

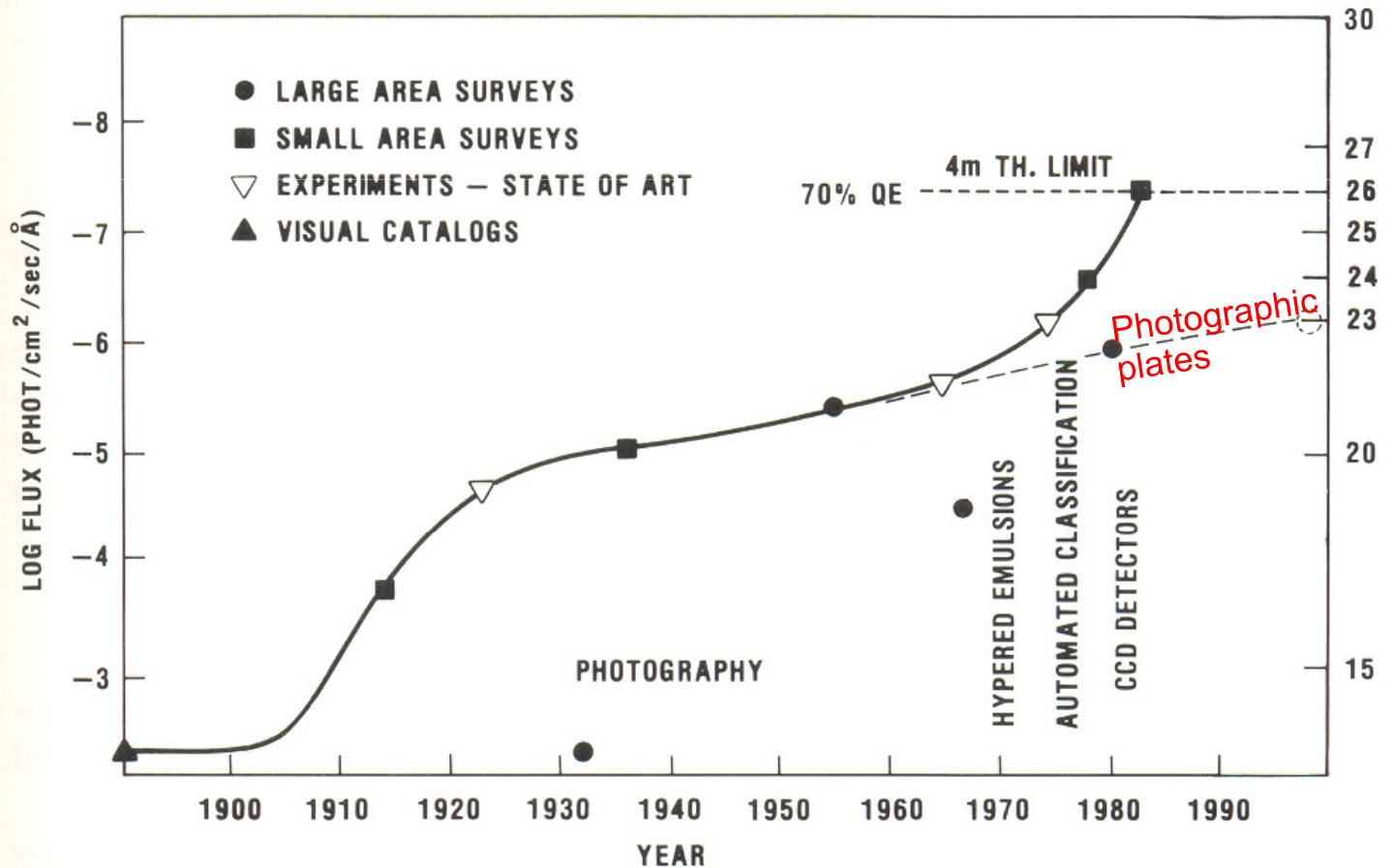
Detection of Light



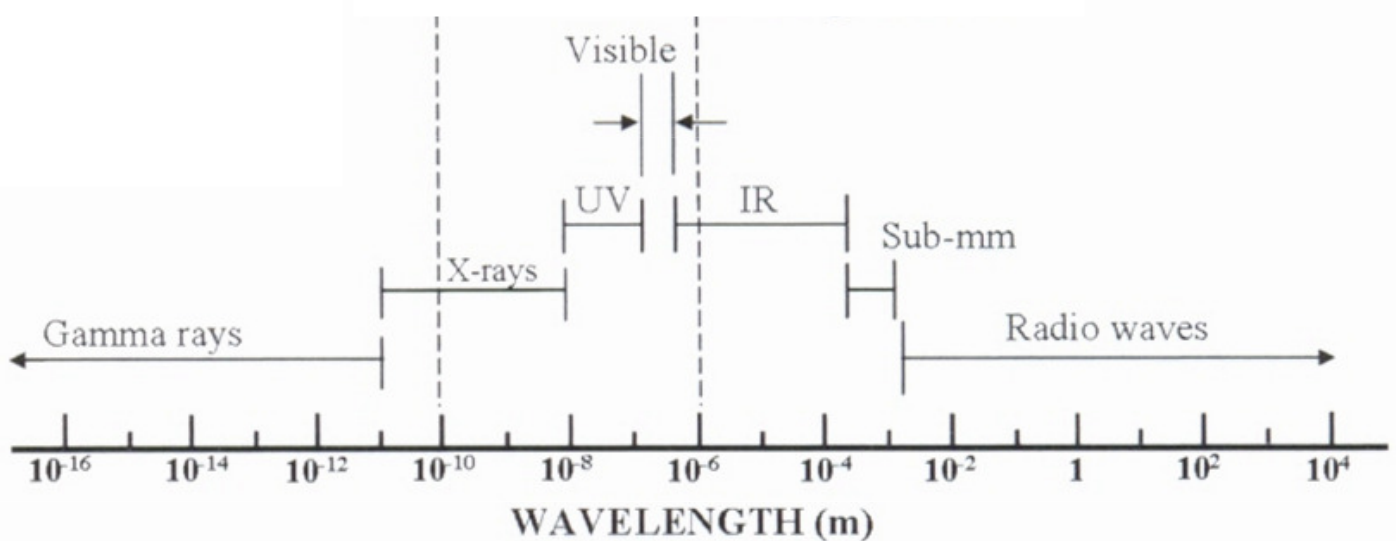
See http://www.strw.leidenuniv.nl/~brandl/DOL/Detection_of_Light.html
for more info

