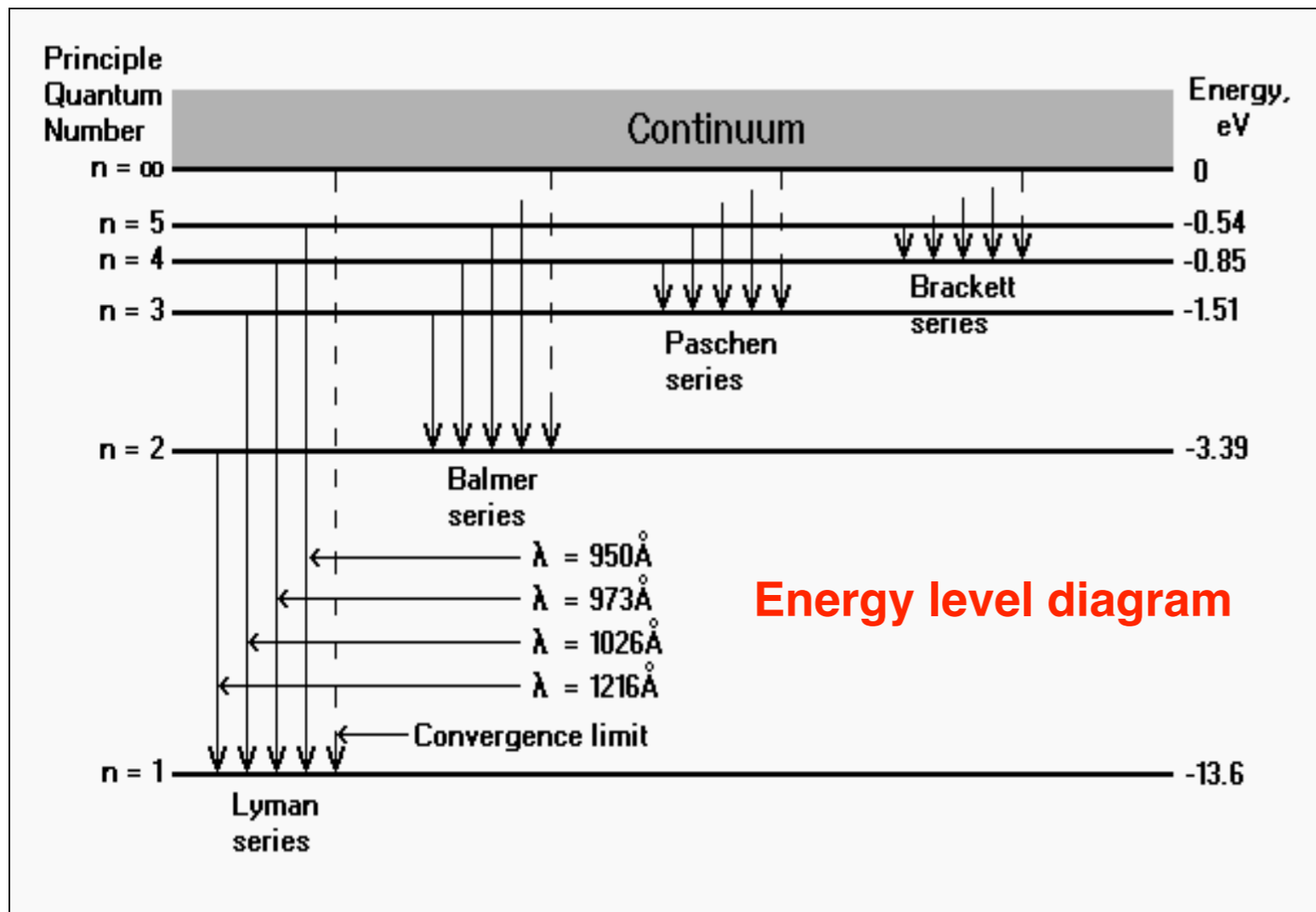


source: wikipedia/Particle_in_a_box

$n_x=4, n_y=4$

Electrons can absorb or emit photons and change to a different allowed orbital

e.g. the Hydrogen atom with one electron



Photons of only specific energies can be absorbed or emitted

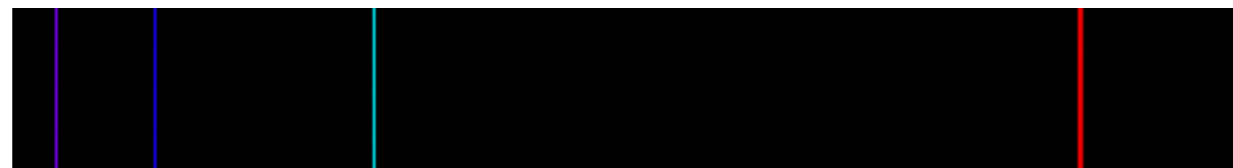
In the **BOHR MODEL**, the orbital angular momentum of the electron is **quantized** in units of

$$\hbar$$

$$p_{\theta} = n\hbar$$

...where $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

$$m = 2 \text{ to } n = 3, 4, 5, 6$$



The **QM** properties of **electrons** lead to atomic lines and semiconductor bands

Multiple electrons around a positively charged nucleus have four quantum numbers:

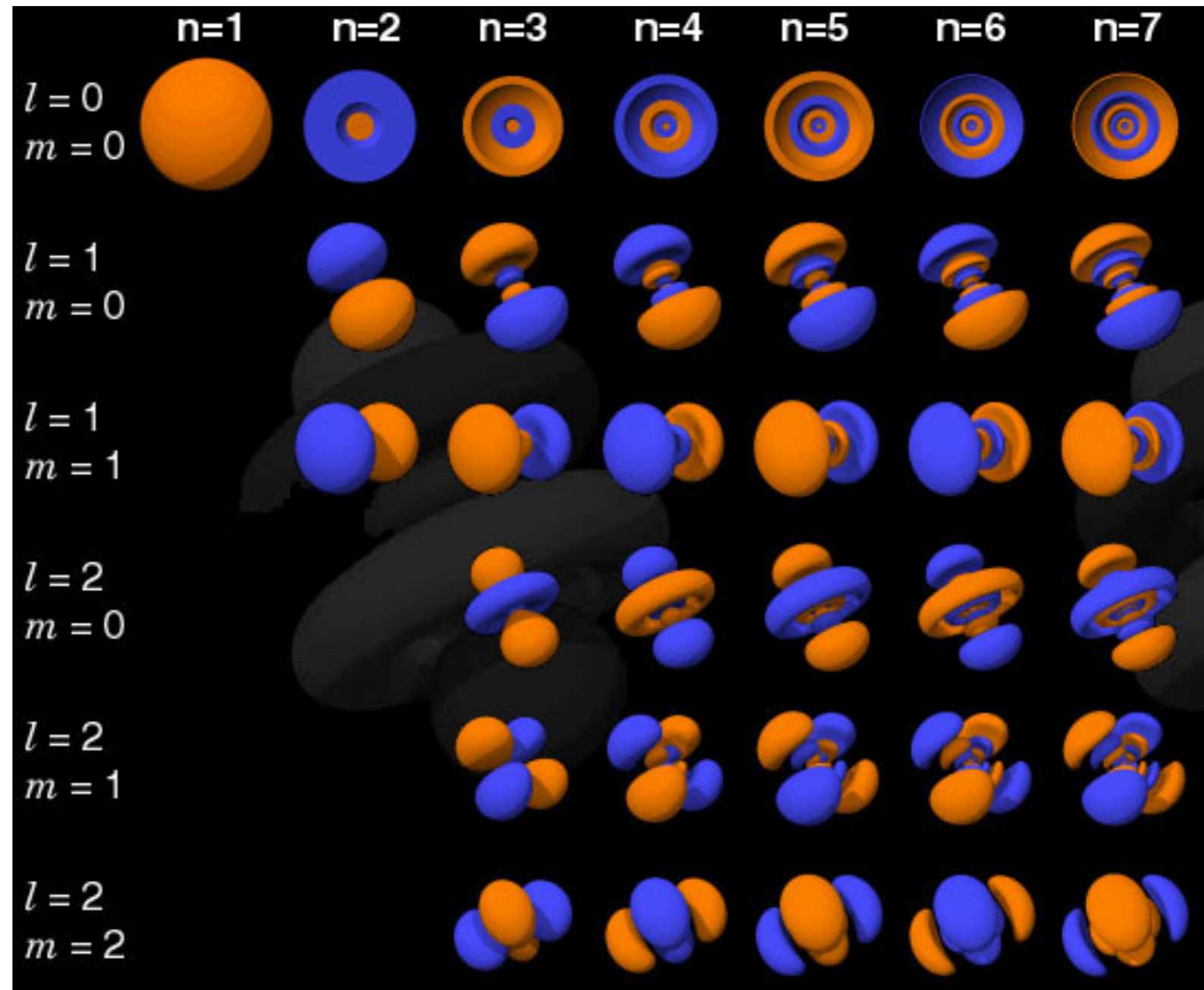
$$n, l, m_l, m_s$$

Only **ONE FERMION** can have one set of quantum numbers!

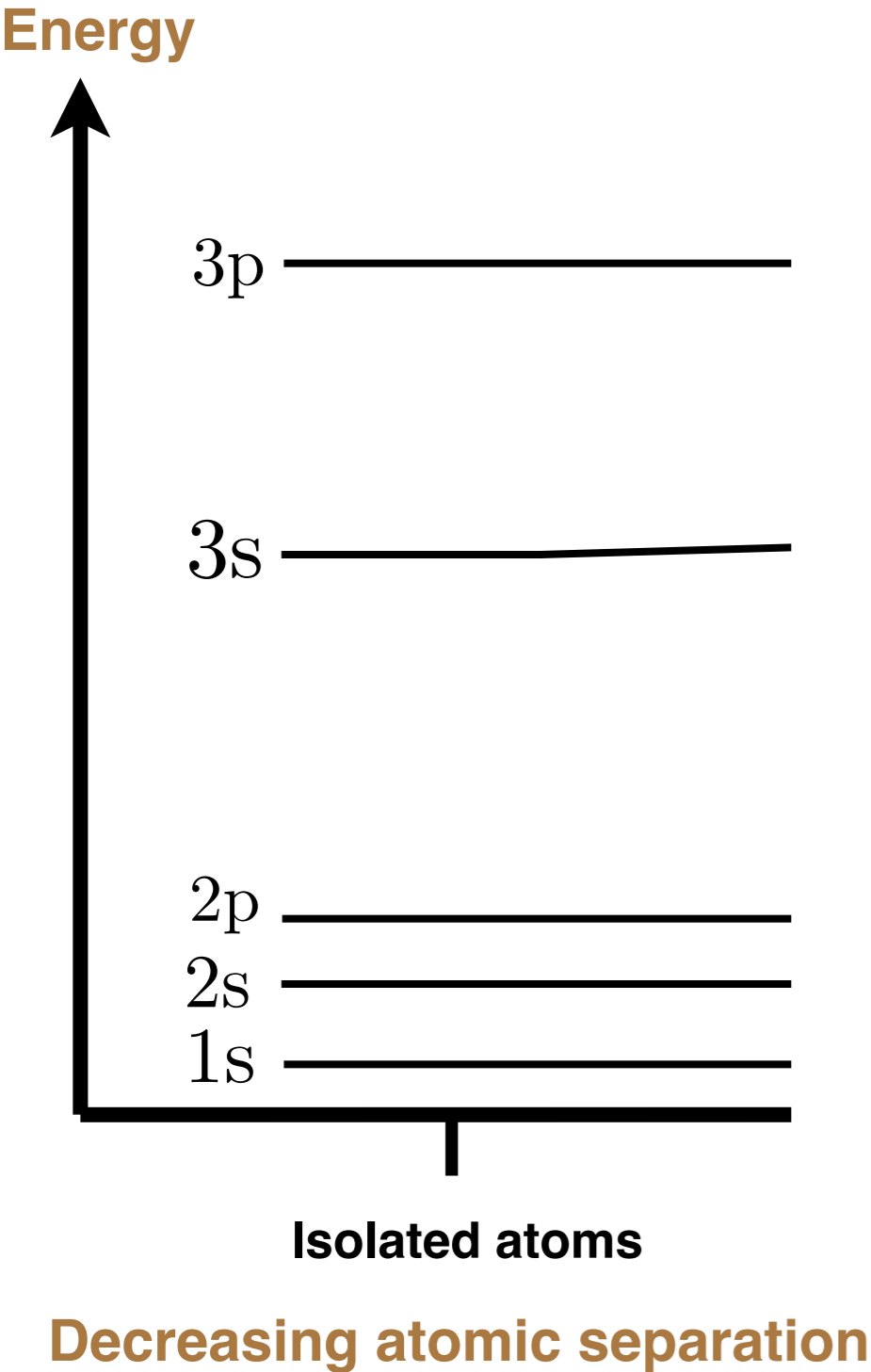
Electrons (and other particles) are described with Schrodinger's Wave Equation:

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Psi(x, t) = \hat{H} \Psi(x, t)$$

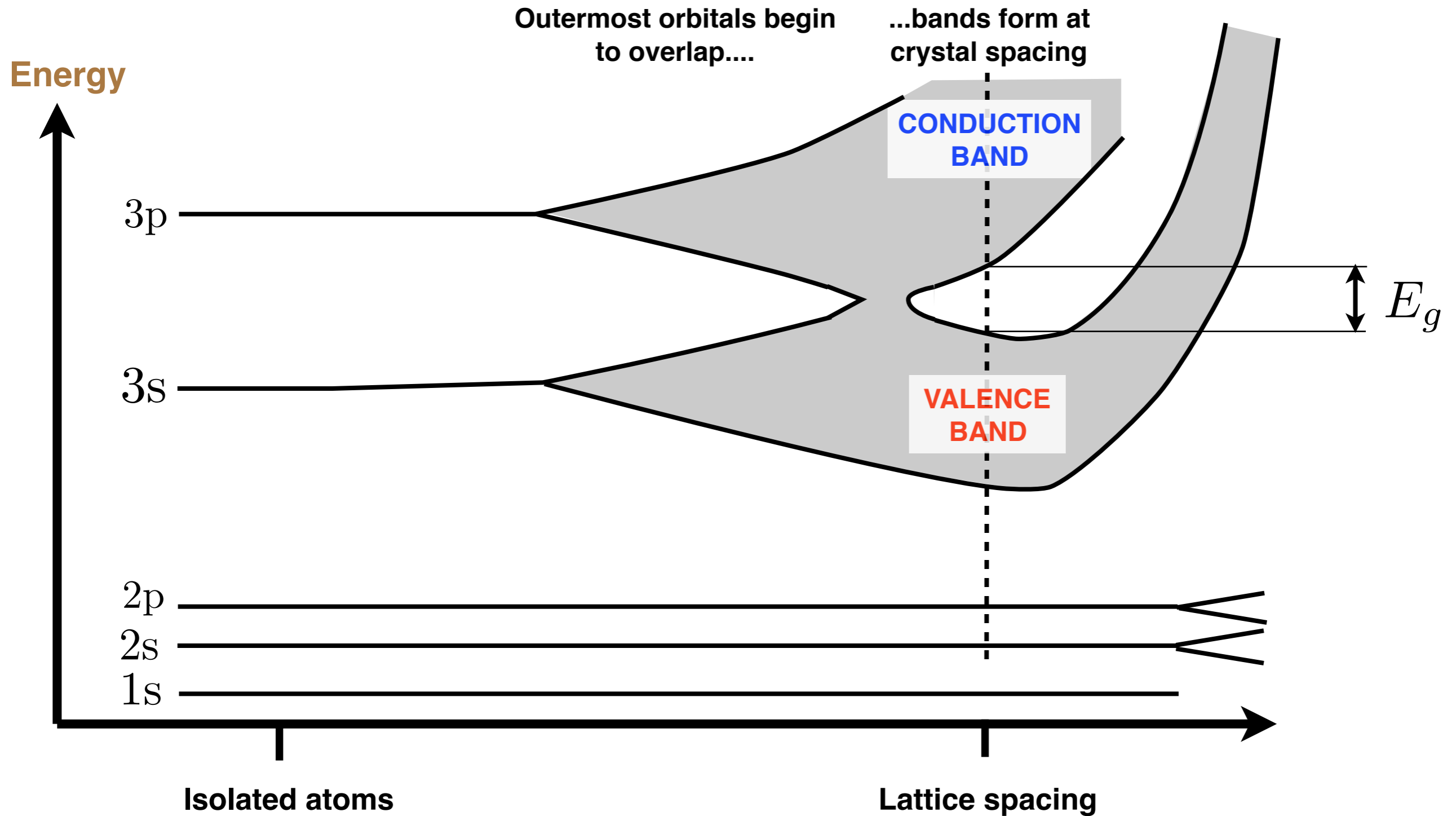
Electrons are described by probability clouds called **ORBITALS** with specific energies.



Atomic orbitals overlap in a crystal to form electronic bands



Atomic orbitals overlap in a crystal to form electronic bands



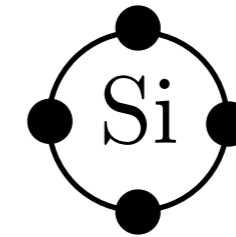
Decreasing atomic separation

Incomplete orbitals provide electrons for bonding

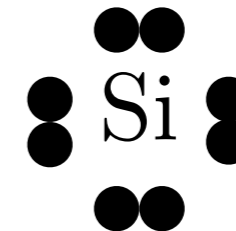
Silicon and Germanium have 4 electrons in their outermost (n=2) orbital:

(In the Periodic Table these are **GROUP IV** elements)

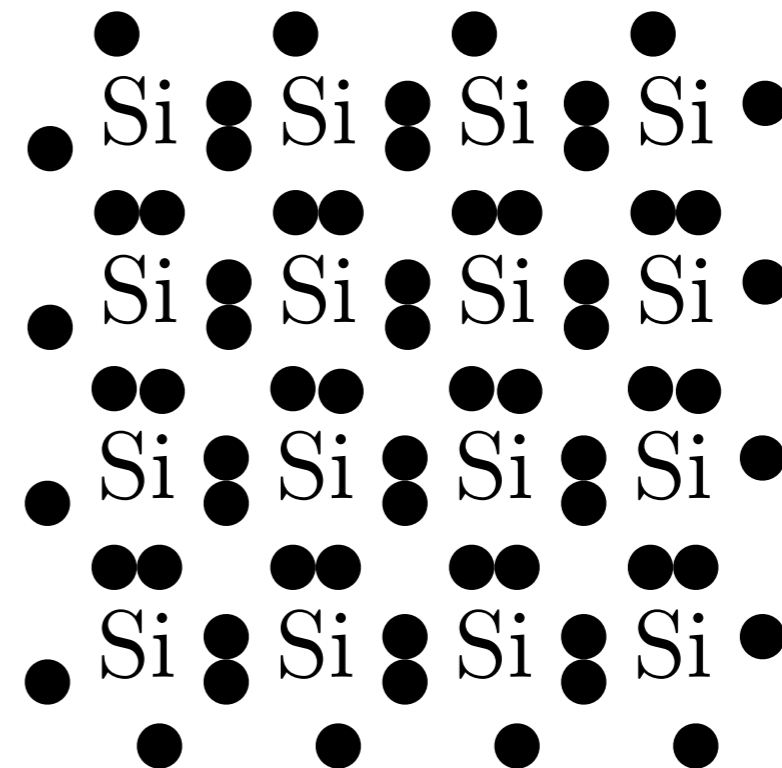
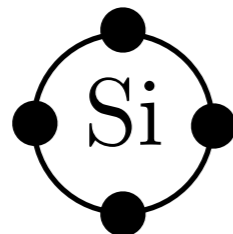
Energetically they want to have 8 electrons to form a stable configuration:



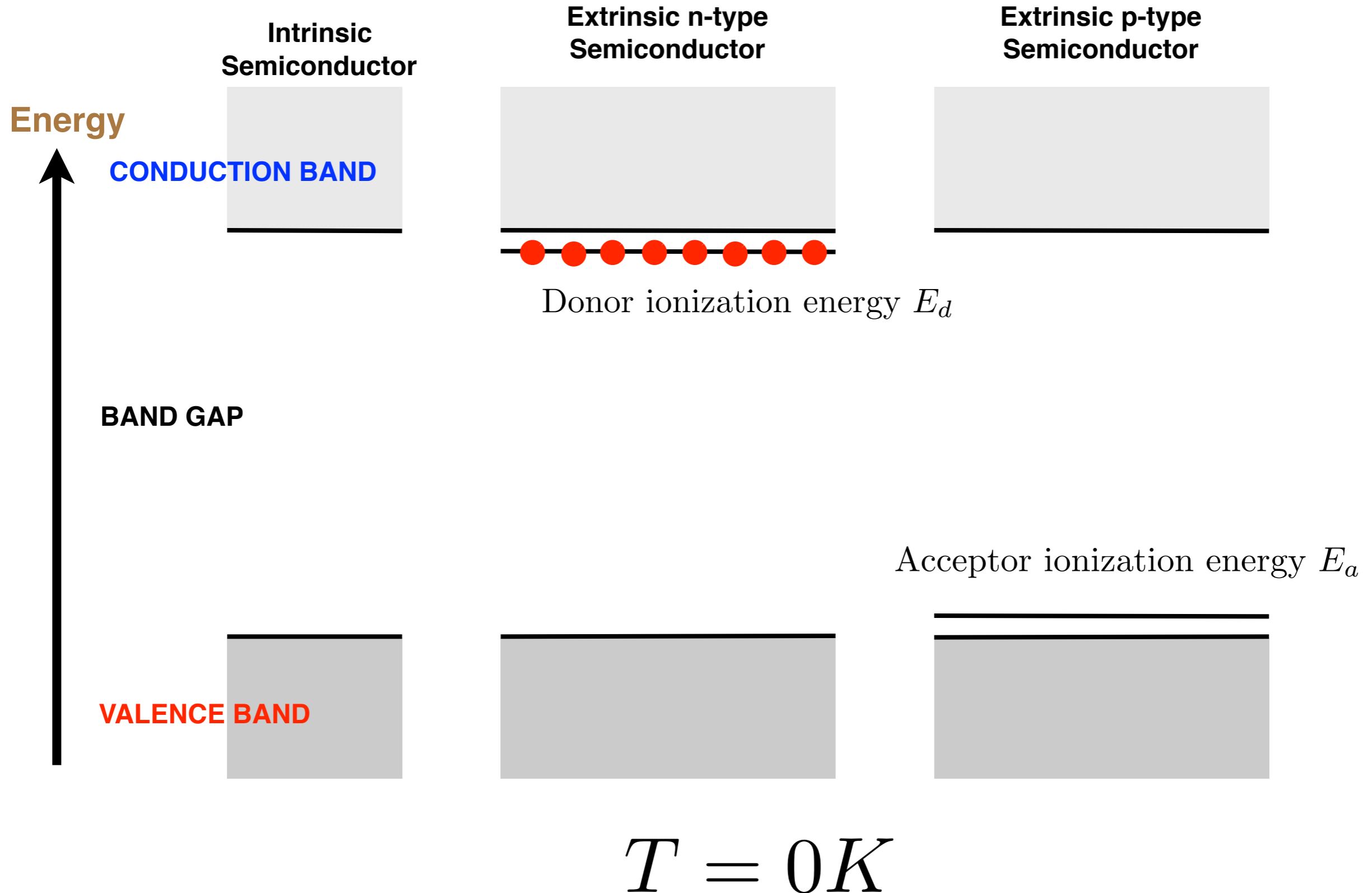
$d = 0.230 \text{ nm}$



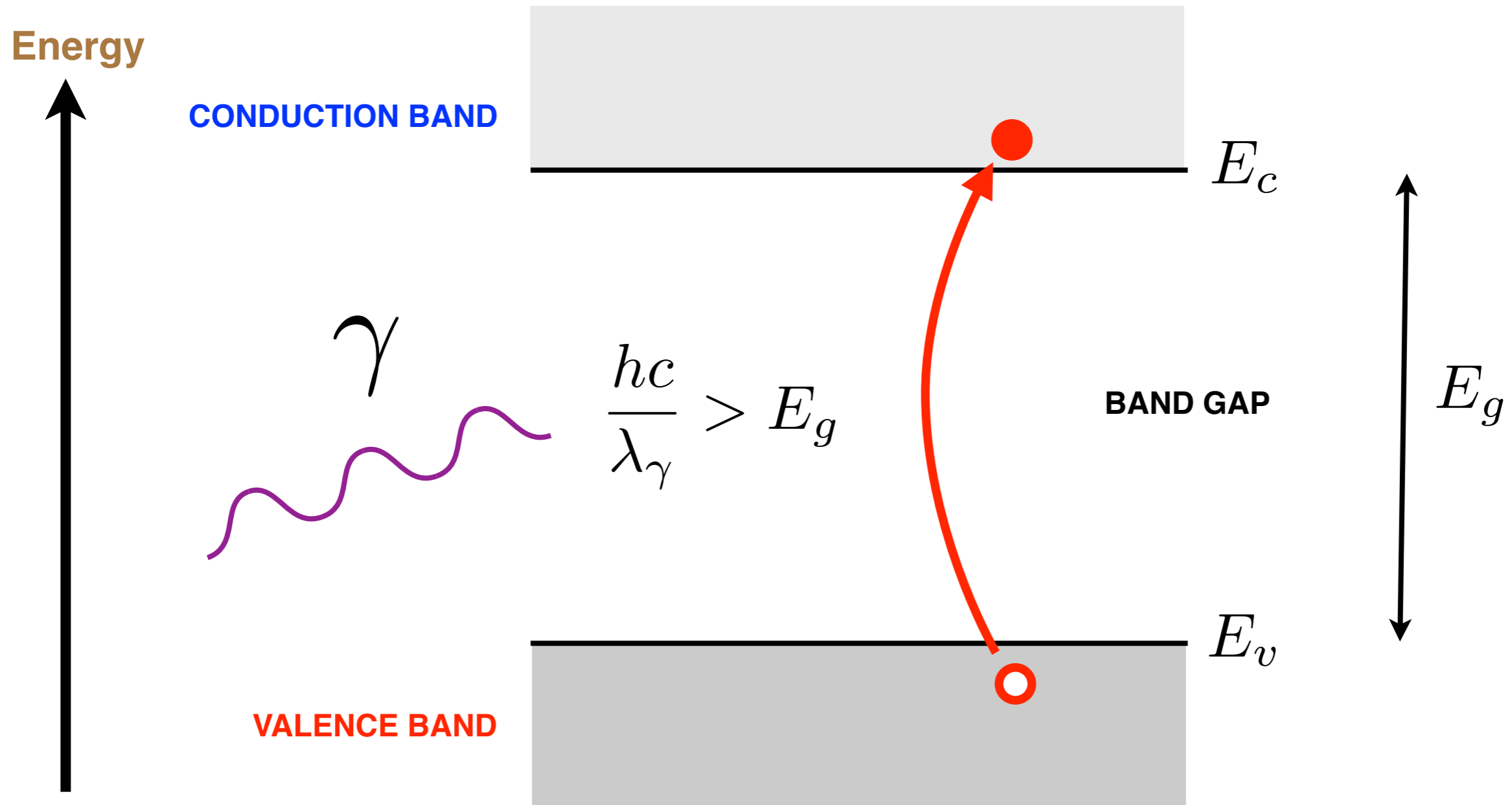
Forming a crystal sharing electrons with other Si atoms forms a stable LATTICE:



Energy Band Diagram for Donors and Acceptors

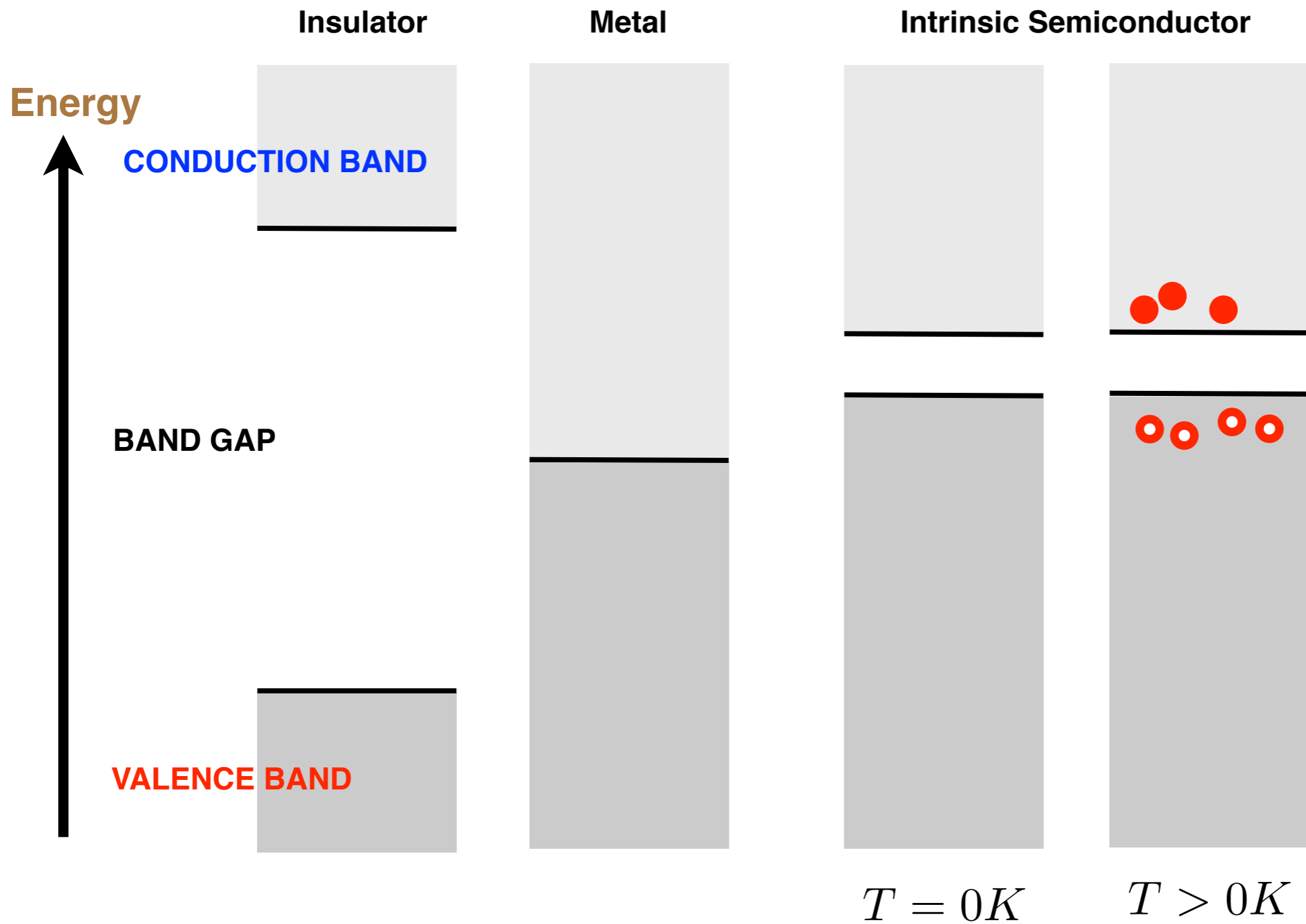


Energy Band Diagram

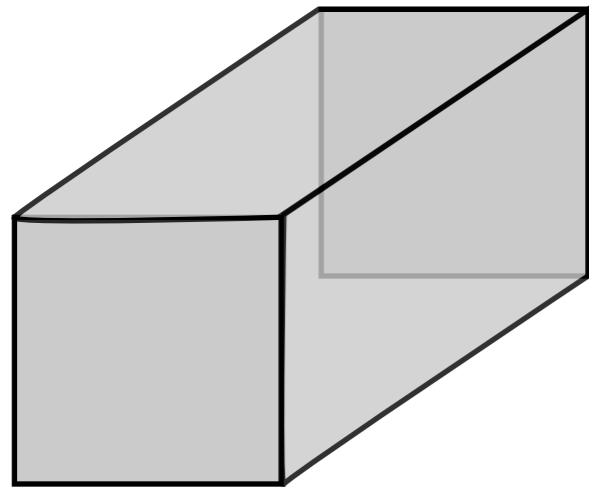


Electrons can also be **THERMALLY** excited

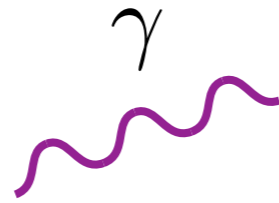
Energy Band Diagram



Photon Detectors respond directly to individual photons



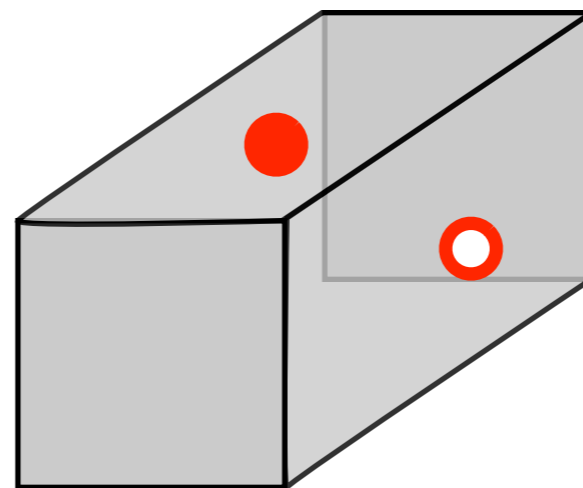
**Intrinsic
semiconductor**



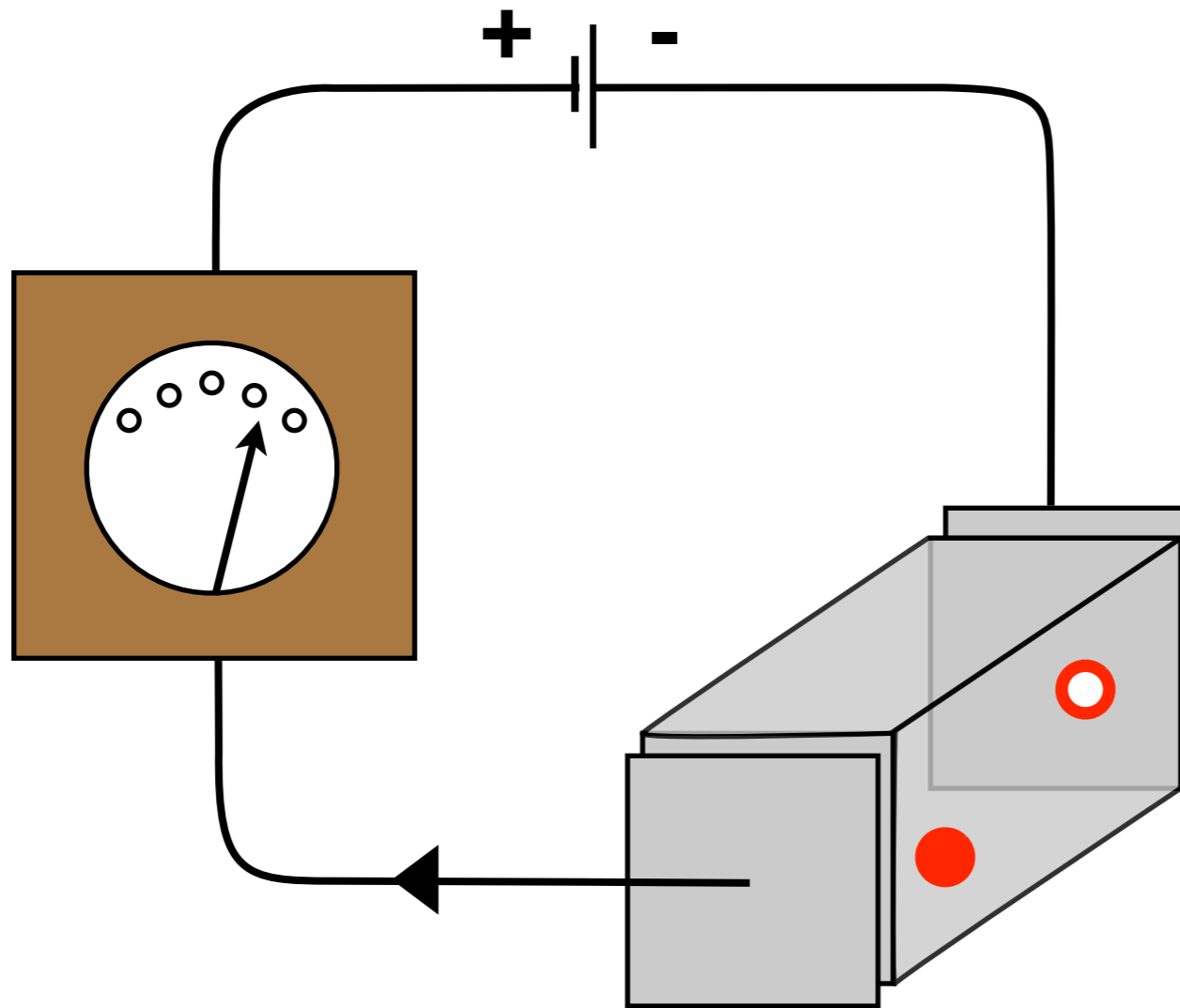
Incoming photon with energy greater than bandgap energy:

$$E_{\gamma} = \frac{hc}{\lambda} > E_{bandgap}$$

...is converted into releasing an electron and a hole....



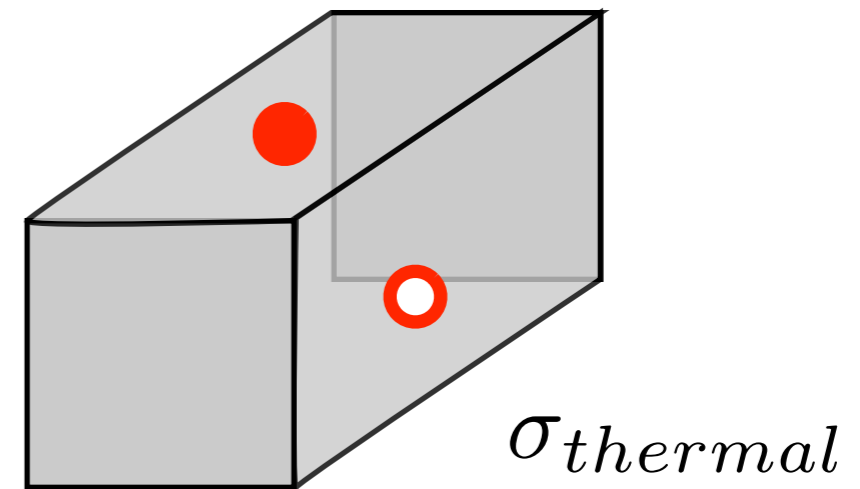
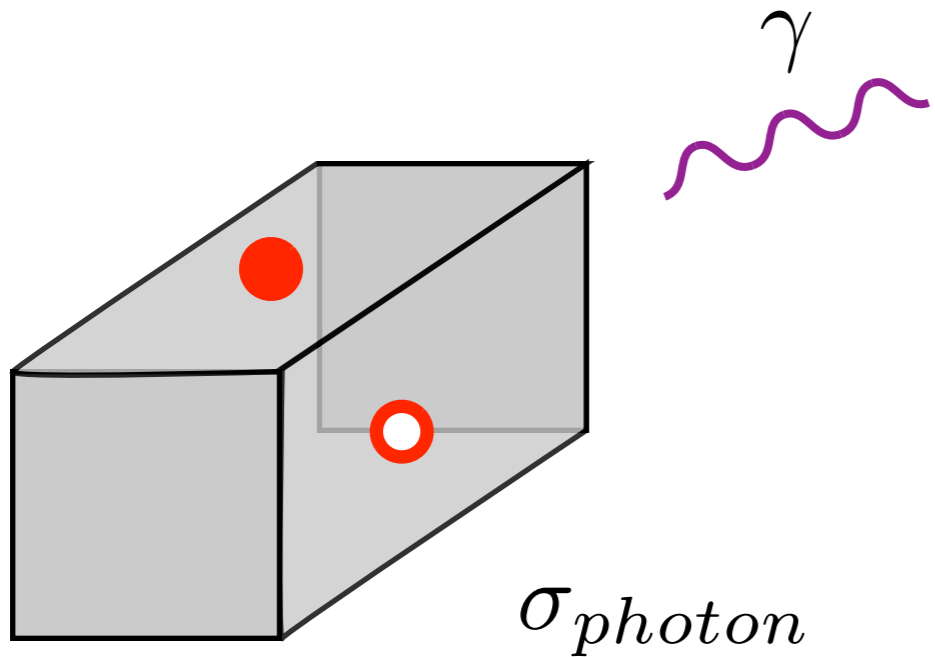
Charge carriers move out of semiconductor and register as a signal



Applying an electric field causes electric charges to move in the material and register a signal as an **electric current**

Charge carriers are generated with both **photons** and **thermal excitation**

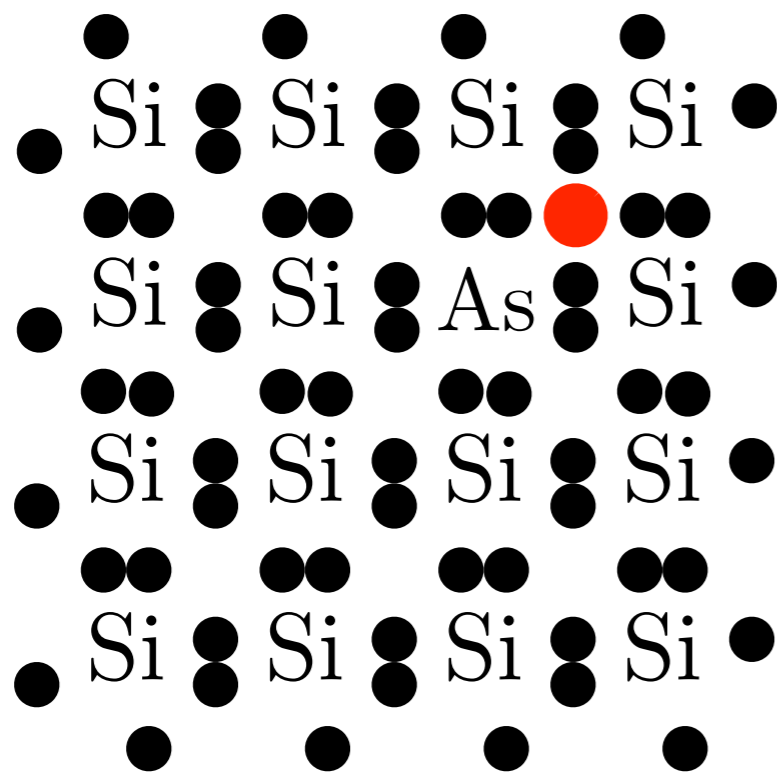
We measure the electrical conductivity!