Overview of the course topics

The faintest sources detected in optical surveys

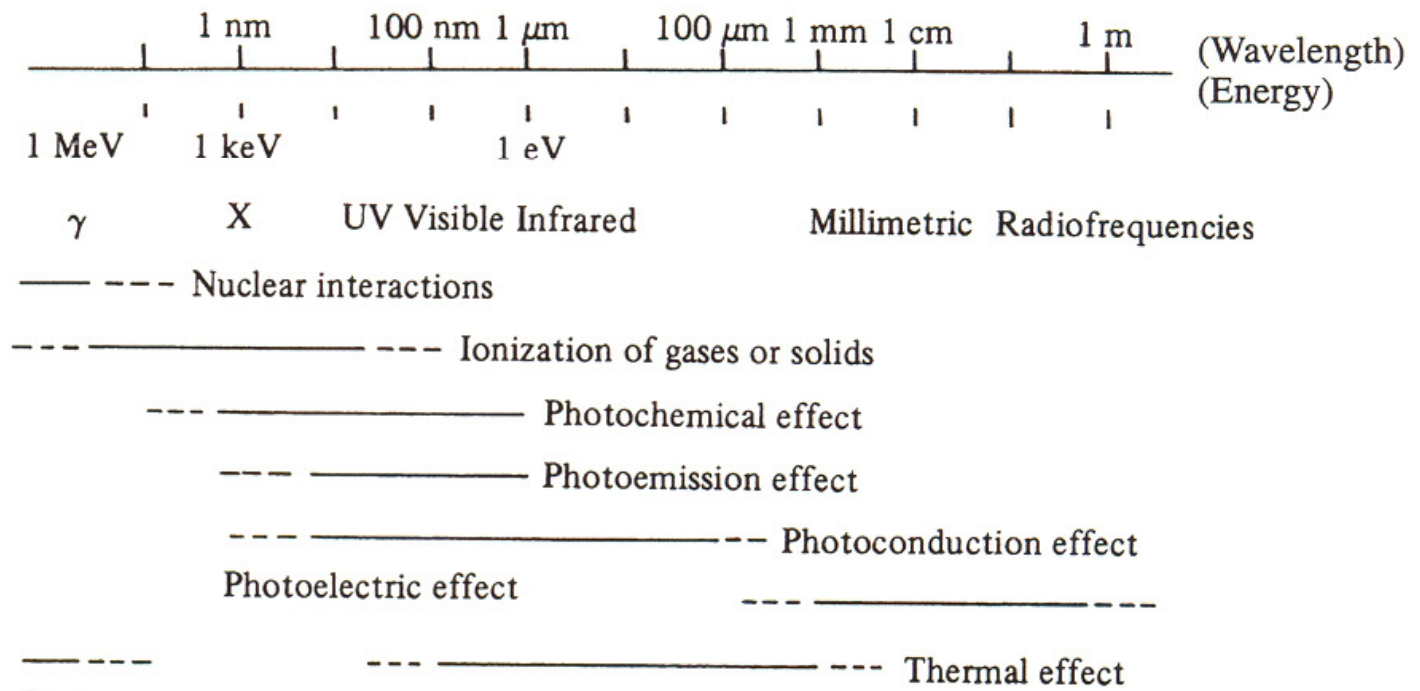


The Electromagnetic Spectrum



covered in this course

Wavelength \Leftrightarrow Energy \Leftrightarrow Detection Process



Three Basic Types of Detectors

1. Photon detectors

Respond directly to individual photons \rightarrow releases bound charge carriers. Used from X-ray to infrared.

Examples: photoconductors, photodiodes, photoemissive detectors, photographic plates

2. Thermal detectors

Absorb photons and thermalize their energy \rightarrow modulates electrical current. Used mainly in IR and sub-mm detectors.

Examples: bolometers

3. Coherent receivers

Respond to electrical field strength and preserve phase information (but need a reference phase "local oscillator").
Mainly used in the sub-mm and radio regime.

Examples: heterodyne receivers

General Principle of Detecting EM Radiation

$$S(t) = S_0(t) + f \left[\int_{\Delta\nu} \phi(\nu) d\nu \int_{\Delta\Omega} I(\theta, \nu, t) P(\theta) d\theta \right]$$

Diagram illustrating the components of the equation:

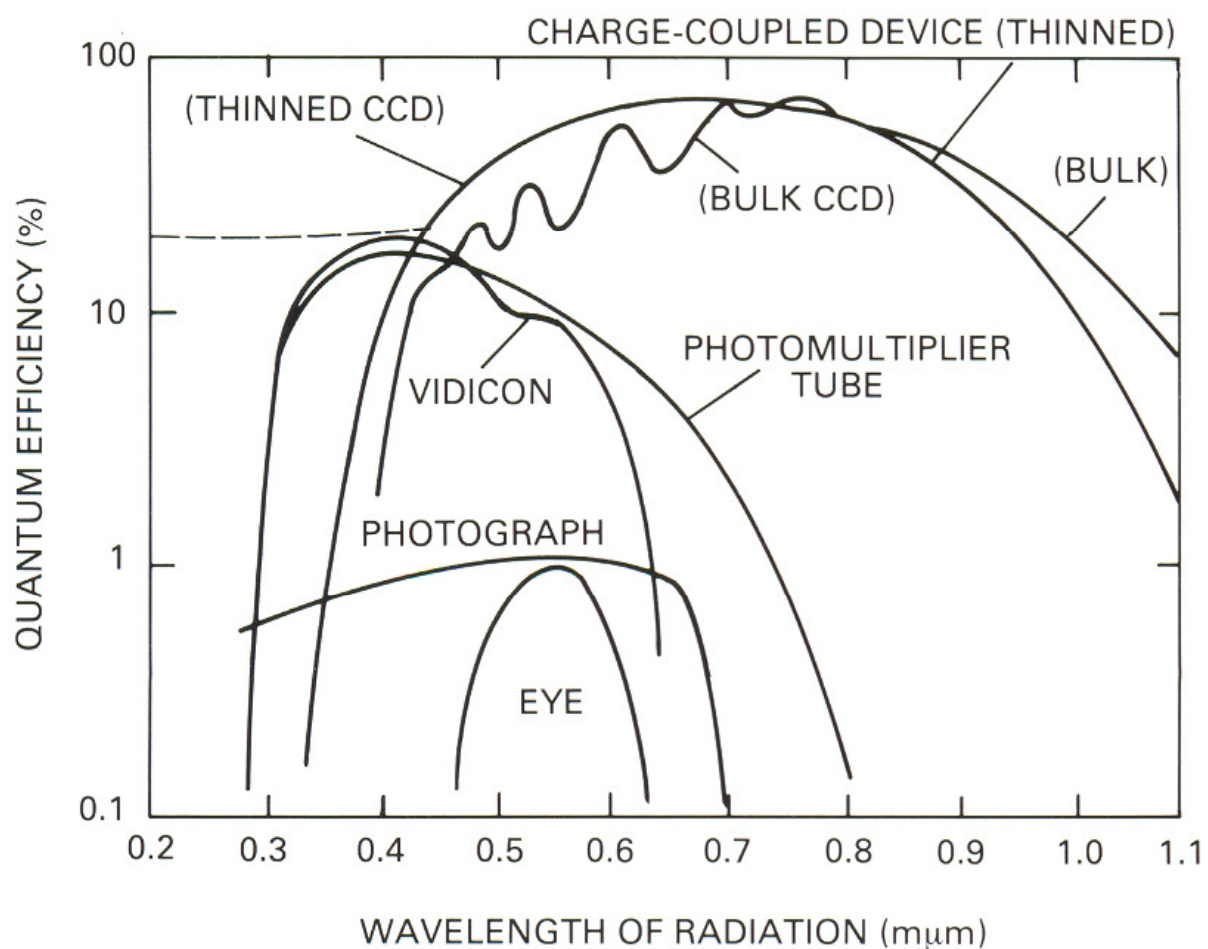
- Dark signal of the detector (points to $S_0(t)$)
- Input-output relation of the detector (points to f)
- Spectral response of the detector (points to $\phi(\nu)$)
- Intensity of the radiation (points to $I(\theta, \nu, t)$)
- Angular response of the detector (points to $P(\theta)$)

Some Detector Performance Aspects

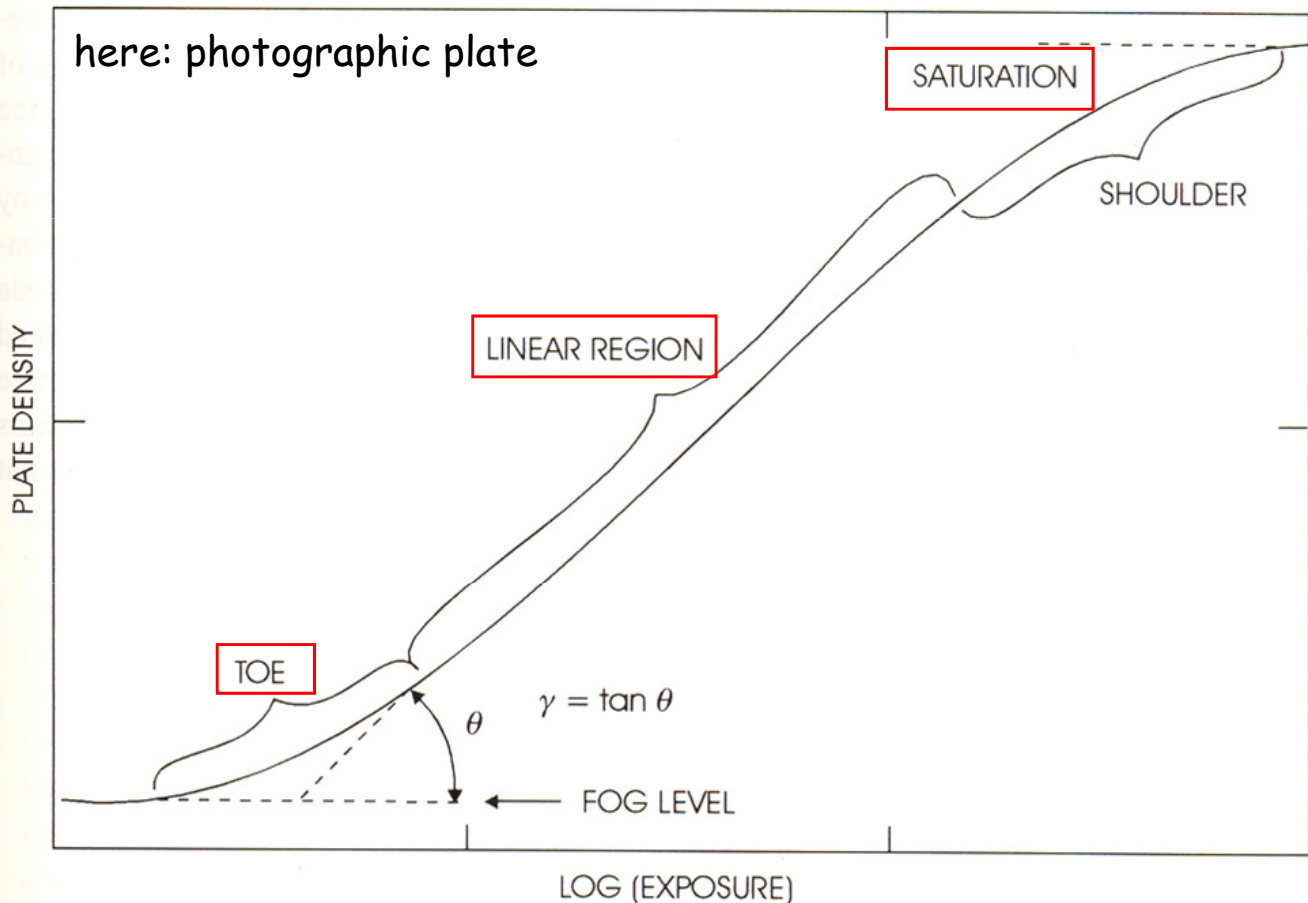
Some Performance Aspects of Detectors

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

Spectral Response and Bandwidth



Linearity and Dynamic Range



Quantum Efficiency η

$$\eta = \frac{\text{number of detected photons}}{\text{number of incident photons}}$$

Detected photons must:

- (i) not be reflected at the detector surface, and
- (ii) be absorbed (absorption coefficient $a(\lambda)$) within the sensitive detector layer of thickness l and refractive index n .