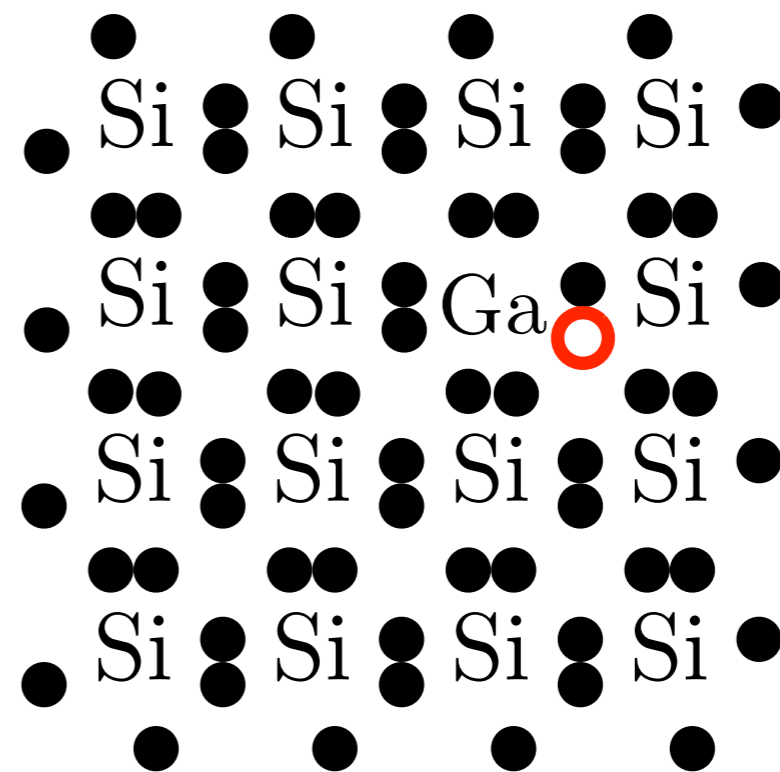
Dopants in Silicon

We can dope a pure silicon crystal with small amounts of **Group V** or **Group III** elements

Adding a **Group V** element introduces conduction electrons and creates **n-type** silicon, called a donor.

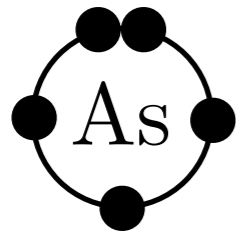


Adding a **Group III** element introduces an electron hole and creates **p-type** silicon, called an acceptor.



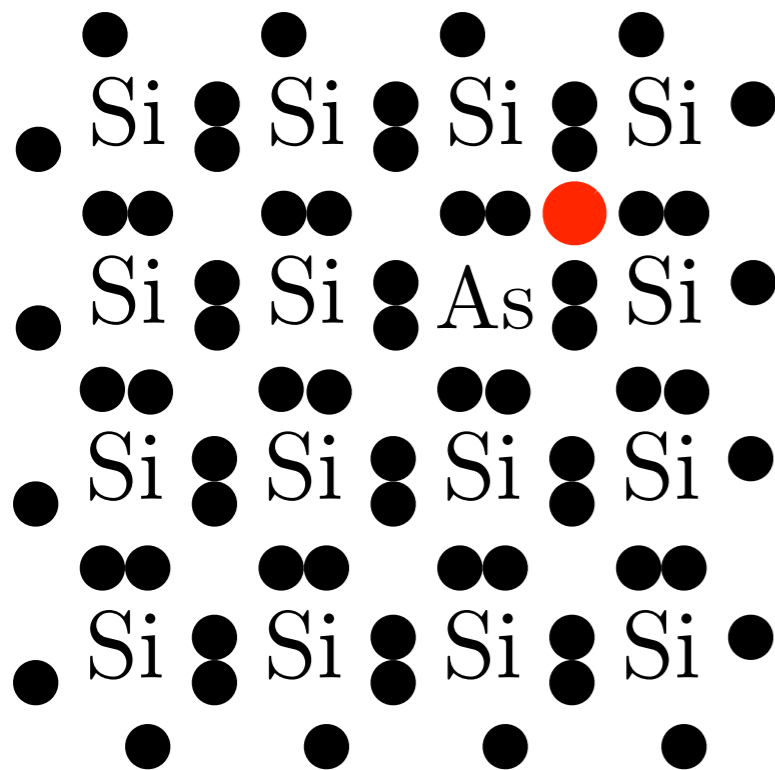
Pure semiconductors are **INTRINSIC**,
doped semiconductors are **EXTRINSIC**

Why is a donor easily ionised?



As atom looks “hydrogen-like” with covalent bonds shielding large nuclear charge:

$$E_{bohr} = \frac{mq^4}{2K^2\hbar^2}$$

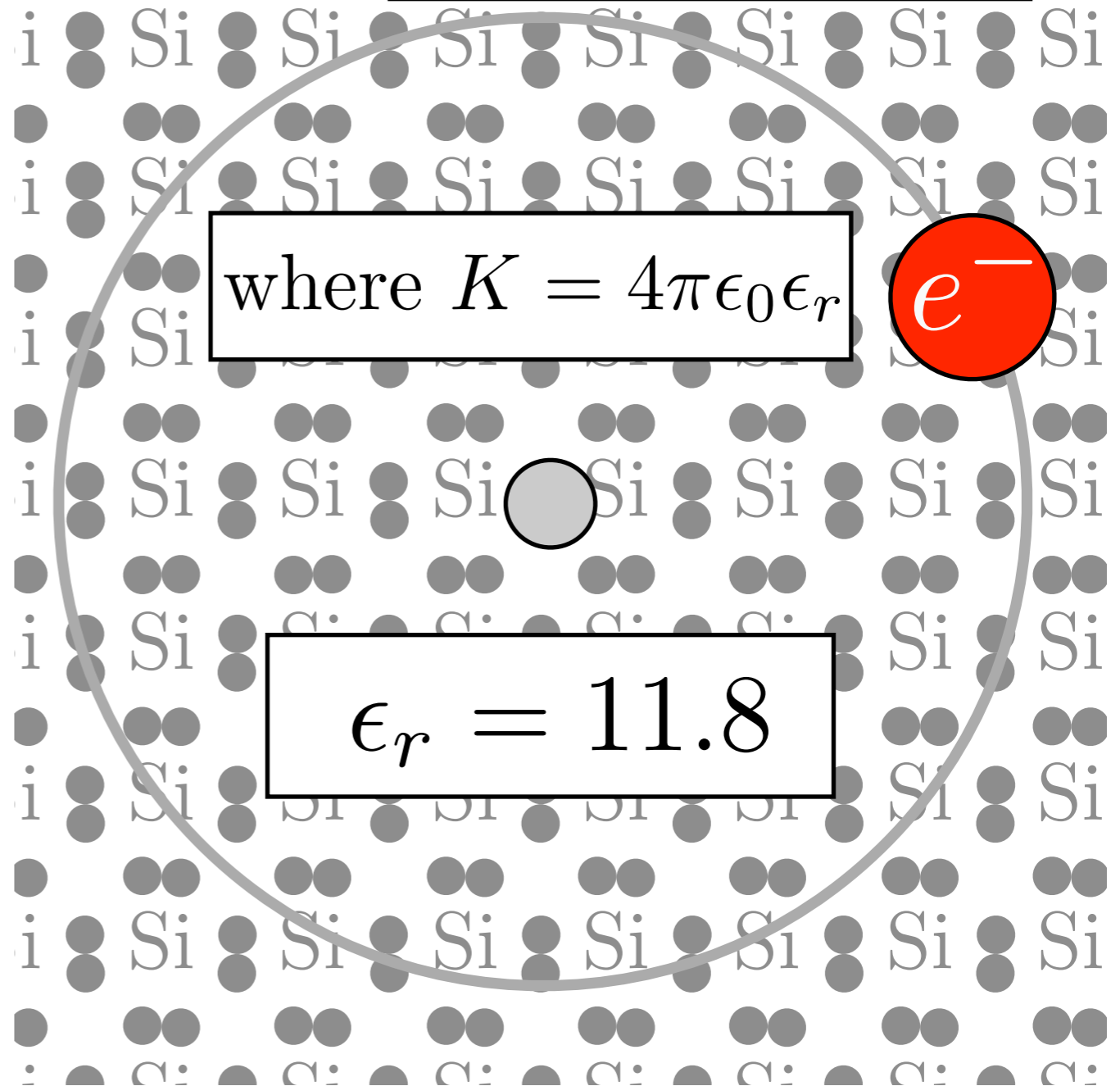


Electron is **REALLY** easy to ionise!

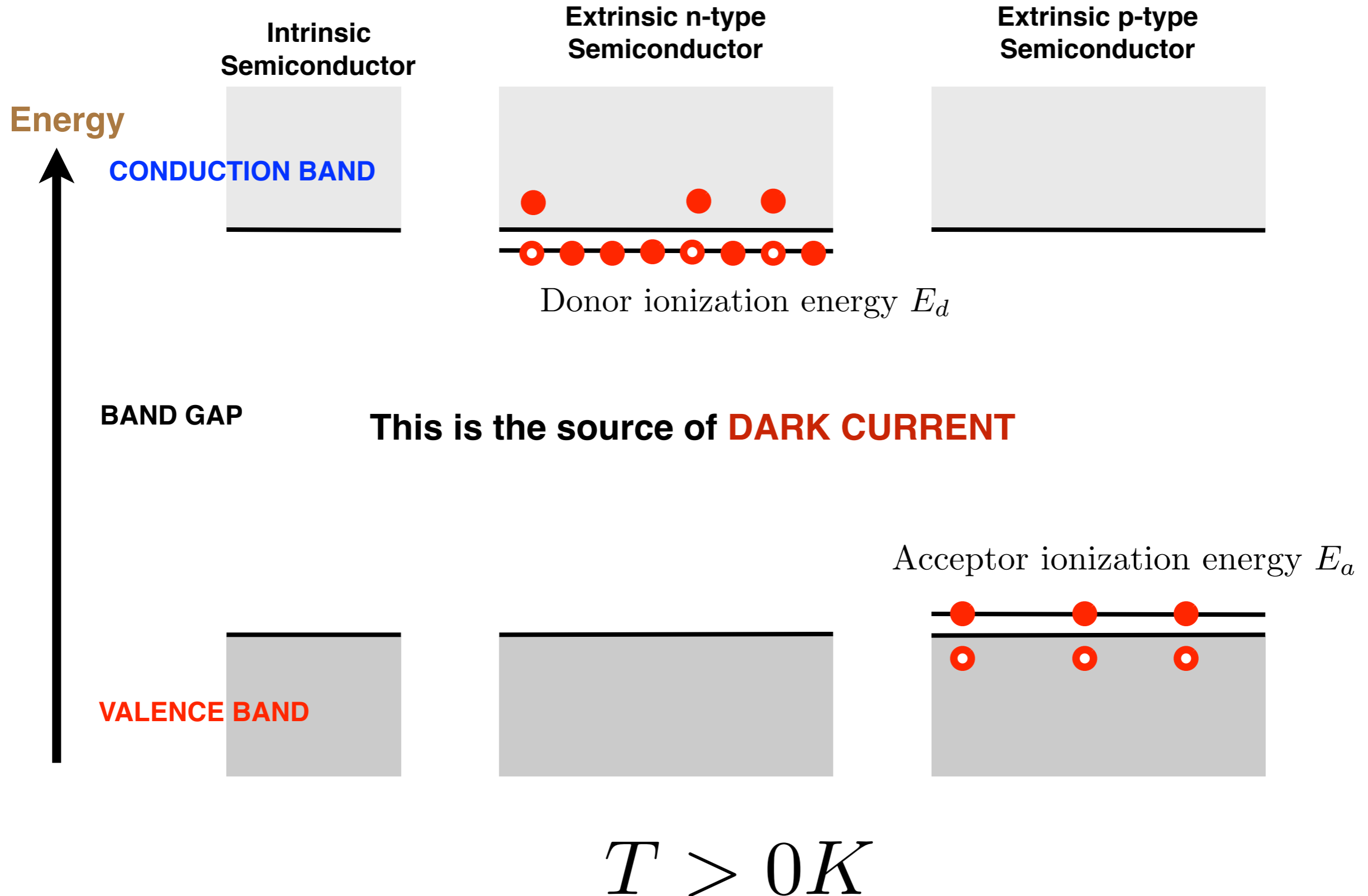
where $K = 4\pi\epsilon_0\epsilon_r$



$$\epsilon_r = 11.8$$

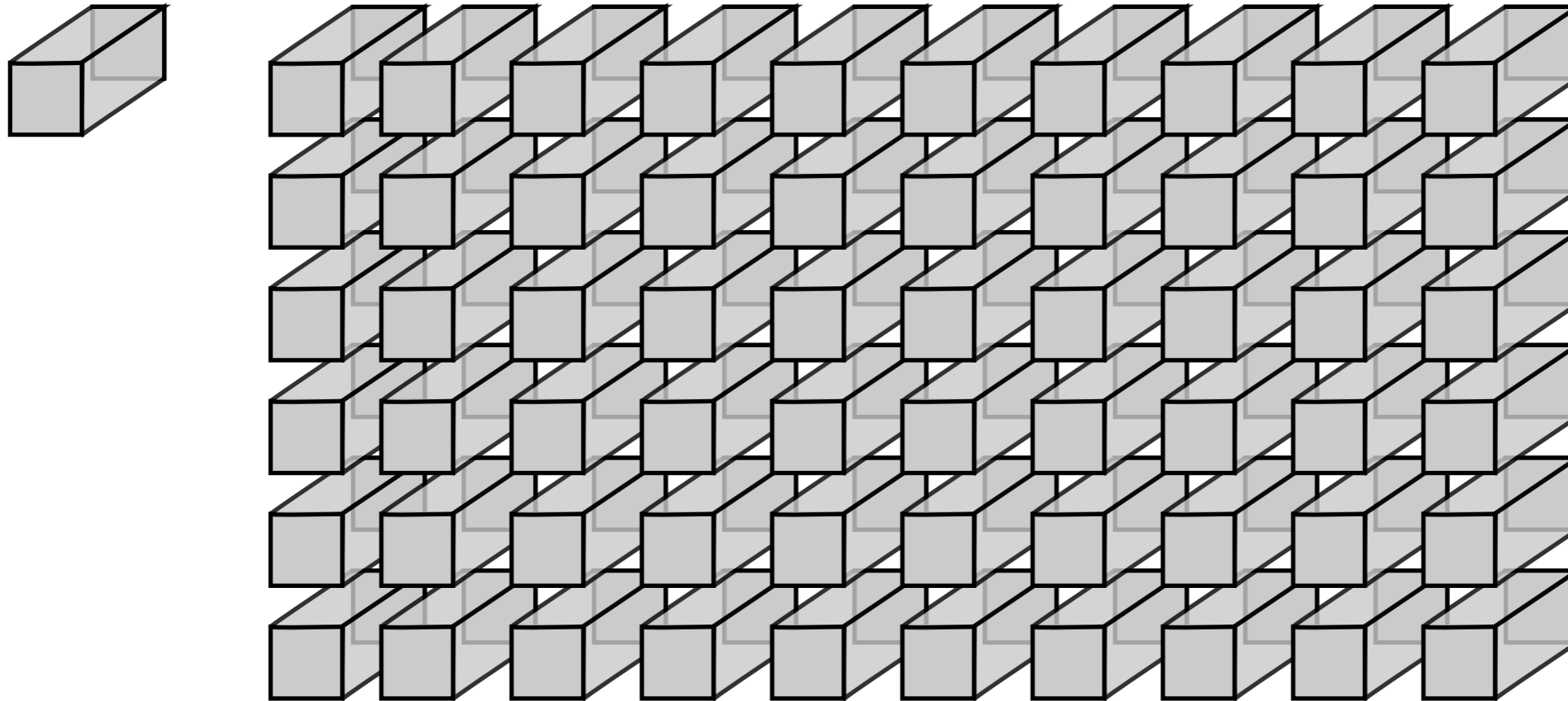


Energy Band Diagram for Donors and Acceptors



Detector Arrays

Arrays formed from individual photoconductors



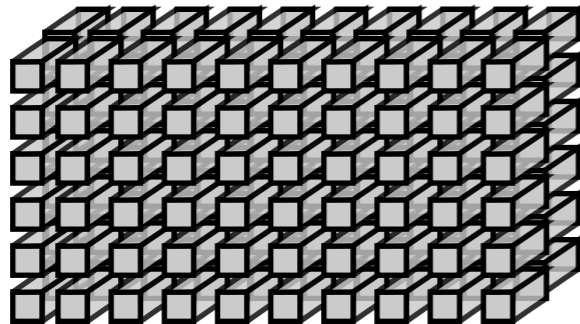
+ Readout Electronics

= Detector Array

Two types of arrays in the Optical/IR

IR Arrays

$(1\mu m - 40\mu m)$

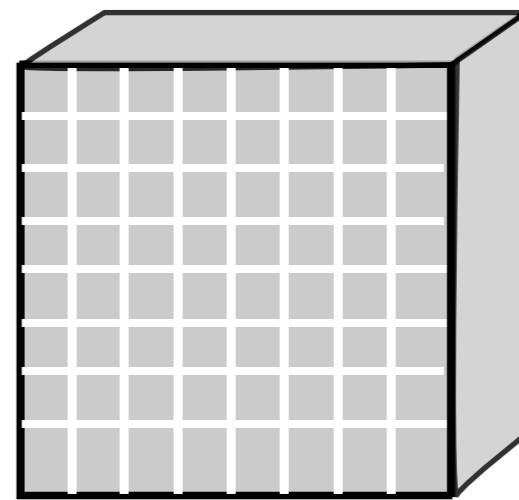


+ directly access individual pixels

- complex and expensive

Charge Coupled Devices (CCDs)

$(0.1\mu m - 1\mu m)$



+ monolithic structure built in Si wafer

- charge transfer inefficiencies

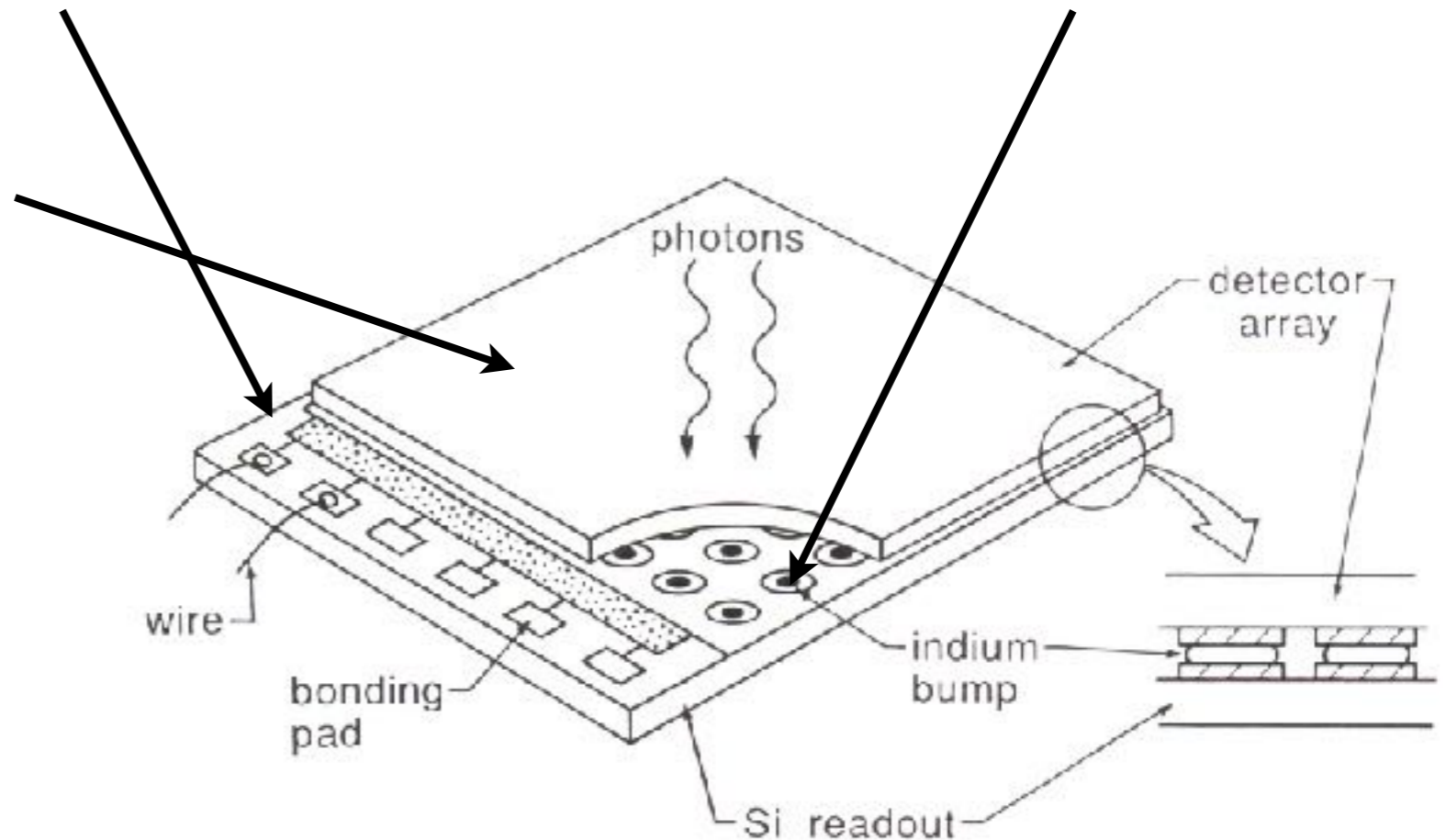
Production of IR Arrays

Make a grid of readout amplifiers
in Silicon

Make a matching image of
detector pixels

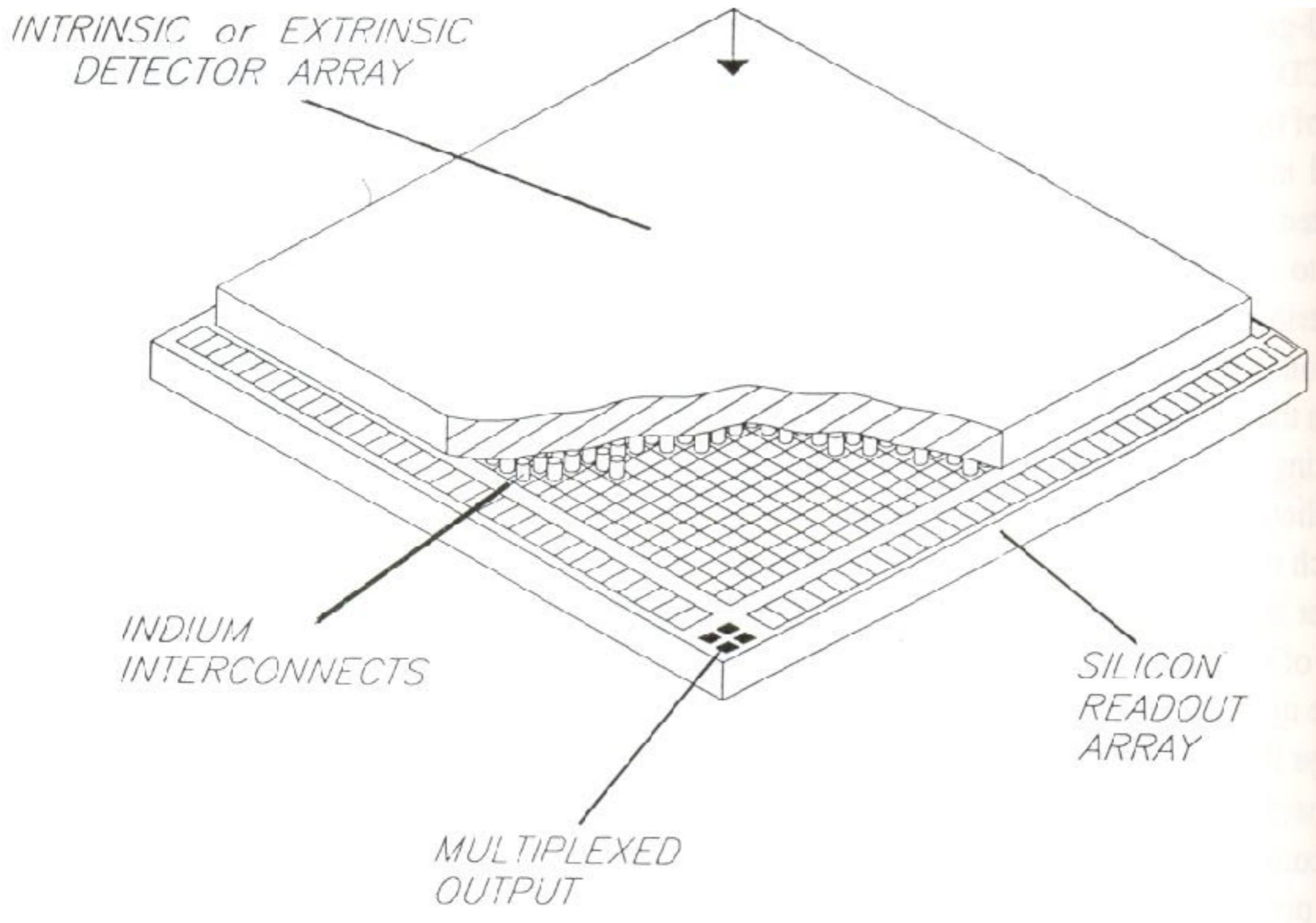
Squeeze them together to
make a **hybrid array**

Deposit Indium bumps on both sides

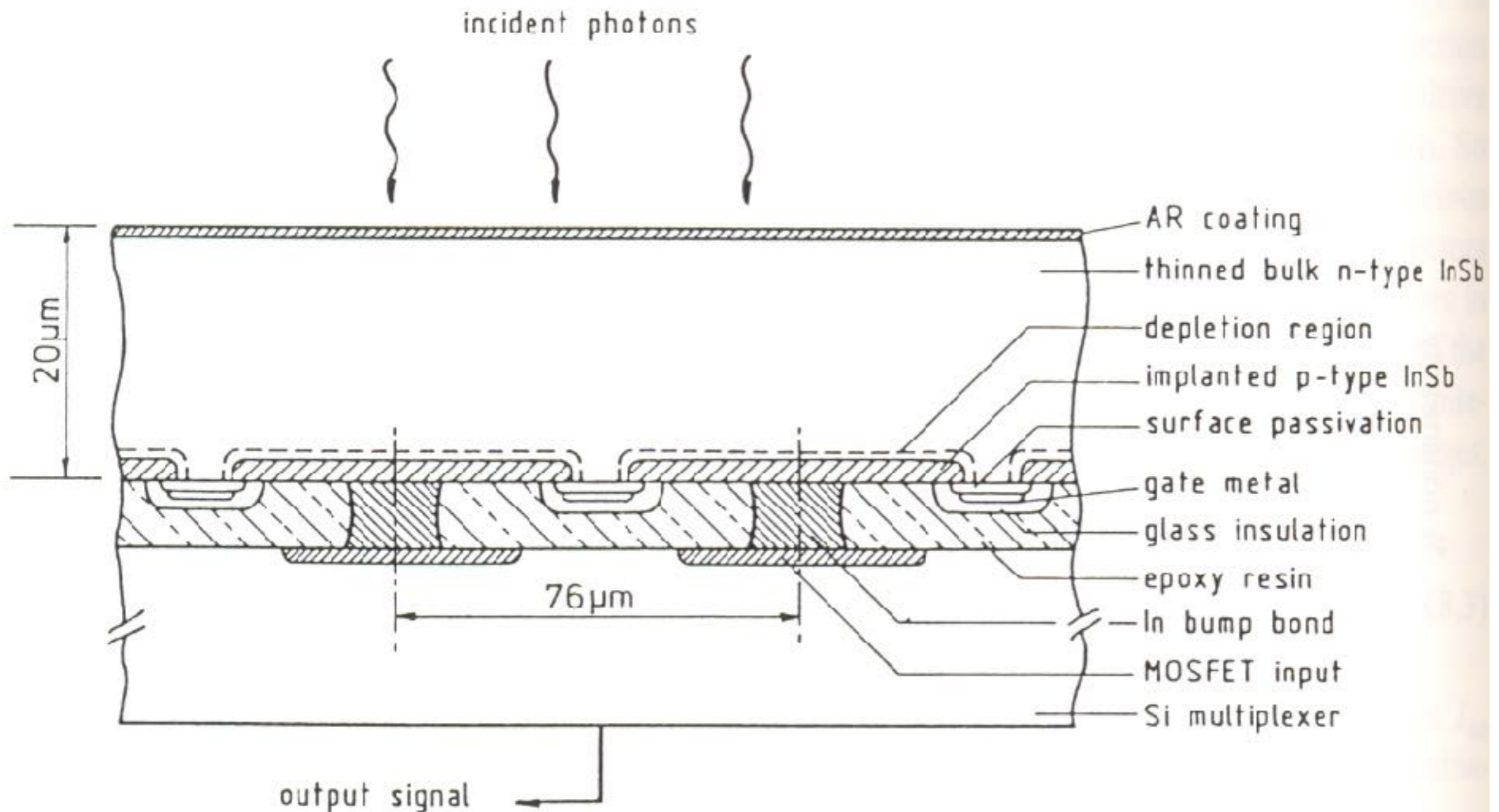


Why Indium? It's a **soft** metal and will still be ductile at cryogenic temperatures!

Production of IR Arrays

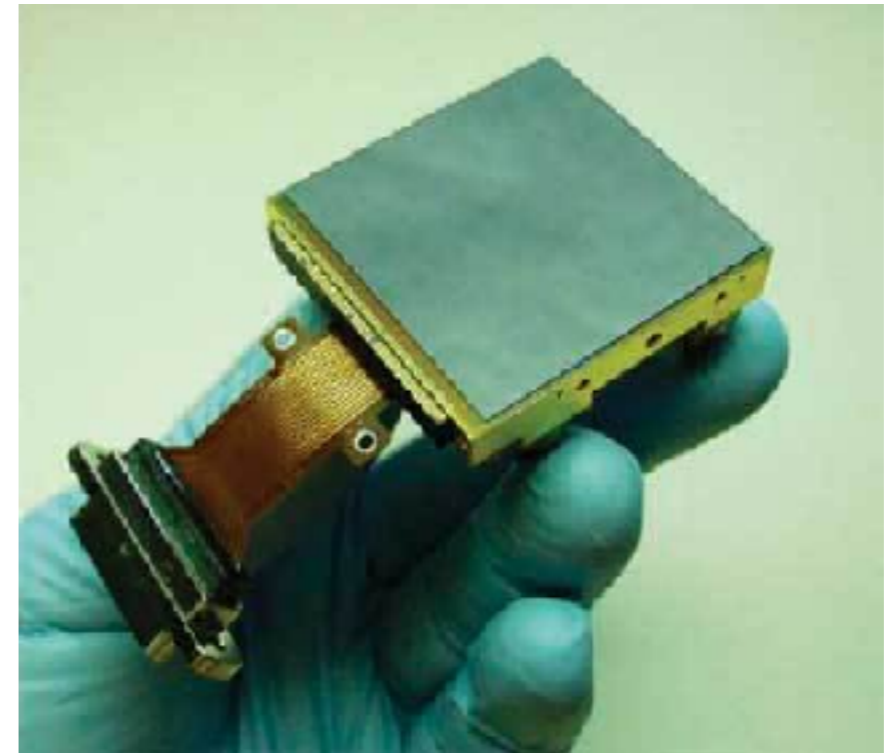


Detailed Bonding Structure of IR Array

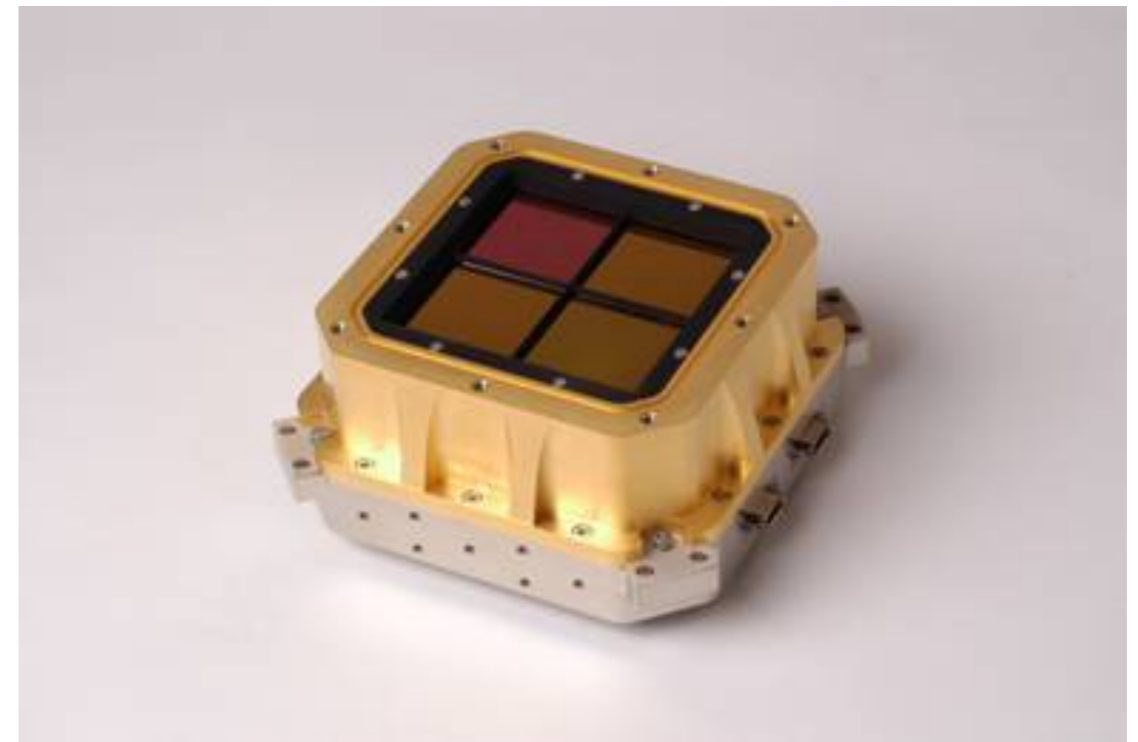


The Teledyne 2k x 2k Hawaii-2RG detector

Parameter	Specification
Detector technology	HgCdTe or Si PIN
Detector input circuit	SFD
Readout mode	Ripple
Pixel readout rate	100 kHz to 5MHz (continuously adjustable)
Total pixels	2048 x 2048
Pixel pitch	18 μm
Fill factor	$\geq 98\%$
Output ports	Signal: 1, 4, 32 selectable guide window and reference
Spectral range	0.3 - 5.3 μm
Operating temperature	$\geq 30\text{K}$
Quantum efficiency (array mean)	$\geq 65\%$
Charge storage capacity	$\geq 100,000e^-$
Pixel operability	$\geq 95\%$
Dark current (array mean)	$\leq 0.1 e^-/\text{sec}$ (77K, 2.5 μm)
Read noise (array mean)	$\leq 15 e^-$ CDS @ 100 kHz
Power dissipation	$\leq 4 \text{ mW}$ @ 100 kHz