Quantum efficiency: $\eta = (1 - R)\eta_{abs}$

where: reflectivity at normal incidence: $R \approx \frac{(n-1)^2}{(n+1)^2}$

and photon flux at l : $\frac{d\varphi}{dl} = -a(\lambda)\varphi \Rightarrow \varphi = \varphi_0 e^{-a(\lambda)l}$

Fraction of absorbed photons: $\eta_{abs} = \frac{\varphi_0 - \varphi_0 e^{-a(\lambda)l}}{\varphi_0} = 1 - e^{-a(\lambda)l}$

Noise

Most important:

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

← measured as $(S+B) - \text{mean}\{B\}$

← 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 $\rightarrow S/N = \sqrt{n}$)

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

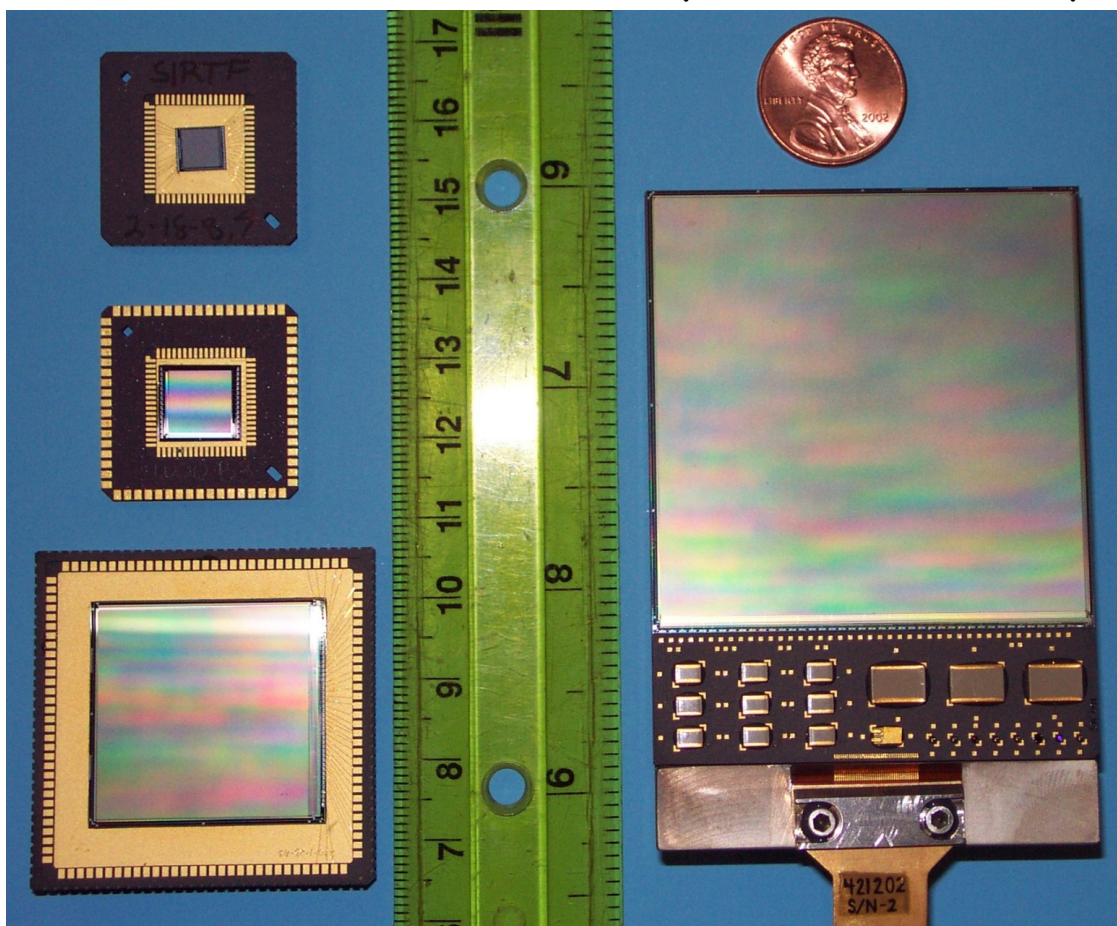
Johnson, kTC or reset noise: thermodynamic noise due to the thermal motion of the charge carriers.

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

Geometrical Properties

Geometrical dimension and pixel number $x \times y$

4 Generations of Raytheon Infrared Detectors



Historical distinction: two Detector Types

Single element detectors

+ same pixel = same sensitivity

- scanning = time consuming

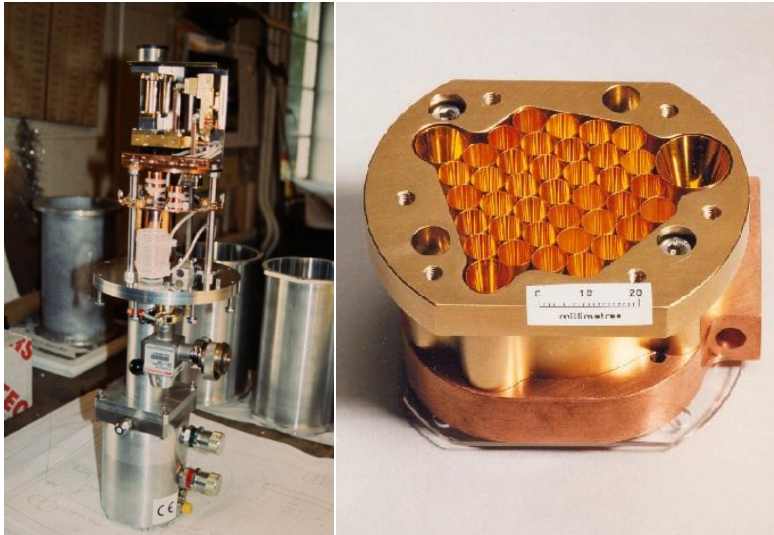
Standard for radio receivers

Array size growing at sub-mm

Multi-channel detectors

- flat-field challenge

+ multiplexing speed



Modulation transfer function

...or the "spatial response" of the detector

Assume the detector is exposed to a sinusoidal input signal:

$$F(x) = a_0 + a_1 \sin(2\pi fx) \quad (a_0 \text{ mean height, } a_1 \text{ amplitude, } x \text{ distance})$$

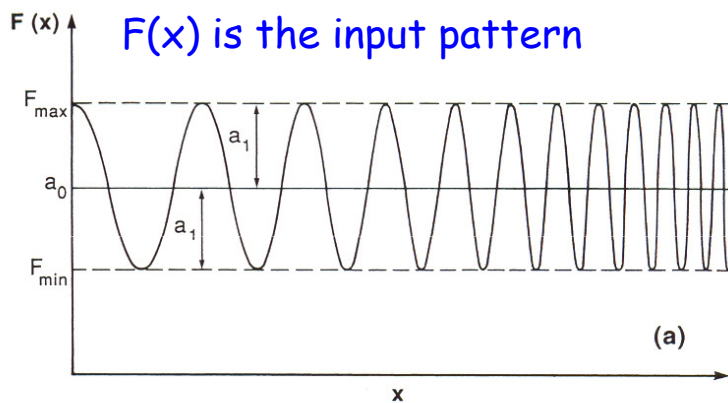
The modulation of the signal is defined as
$$M_{in} = \frac{F_{\max} - F_{\min}}{F_{\max} + F_{\min}} = \frac{a_1}{a_0}$$