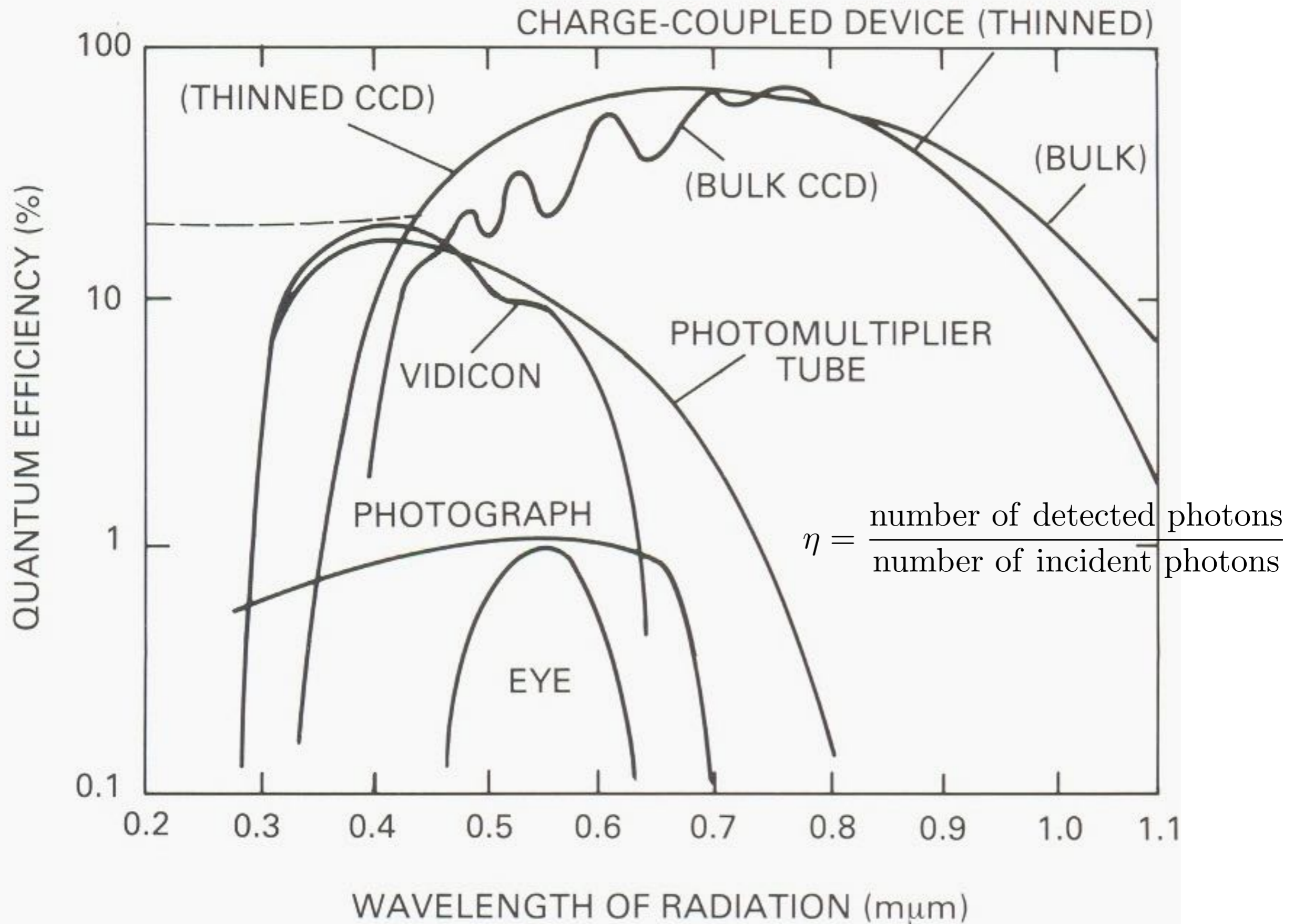
Can also be combined to a 2x2 mosaic



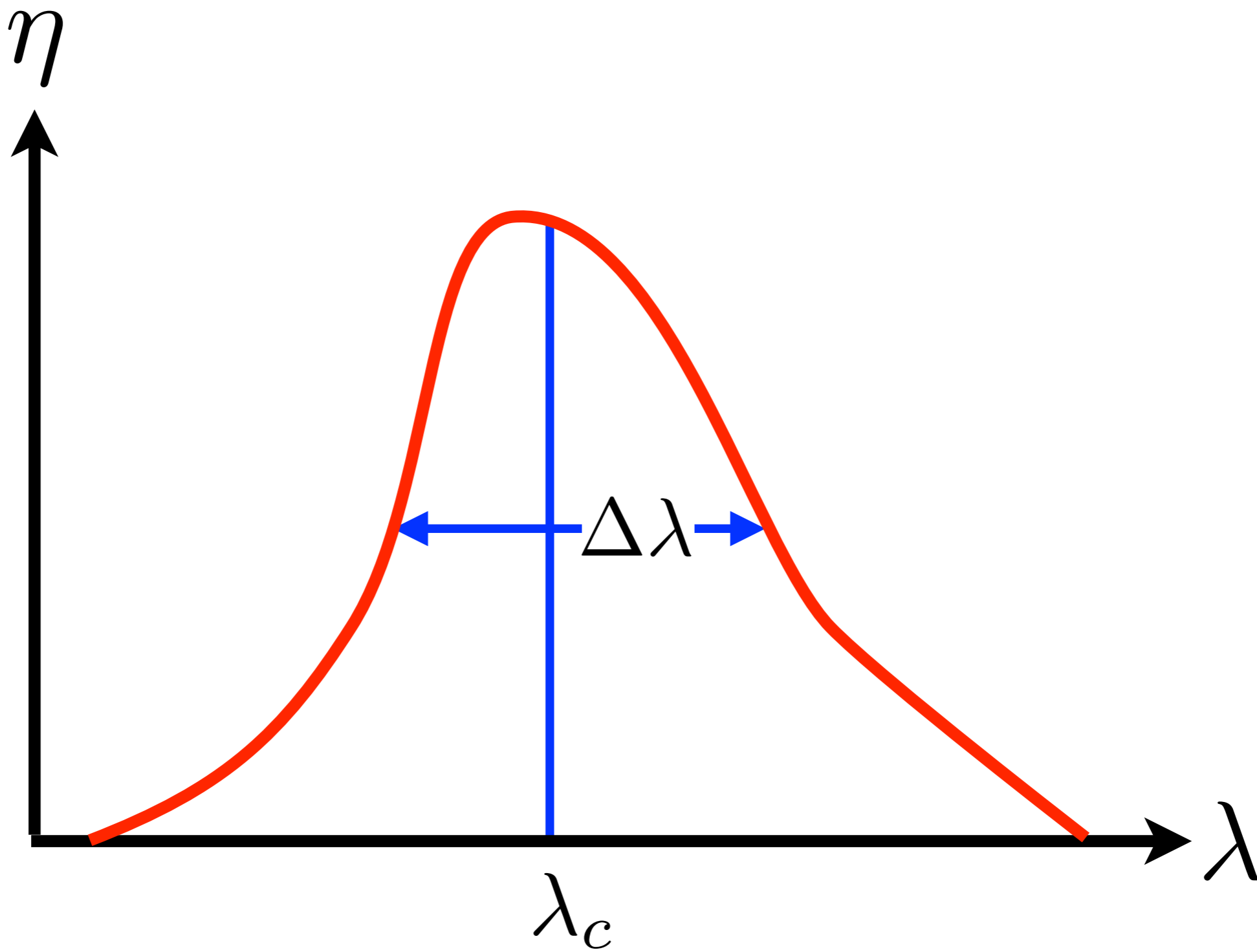
Some Performance Aspects of Detectors

- **Spectral response and bandwidth**
- **Linearity / saturation**
- **Dynamic range**
- **Quantum efficiency**
- **Noise**
- **Geometric properties**
- **Time response**
- **Polarization**
- **Operational aspects**

Spectral Response and Bandwidth



Spectral Response and Bandwidth



Linearity and Dynamic Range



<http://www.luckymanpress.com>

Commercial cameras: 8 to 12 bits $10^{2.4}$ to $10^{3.6}$

Astronomical cameras: 16 bits ++ $10^{4.2}$

Noise

Most important:

$$\sigma = \frac{Signal}{Noise}$$

measured as (S+B)-mean{B}

Total noise = $\sqrt{\sum (N_i)^2}$ if statist. independent

Most relevant noise sources:

Photon noise follows Poisson statistics: $P(m) = \frac{e^{-n} n^m}{m!}$

(= probability to detect m photons in a given time interval where, on average, n photons

$$S / N = \sqrt{n})$$

G-R noise: statistics of the generated and recombined holes and electrons, related to the Poisson statistics of the incoming photons.

Johnson, kTC or reset noise: thermodynamic noise due to the thermal motion of the charge carriers.

1/f noise (increased noise at low frequencies) due to bad electrical contacts, temperature fluctuations, surface effects (damage), crystal defects, JFETs, ...

Noise

Signal: (S + B) - mean(B)

$$\sigma = \frac{Signal}{Noise}$$

Noise: can be added as $\sqrt{\sum (N_i)^2}$

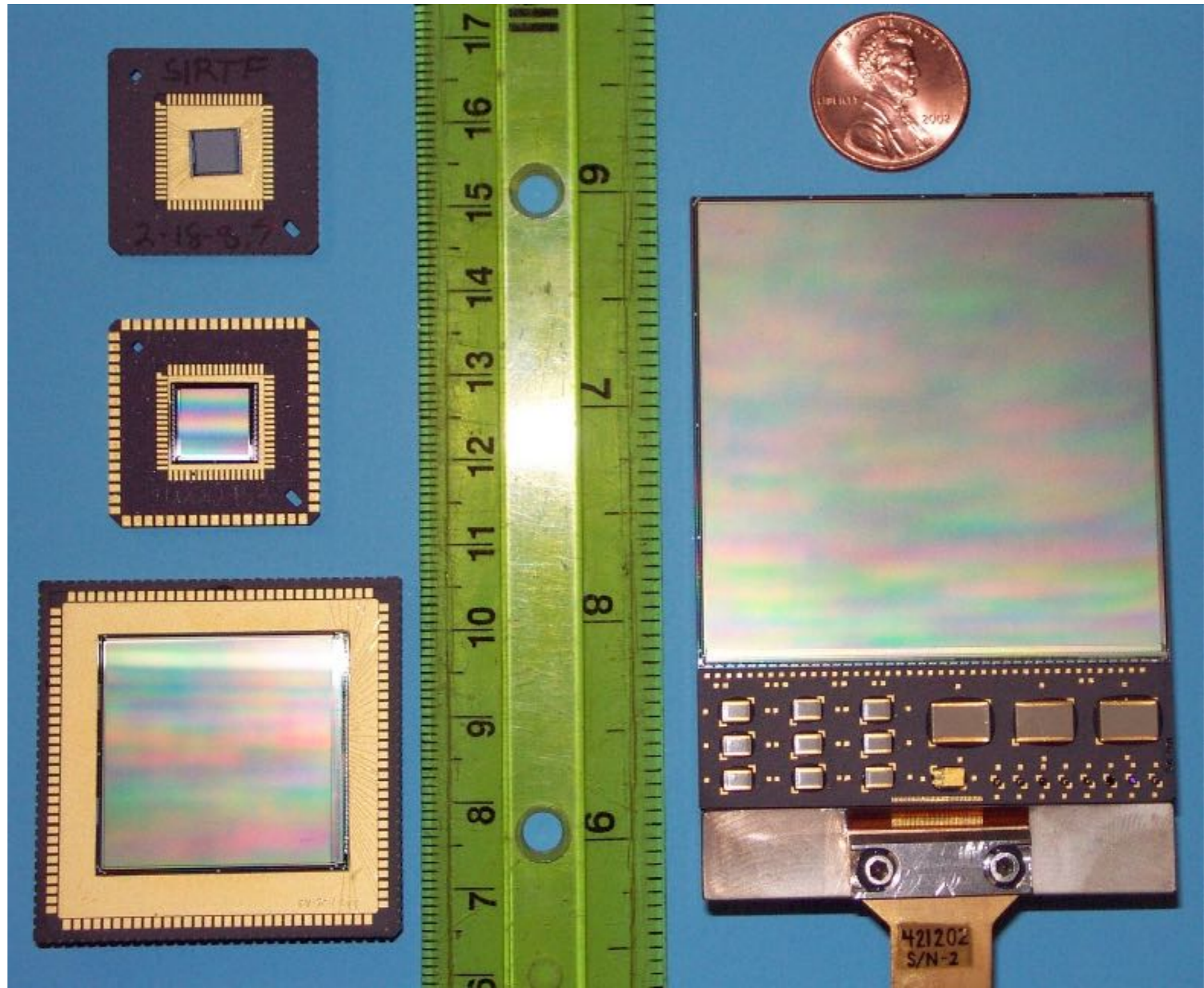
Photon noise follows Poisson statistics:

$$P(m) = \frac{e^{-n} n^m}{m!} \quad S/N = \sqrt{n}$$

where P(m) the probability to detect m photons over a time interval and where the mean rate of photons is n

Geometrical Properties

Geometrical dimension and pixel number $x \times y$



Calibrating a CCD image

For each **SCIENCE** image **S** (exposure time t_s)

Subtract off a **BIAS** image **B** to remove ADC offset (zero time integration)

Subtract off a **DARK** image **D** to remove dark current offset (exposure time t_d)

Divide by a **FLAT FIELD** image **F** to remove gain variations (exposure time t_f)

$$S' = \frac{S - \frac{t_S}{t_D}(D - B) - B}{F - \frac{t_F}{t_D}(D - B) - B}$$

- $F - \frac{t_F}{t_D}(D - B) - B$ often normalized such that mean of $S' =$ mean of S

Gain, Read Noise, Saturation limit

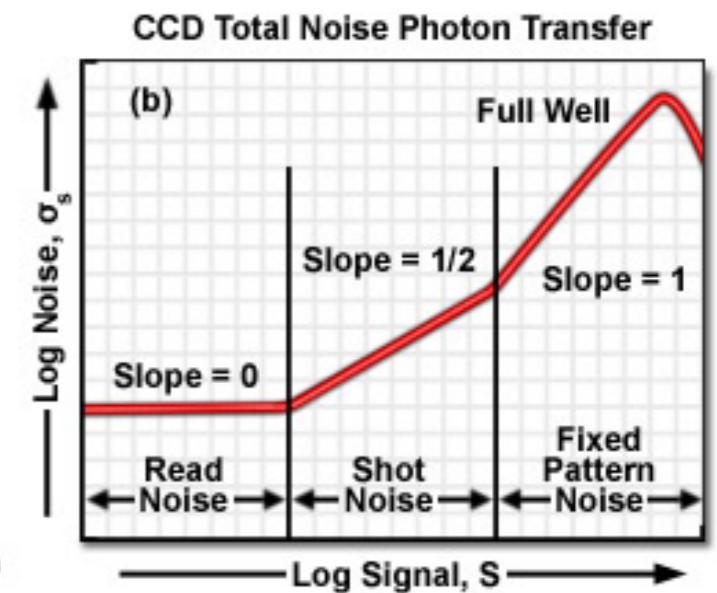
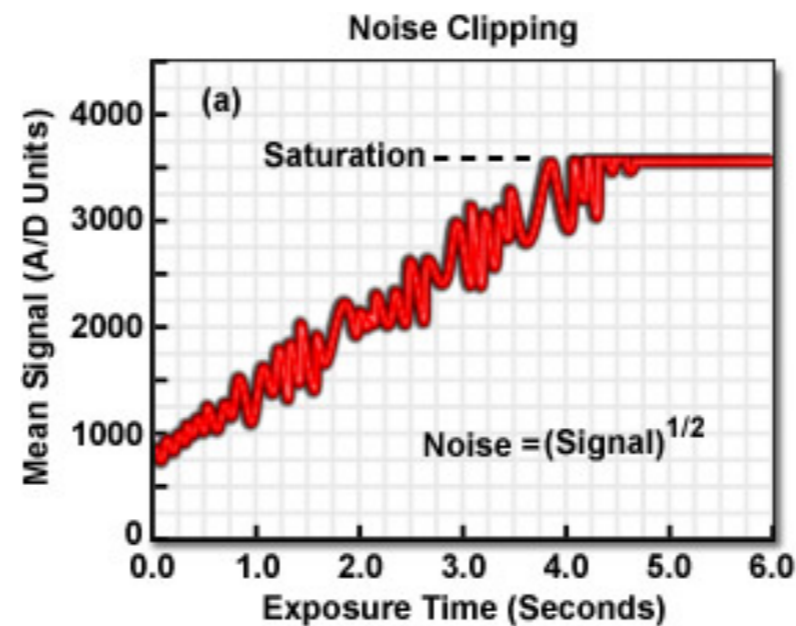
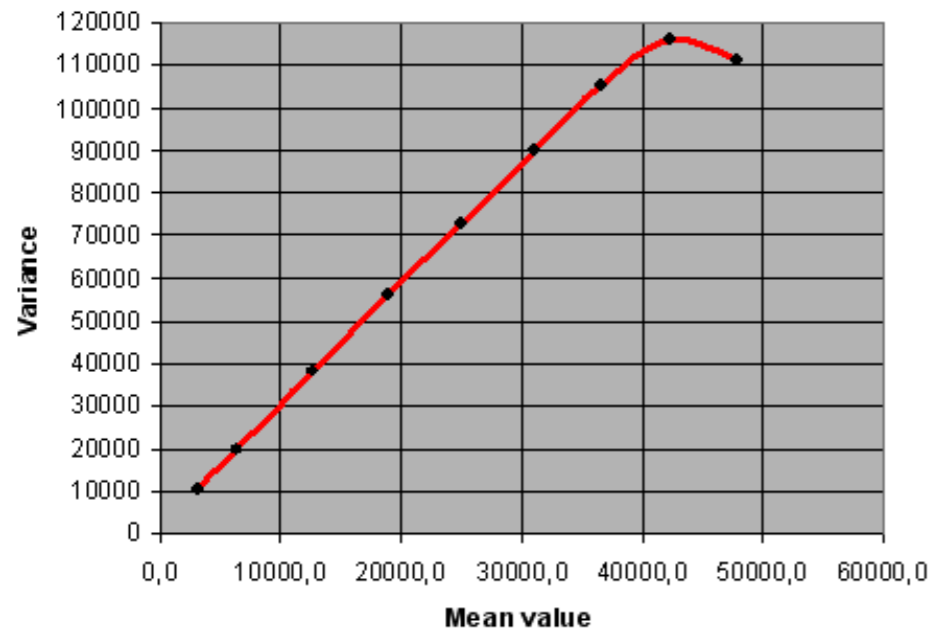
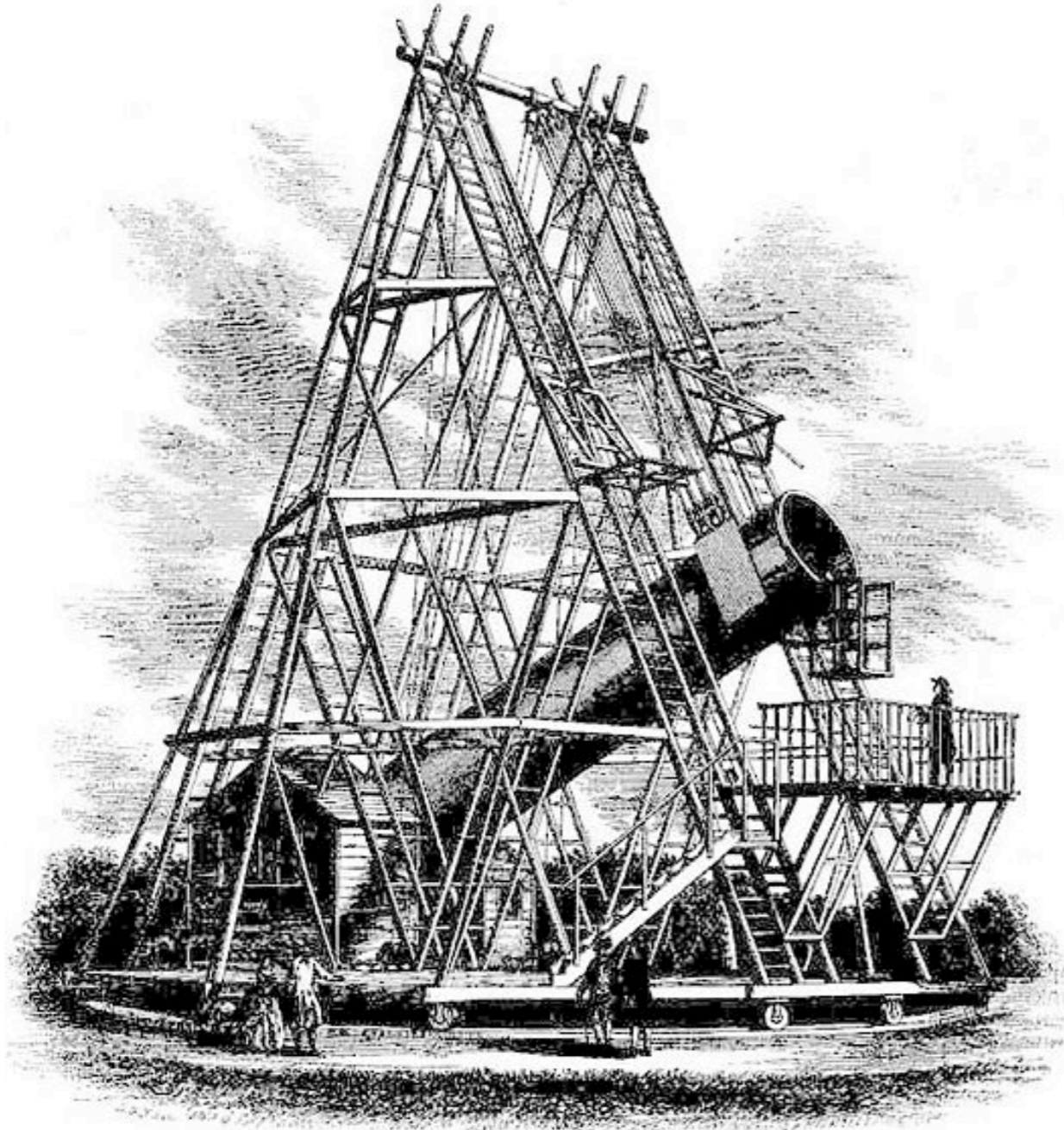


Figure 2

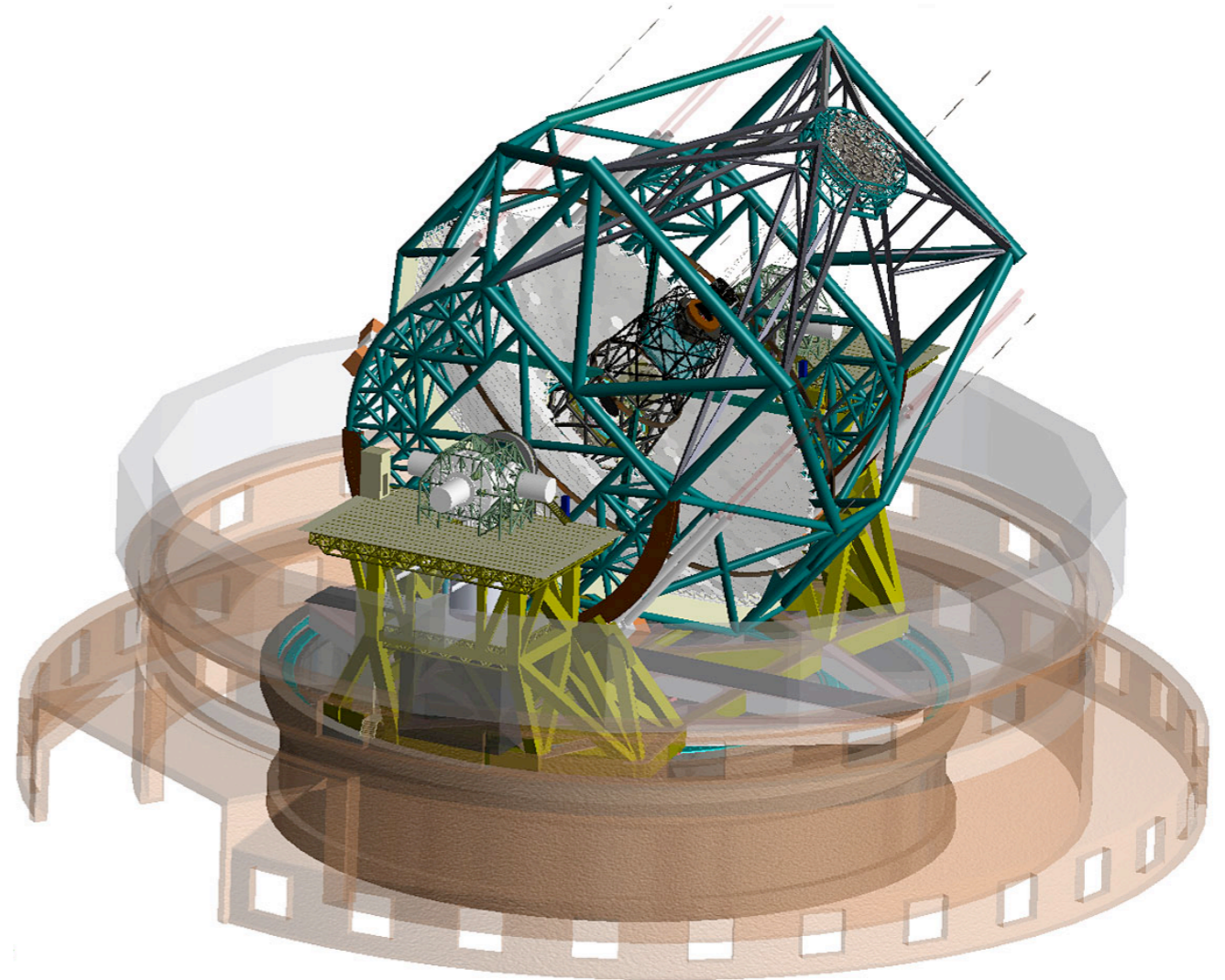
- gain (G) between arbitrary digital units (ADU, A) and number of photo-electrons (e): $A = G \cdot e$
- noise in e is given by $\sigma_e^2 = e$
- and therefore $\sigma_A^2 = G^2 \sigma_e^2 = G^2 e$
- gain G determined from $G = \frac{\sigma_A^2}{A}$

Accurately recording what you see

Looking at the sky without recording it is just tourism



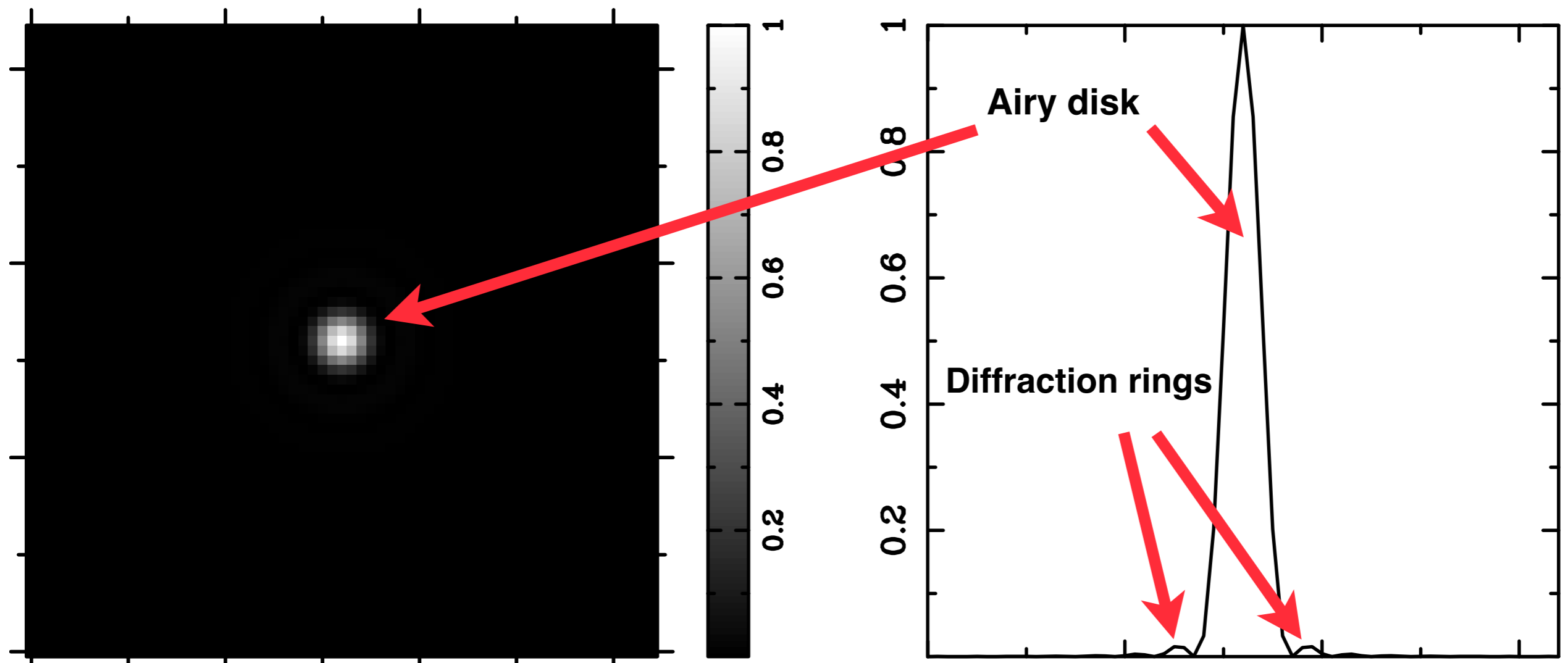
Herschel 1789



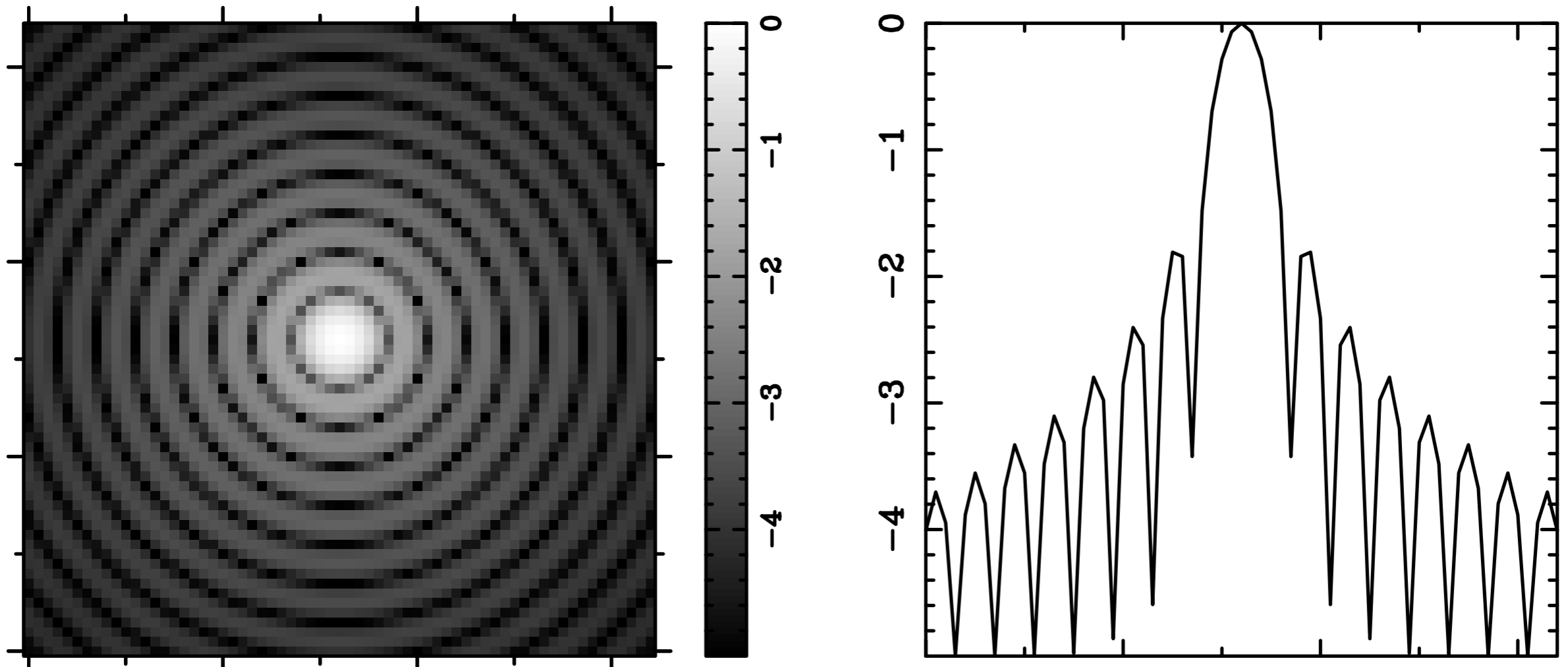
E-ELT (2026)

Full Width at Half Maximum (FWHM) and Airy Disk

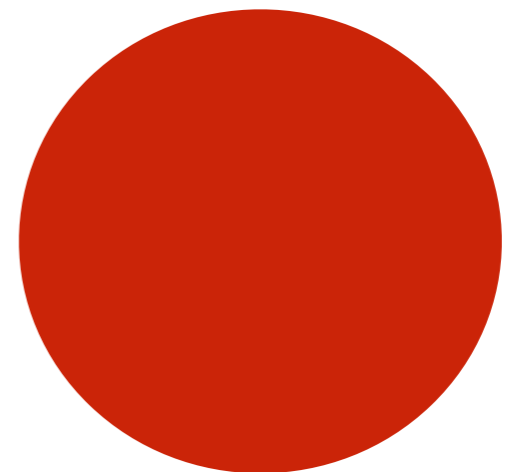
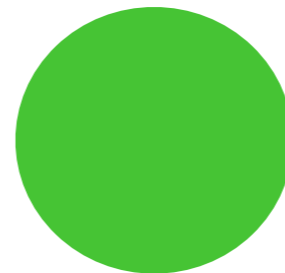
Imaging a point source with a telescope shows a diffraction pattern due to finite size of telescope aperture and wavelike nature of light



FWHM and Airy Disk (logarithmic)



$$\text{FWHM} = 1.22 \frac{\lambda}{D}$$



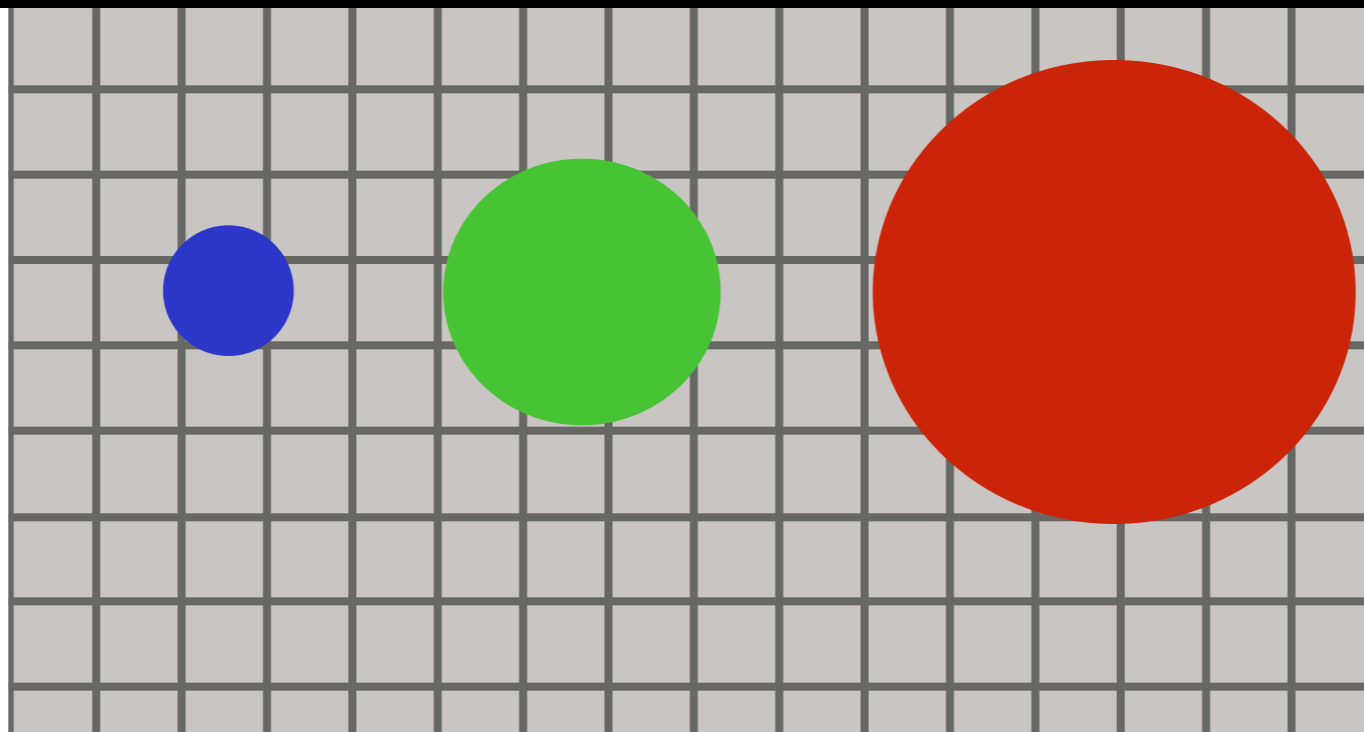
The Goldilocks Detector

There is an **OPTIMUM** pixel scale for a given wavelength

From Shannon and Nyquist Sampling theorem: $\sim 2.5\text{pix}/\text{FWHM}$

Most AO imagers have a plate scale that matches 2.5 pixels FWHM at the shortest wavelength

< 2 : undersampled

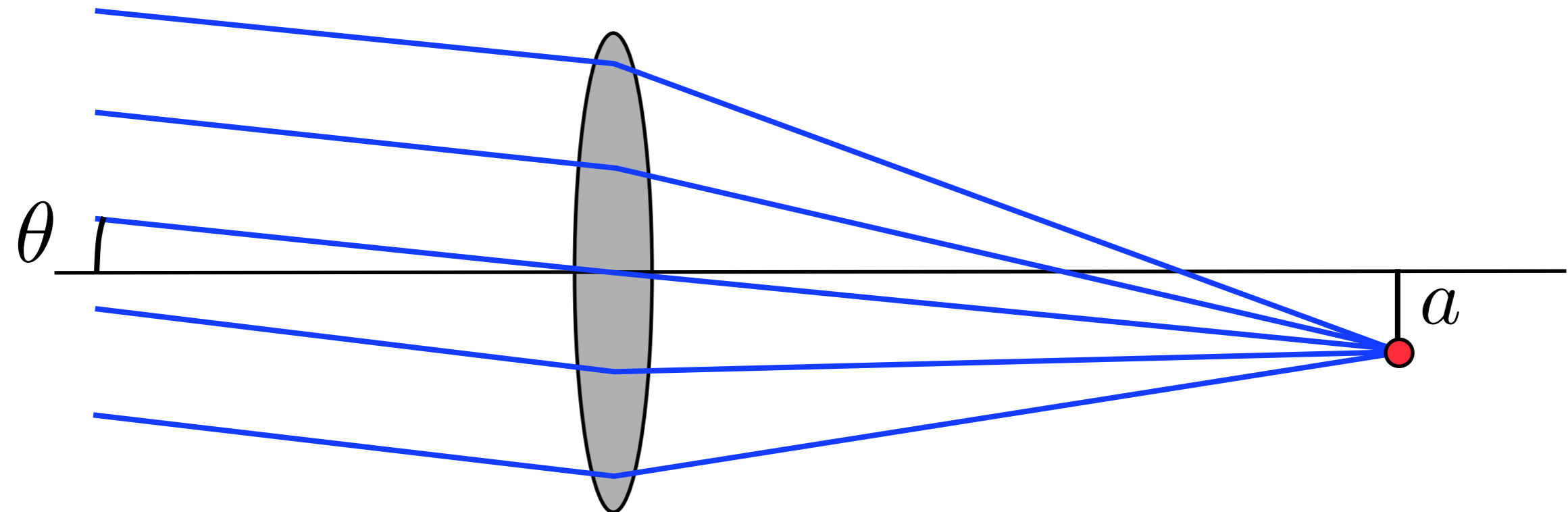


> 4 : oversampled

Imagers

The plate scale

Simple lens with diameter D and focal length f



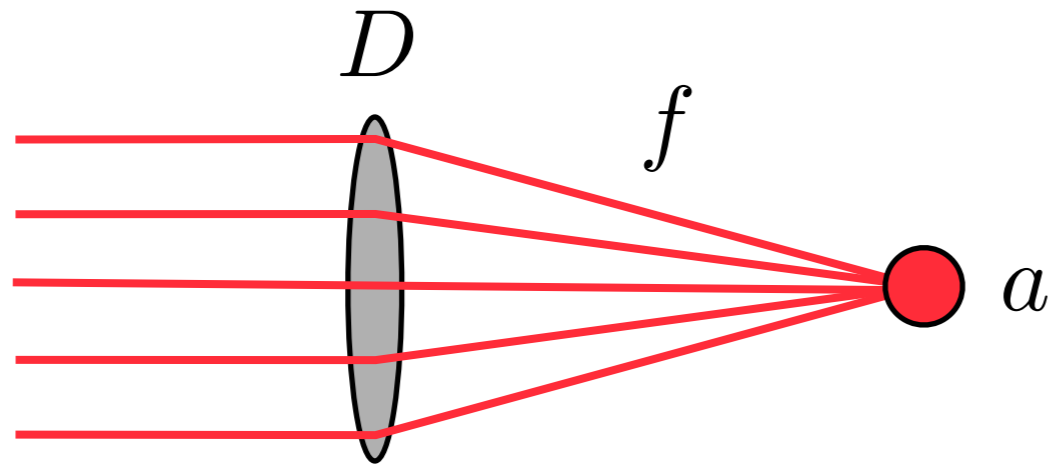
Arcseconds / mm

$$\text{Plate Scale} = \frac{\theta}{a} = \frac{206}{f}$$

metres

NOTE! Plate scale does **NOT** depend on diameter D , only the focal length

**Take a seeing limited telescope and
double it in size**



Focal length doubled - focal ratio kept constant

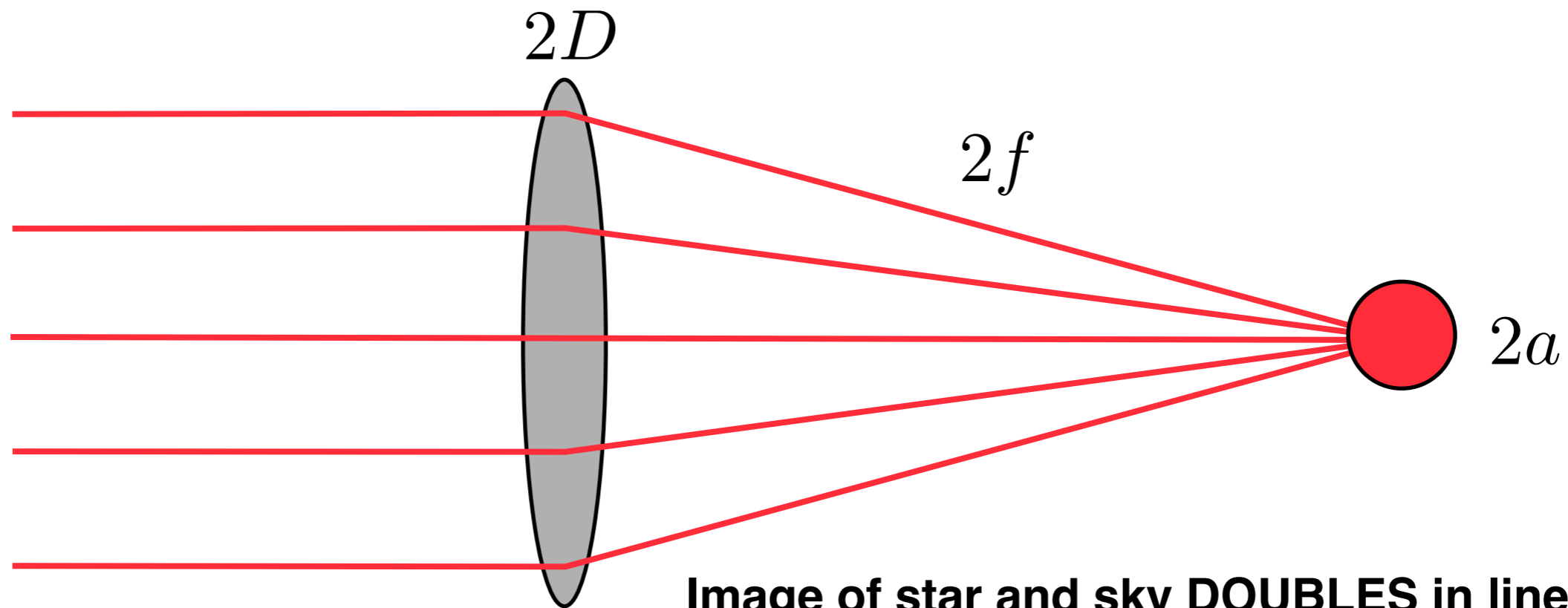
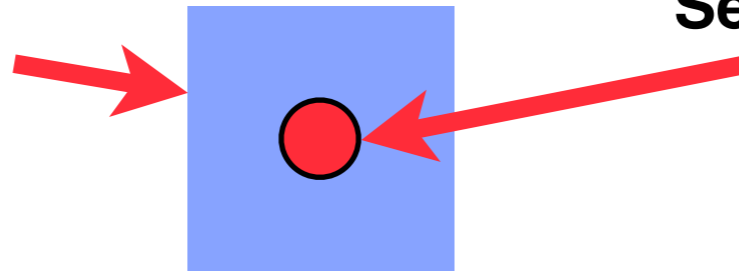