The detected space frequency is
$$G(x) = b_0 + b_1(f) \sin(2\pi fx)$$

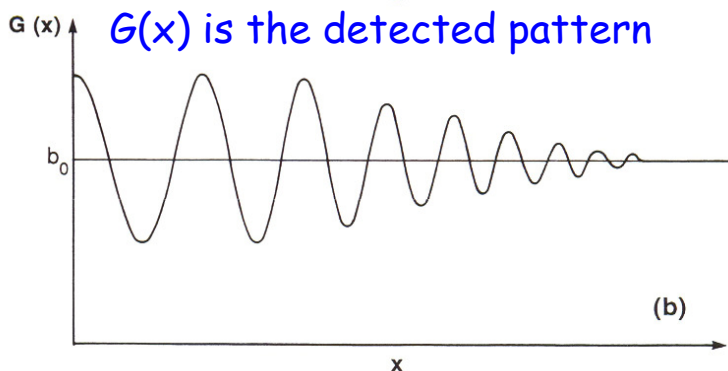
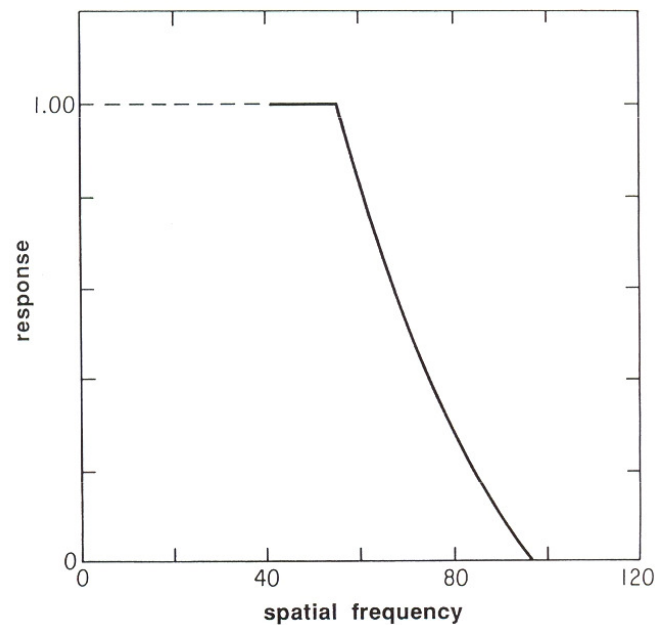
where $b_1(f)$ describes the limited response to higher frequencies.
Hence,

$$M_{out} = \frac{b_1(f)}{b_0} \leq M_{in}$$

Modulation transfer function (2)



The resulting MTF



- The MTF may vary across the array, be color dependent, and suffer from nonlinearities and latent images

Time Response

Astrophysical examples requiring time resolution:

- Stellar black-holes and neutron stars have innermost orbital periods ~ 0.001 seconds
- White dwarfs are eclipsed and pulsate in ~ 0.1 to 200 seconds

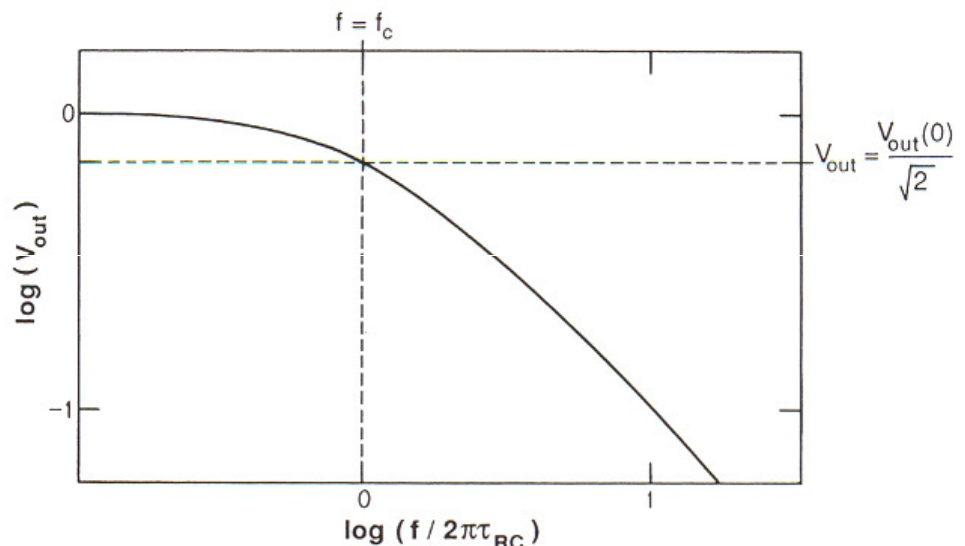
Typical exponential time response of a resistor/capacitor circuit:

$$v_{out} = \frac{v_0}{\tau_{RC}} e^{-t/\tau_{RC}}$$

with $\tau_{RC} = RC$ and the cutoff frequency

$$f_c = \frac{1}{2\pi\tau_{RC}}$$

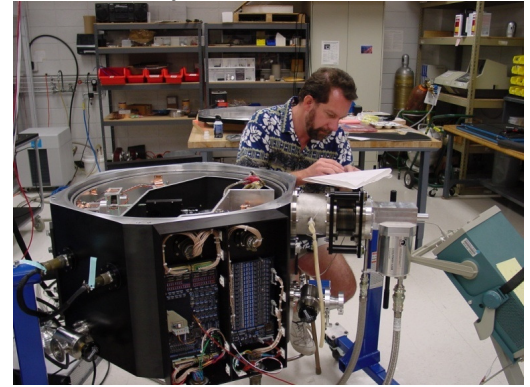
where the signal drops to $1/\sqrt{2}$ of its value.