Image of star and sky DOUBLES in linear size

Seeing limited telescope sensitivity

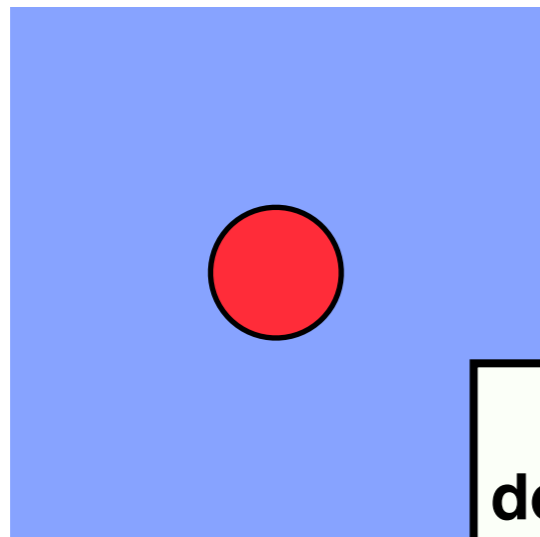
$$\text{Signal to noise} = \frac{S}{N} \propto D^2$$

Sky background
magnitudes/square arcsec



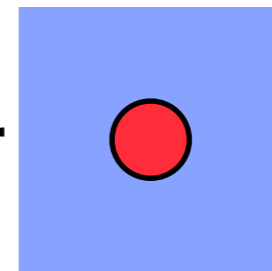
Seeing limited image of star

Double all sizes



Focal length constant

4x brighter

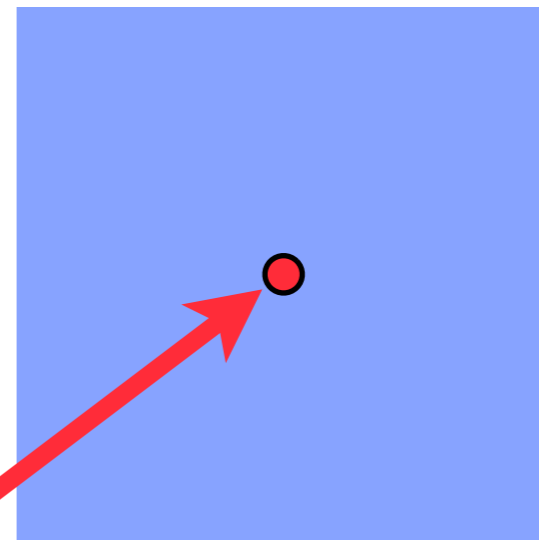
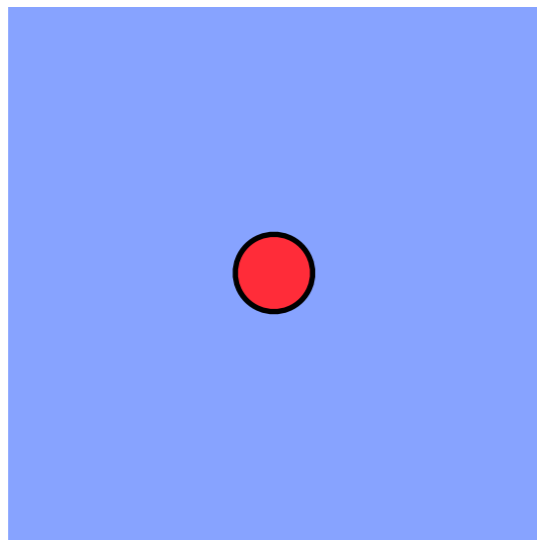


Flux/square arcsecond
does not change in either case

Diffraction limited telescope sensitivity

Diffraction limited star image is
SMALLER than seeing star image

Doubling the diameter



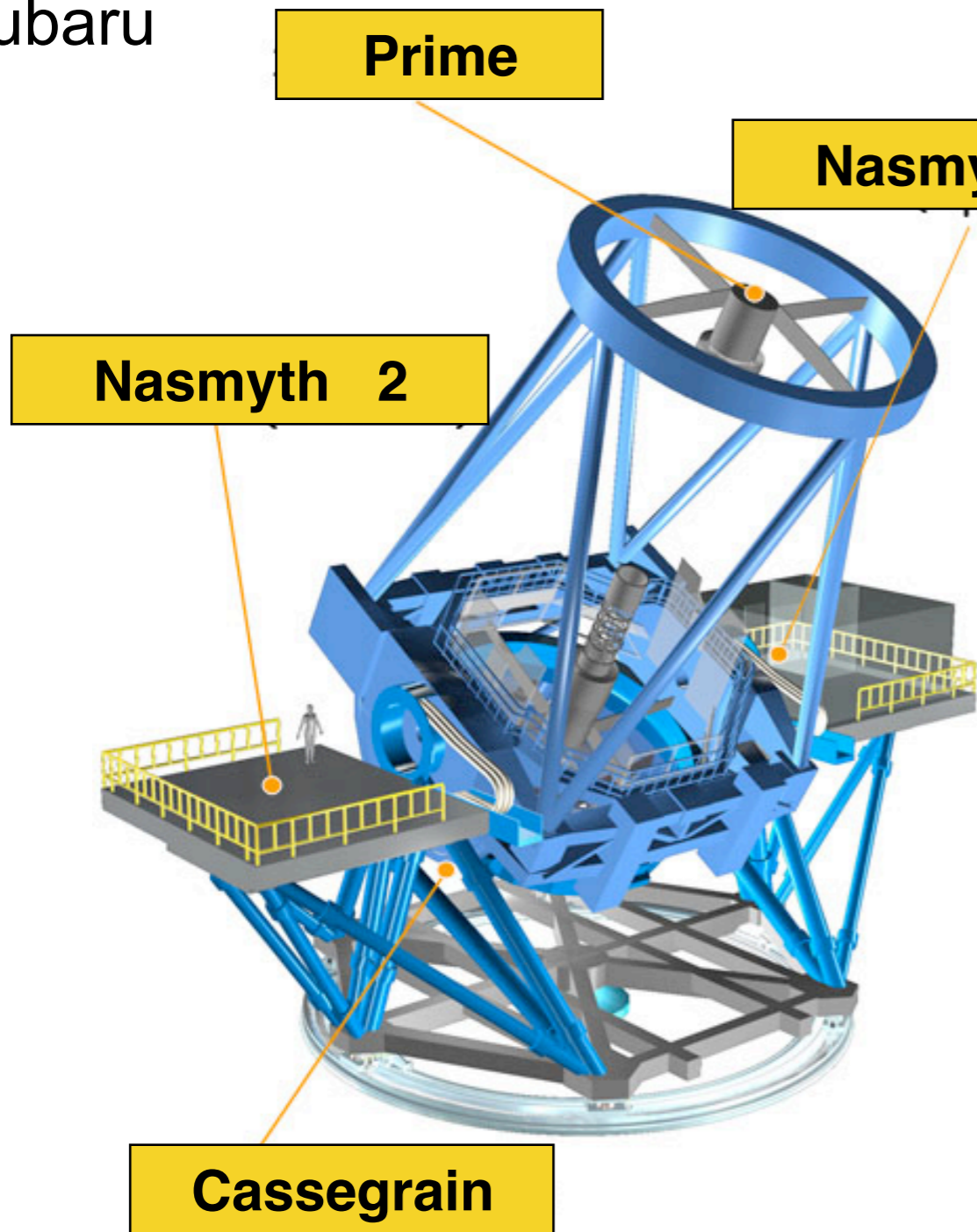
$$A_{PSF} = \pi d_{PSF}^2 \propto \left(\frac{1}{D}\right)^2$$

Area DECREASES for the PSF, so the noise contribution goes down

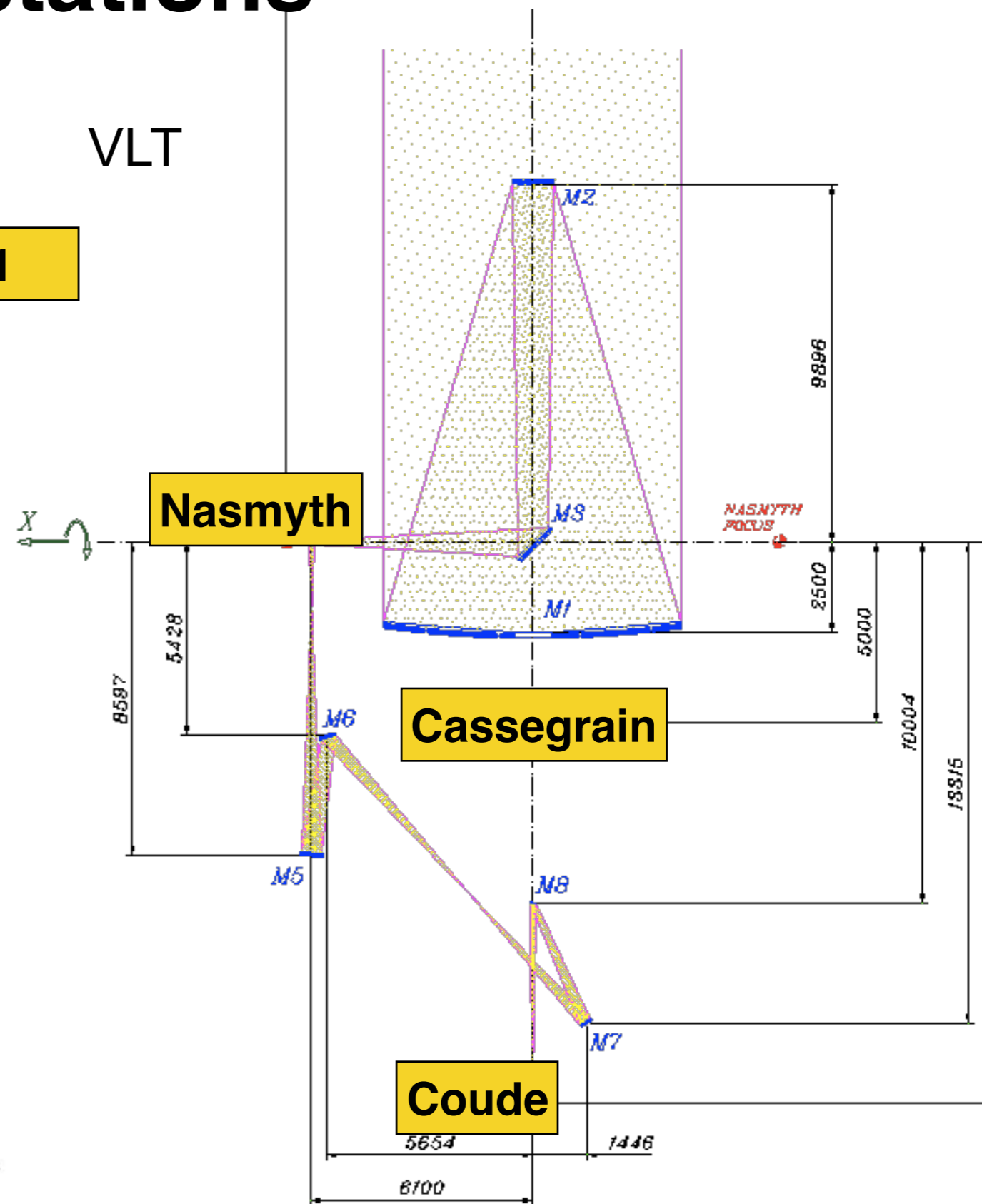
$$\text{Signal to noise} = \frac{S}{N} \propto D^4$$