Operational Aspects (1): Temperature

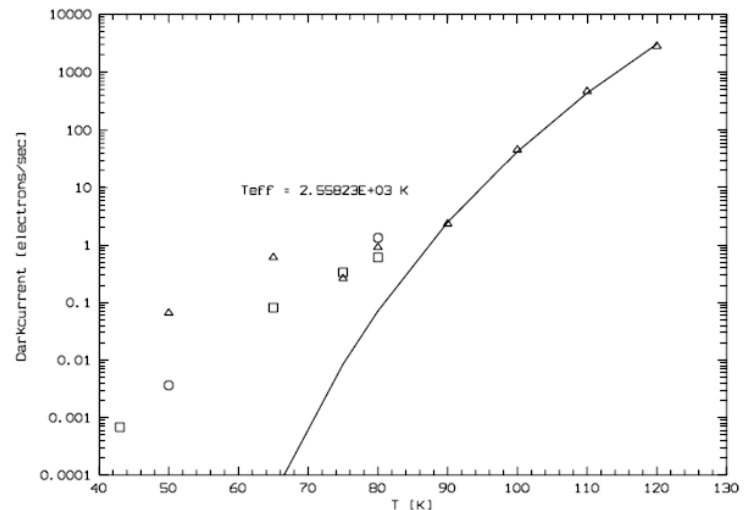
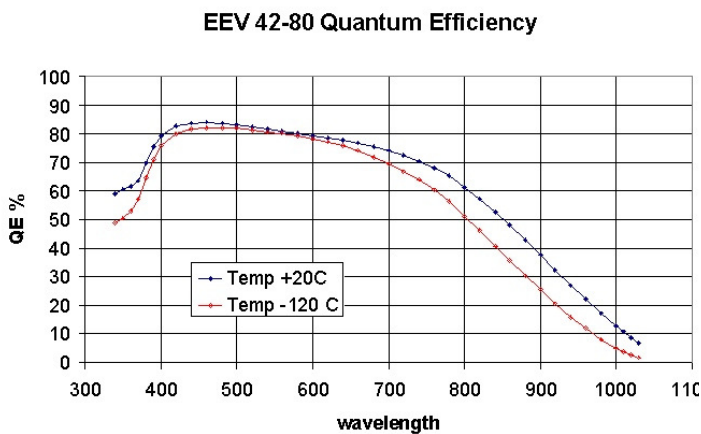
Needs active cooling \rightarrow 4K ... 80K

Maximum temperature $\Leftrightarrow E_y$



Temperature dependencies of
quantum efficiency and

dark current



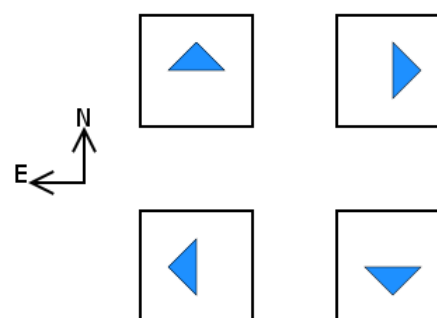
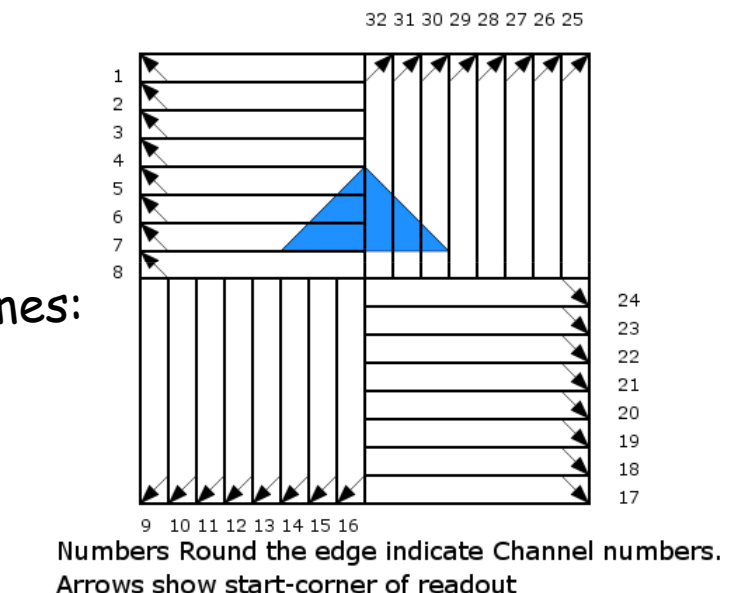
Operational Aspects (2): Readouts

Number of readouts and
readout frequencies

Typical "full frame readout times:

- NIR detector ~few seconds
- MIR space detector ~minute
- MIR ground detector ~10ms

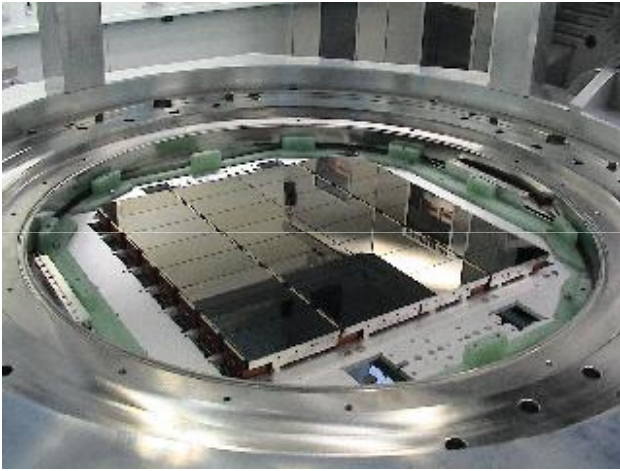
May be problematic if the source
moves (e.g., seeing) at the
boundaries faster than the
readout time.



Orientation of Arrays in Focal Plane

Note that
this is only
one of many
schemes

Operational Aspects (3): Data Rates



Example: OmegaCam:
Mosaic of 32 2k×4k CCDs
Read out time: ~45s

Images/night: $10 \times 3600 / 45 = 800$

Number of pixels: $32 \times 2048 \times 4096 = 2.68 \times 10^8$

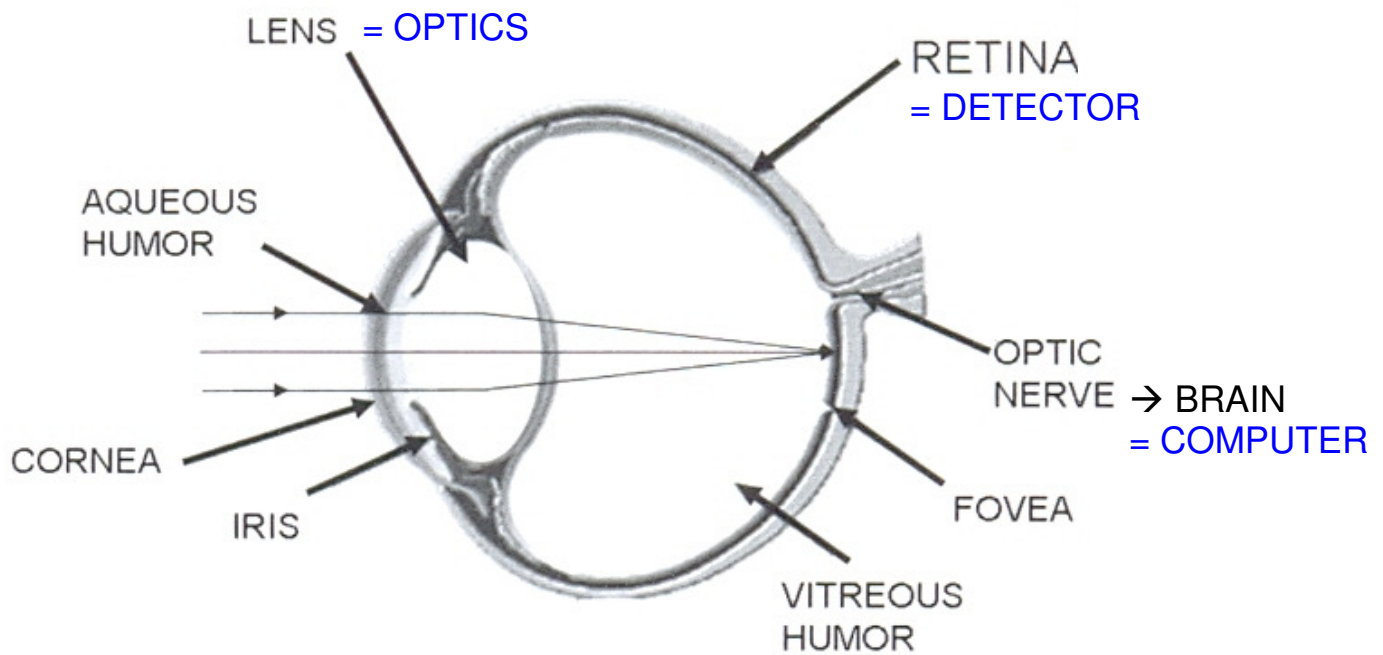
Digitization (16 bits/pixel)*: $16 \times \text{\#ofpixels} / (8 \text{ bits/byte})$

→ Total: 429 Gbytes / night (stored data only!)

*($2^{16} = 65536$)

The Human Eye

The First Camera: the Human Eye

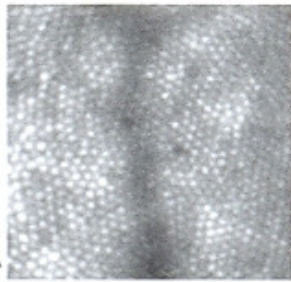


Angular resolution: Theoretical $\Theta \sim \lambda/D \sim 0.5\mu\text{m}/7\text{mm} \sim 14''$

In practice: $\Theta \sim 1'$

Focal ratio $f/D \sim 3.2$

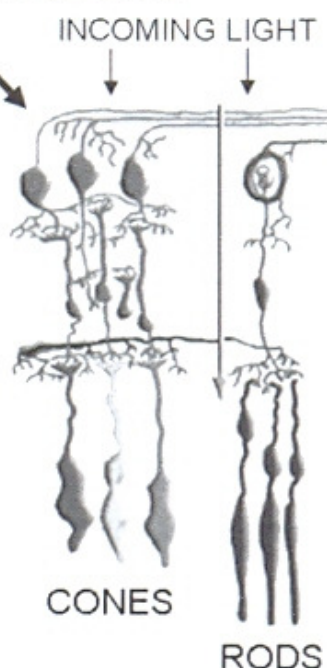
The Detector: the Retina



Four kind of detectors (~125 millions):

Rod cells ($\sim 2\mu\text{m}$): panchromatic, low light levels, make up 95%

3 types of **cone cells** ($\sim 6\mu\text{m}$): **blue**, **green**, **red** sensitive [1:4:8], concentrated to the center