Focal stations

Subaru



VLT



Focal stations

Sky rotates with hour angle



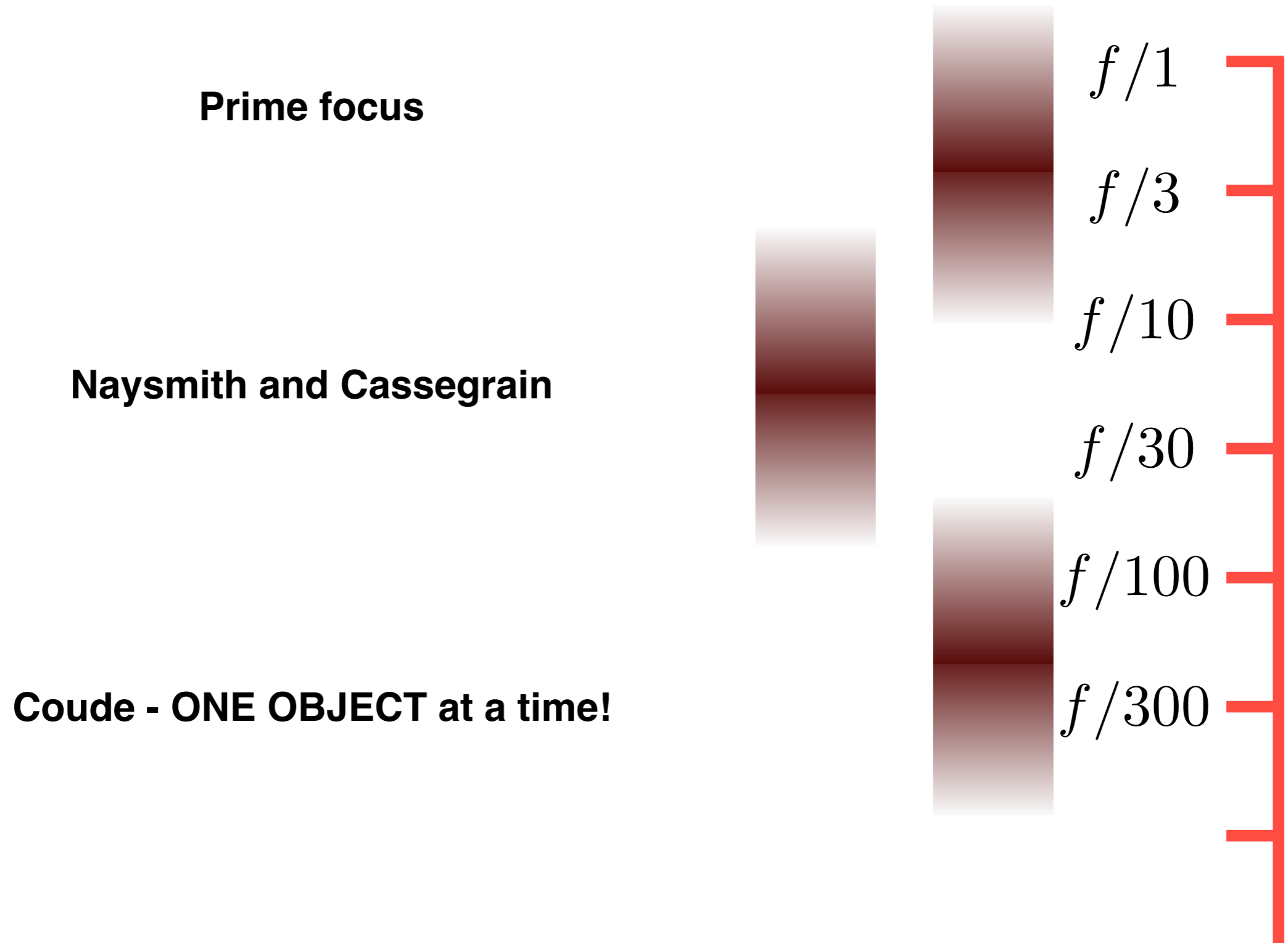
Nasmyth 2

Nasmyth 1

Tertiary mirror

VLT

Focal ratios for the various foci



Prime Focus Correctors

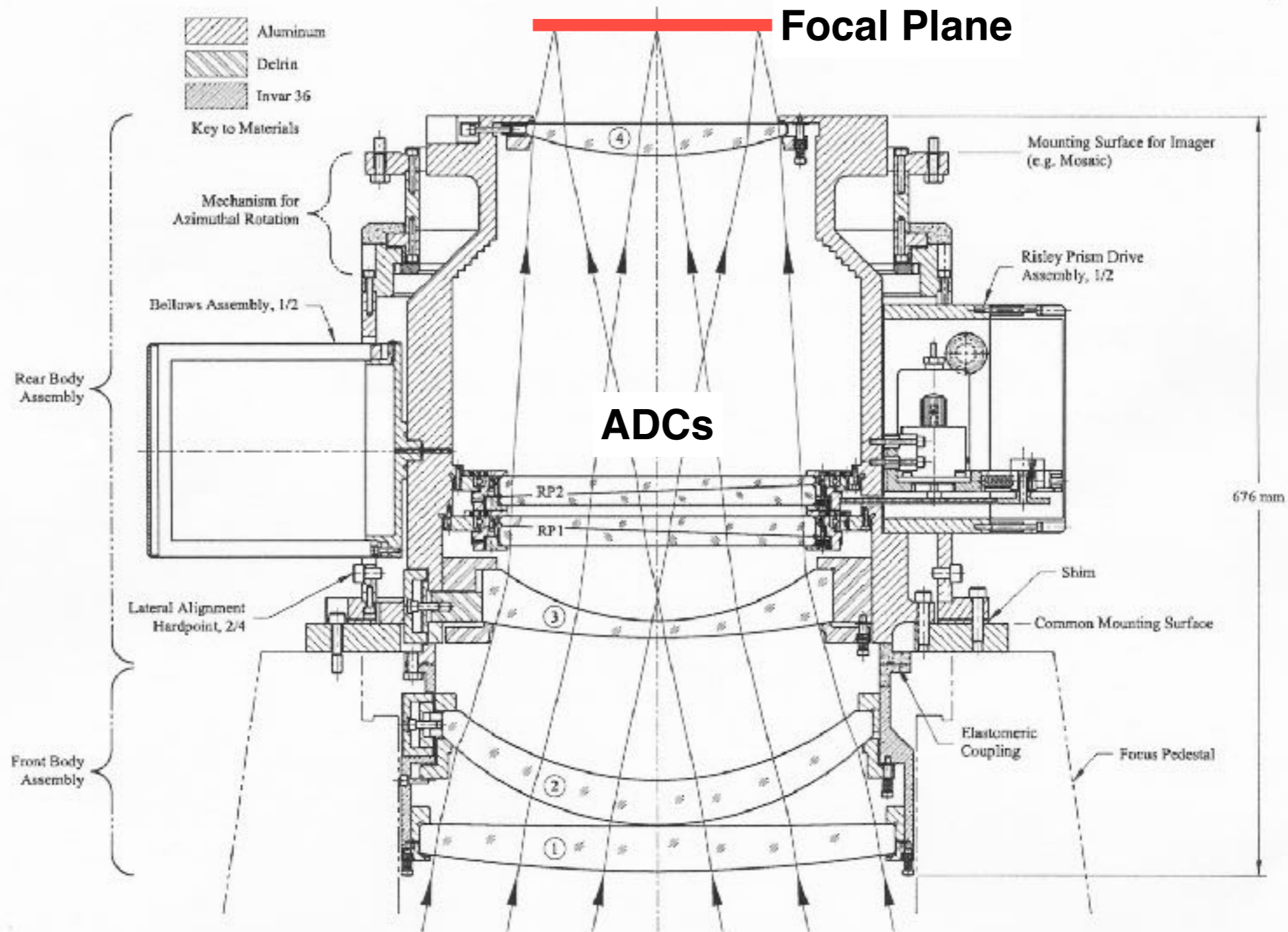


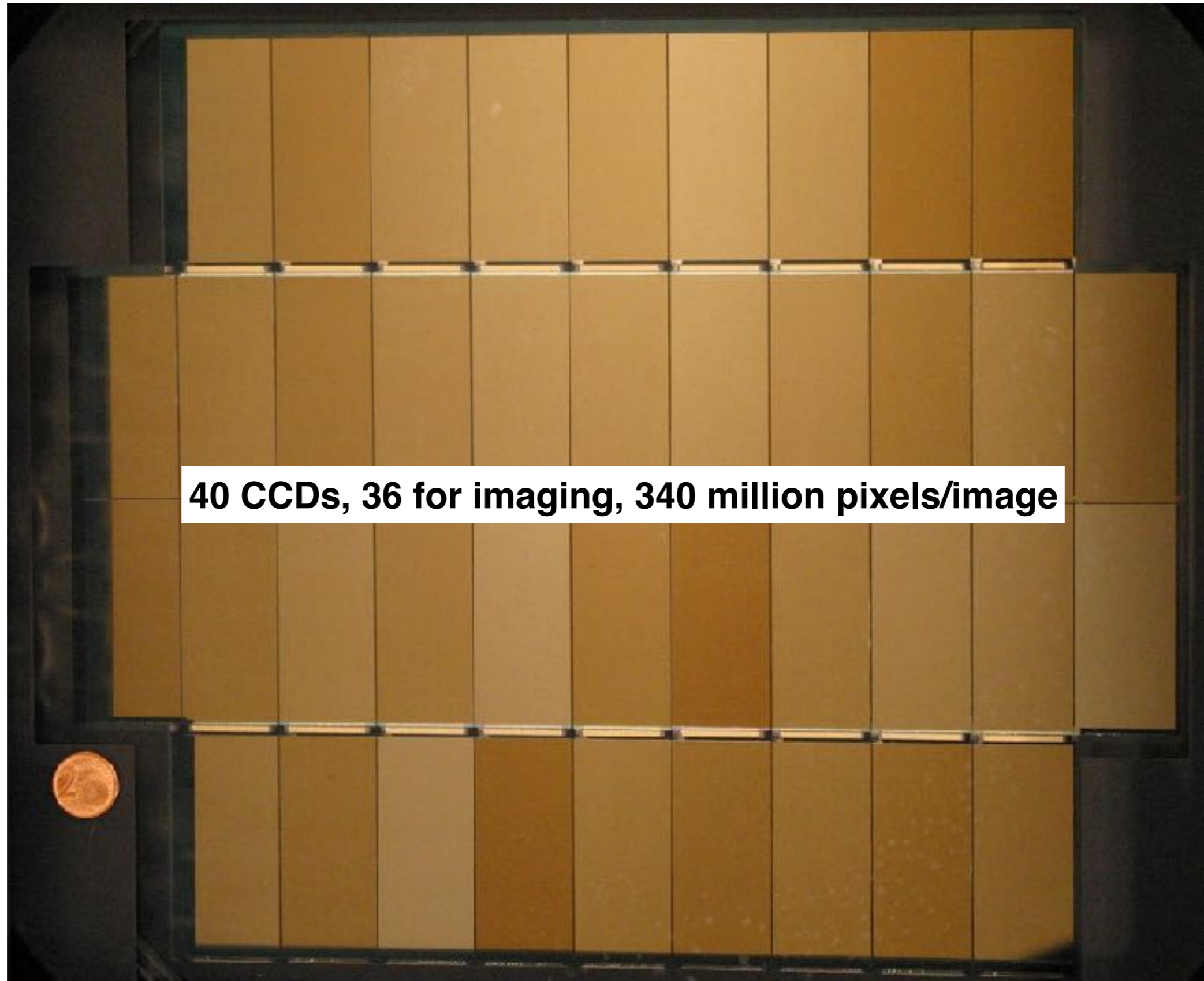
Figure 2. The opto-mechanical assembly for the new 4-m prime focus corrector. Elements #1, #2, #3, and #4 are SiO_2 . The ADC materials comprising RP1 and RP2 are UBK7 (rear) and LLF6 (front), where "rear" is closer to the detector.

4m Mayall telescope on Kitt Peak

http://www-kpno.kpno.noao.edu/glaspey/mayall_params.html

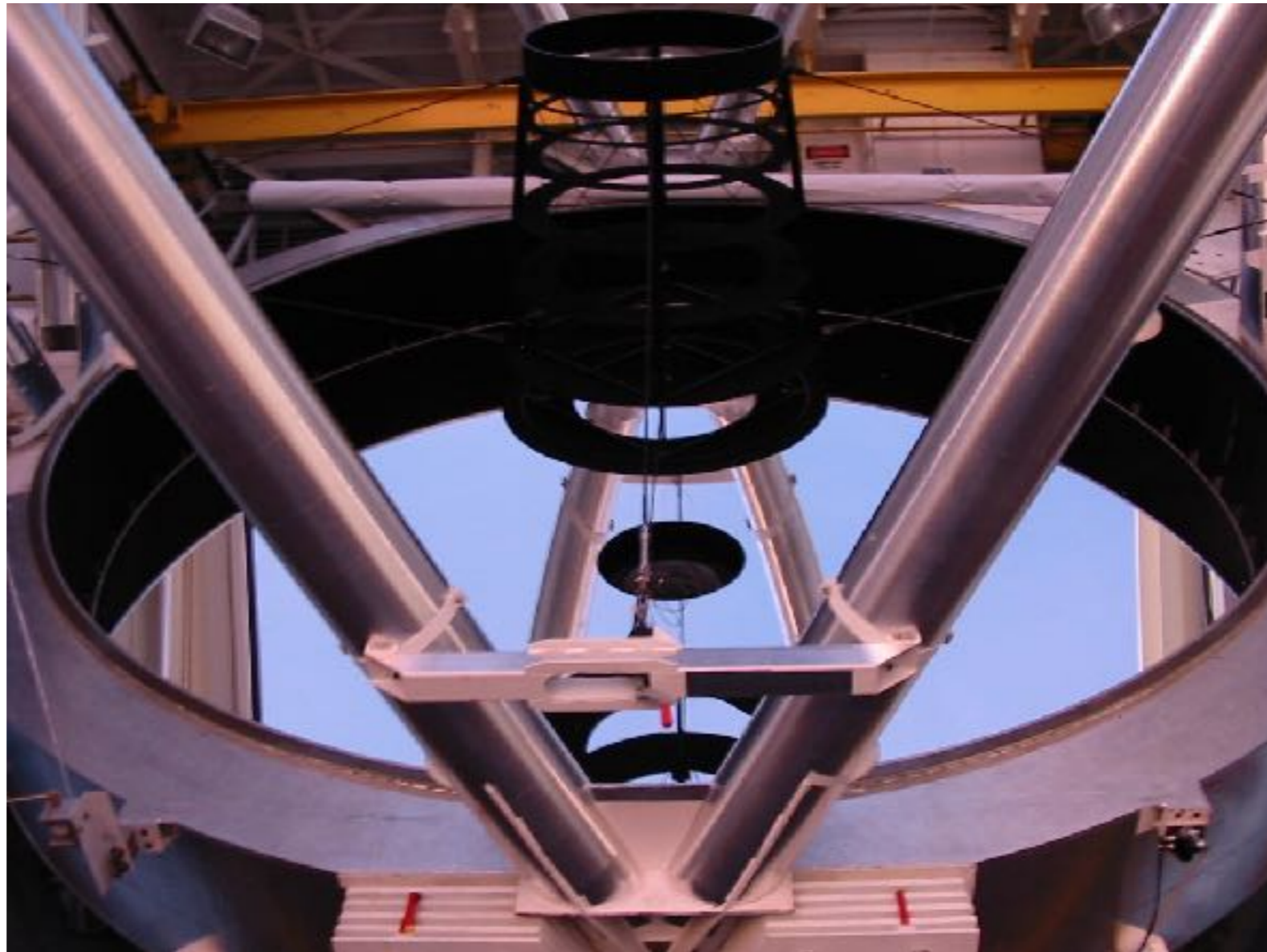
Prime Focus Imagers

Ground based imaging - MEGACAM at CFHT



40 CCDs, 36 for imaging, 340 million pixels/image

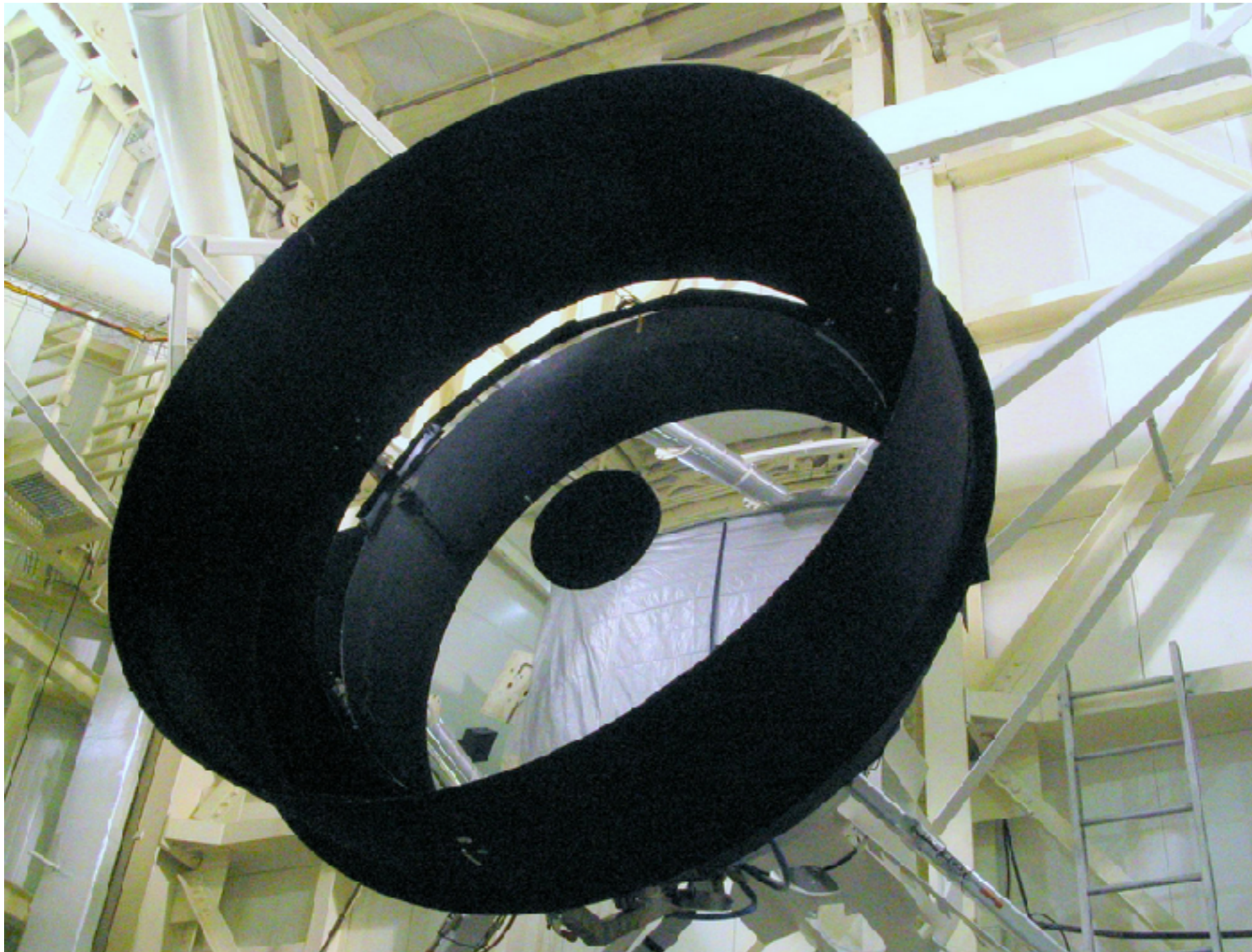
Wide Field Imagers



Telescope baffling above Cassegrain at MMTO 6.5m telescope

<https://www.cfa.harvard.edu/~mlacasse/>

Wide Field Imagers



Telescope baffling for f/5 mirror at MMTO 6.5m telescope

<https://www.cfa.harvard.edu/~mlacasse/>

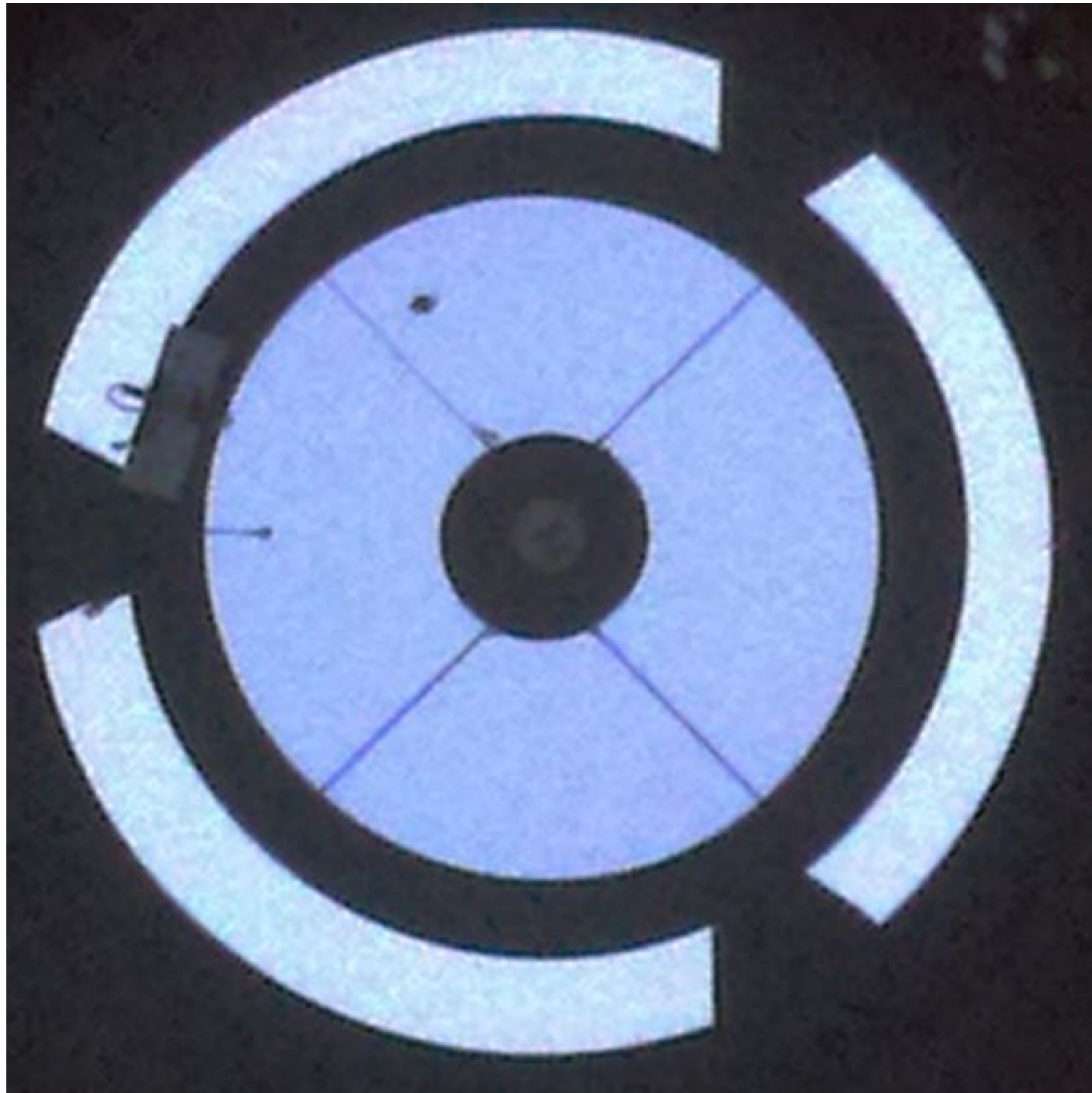
Wide Field Imagers



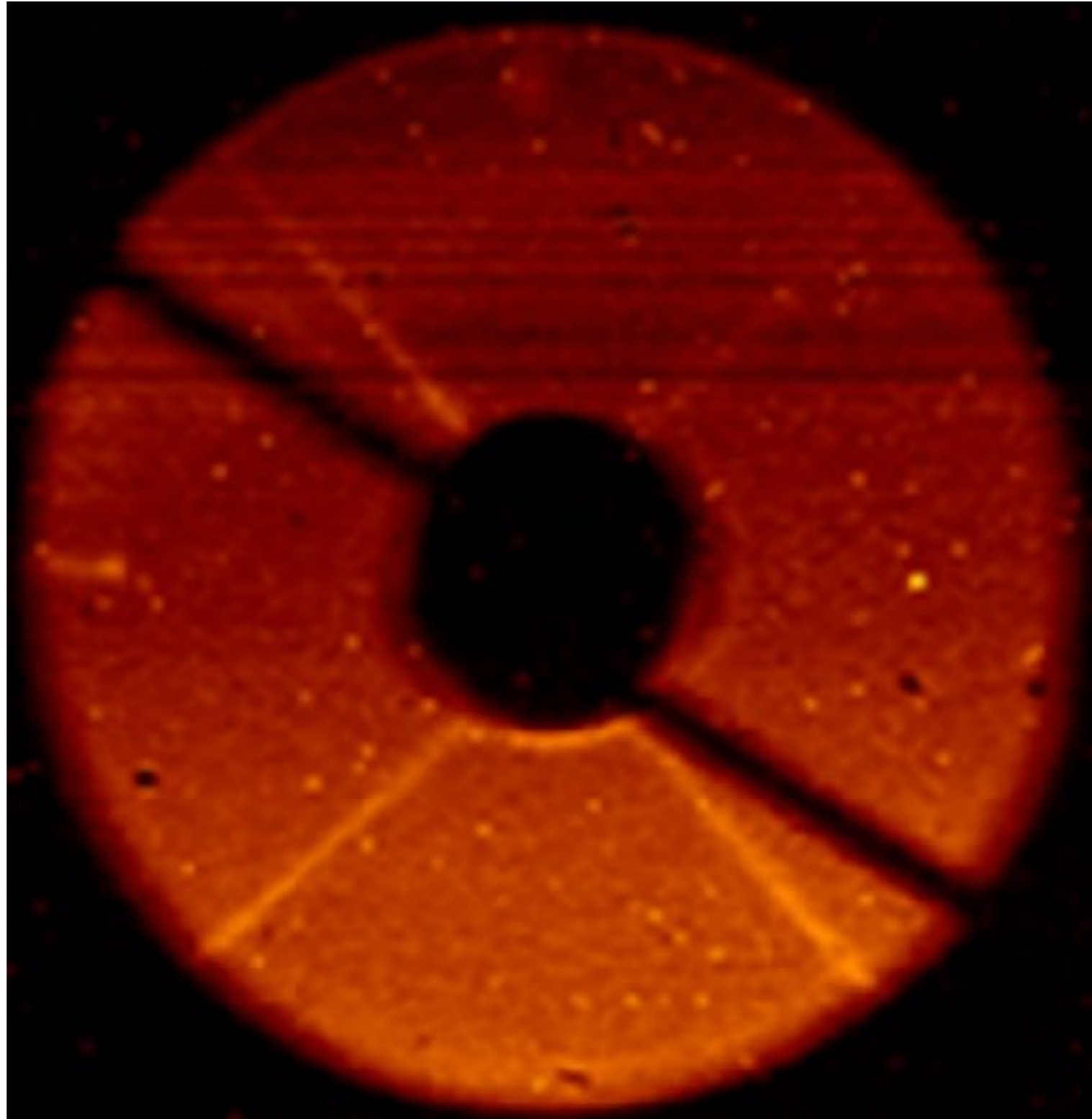
Internal reflections from a Schmidt camera

<http://www.robertreeves.com/repair1.htm>

Visible Pupil image



Infrared 3.4 micron Pupil image



Offner Relay

Used to make cold stops in IR cameras