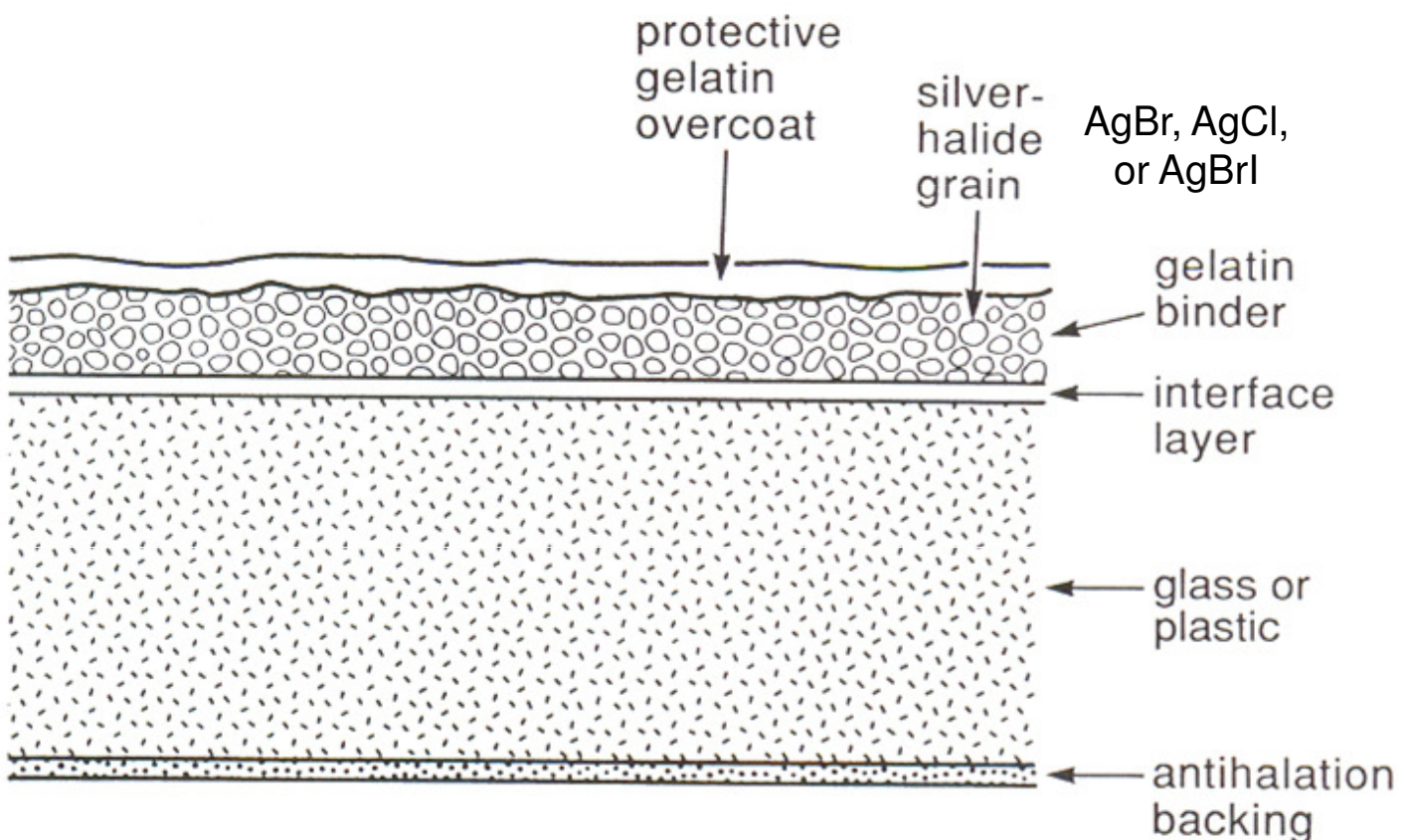


Detector properties (**data sheet**):

- Wavelength range: $390\text{nm} \leq \lambda \leq 780\text{nm}$
- Readout frequency $\sim 30\text{ Hz}$
- High dynamic range: $10^9 : 1$
- Sensitivity: "dark adaptation" (t_{int} , η)
- Irregularities (artefacts):
 - averted vision (off-center)
 - latent images (eye \leftrightarrow brain)
 - others: Purkinje effect, Haidinger's brush

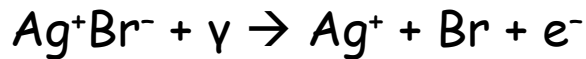
Photographic Plates

Cross section of a typical photographic plate

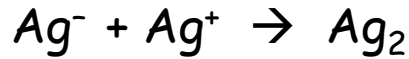
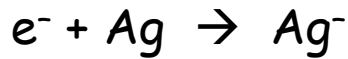


Basic Principle

1. Expose grains of slightly soluble silver halide salts, e.g.



2. e^- recombines: $e^- + \text{Ag}^+ \rightarrow \text{Ag}$



(critical size: 3-4 Ag atoms)

3. chemical development: (i) provides e^- for the "undeveloped" Ag^+ to reduce them to "inactive" metallic silver, and (ii) amplify the Ag grains by $10^8 - 10^9$
4. Unexposed silver is eliminated by the "fixing" process

Wavelength Coverage

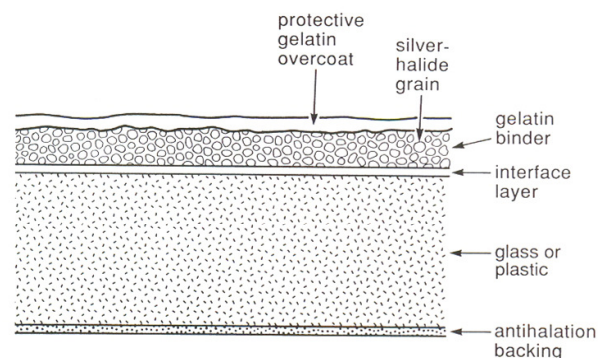
UV is limited due to absorption of the gelatine at $\lambda \leq 300\text{nm}$

Bandgap E_g of AgBr is $\sim 2.8\text{ eV}$
($\lambda < 440\text{nm}$ for direct absorption)

Addition of iodine (\rightarrow silver iodobromide) reduces $E_g \rightarrow$ wider $\Delta\lambda$

Adding a dye to the emulsion \rightarrow green, red

Out to $1.2\mu\text{m}$ (Kodak 1-Z emulsions)



Advantages of Photographic Plates

- A 8" – 10" plate can have 10^{11} – 10^{12} grains, corresponding to 10^9 "pixels"
- Plates are inexpensive
- Plates are their own data storage system
- Plates can be stable over very long periods of time

Disadvantages of Photographic Plates

- Low DQE (~2-5%) [e^- may recombine, ionize Ag atom, react with gelatine]
- Non-linearity
- Non-uniformity
- Time resolution
- Wavelength coverage
- Digitization

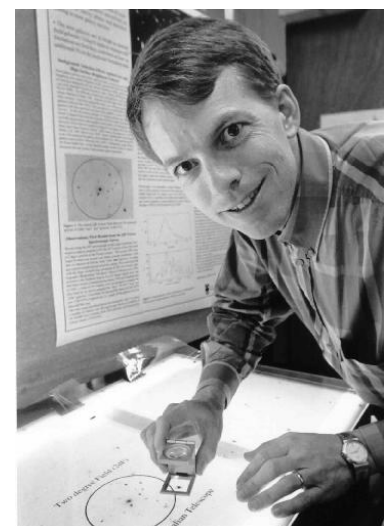


Observing with Photoplates

TABLE V-12: PHOTOGRAPHIC PLATE STOCK AT CTIO

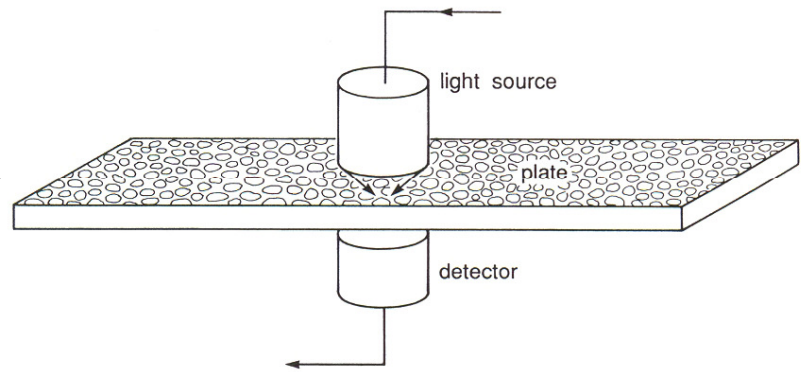
Photographic Plates

Telescope	(cm.) (in.)	20.3x25.4x0.15 8x10x0.06	19.7x19.7x0.1 7.75x7.75x0.04
		4.0- and 1.5-meter Telescopes	Curtis-Schmidt
10380		X	X
IIaD		X	X
IIIaJ		X	X
IIaD		X	X
IIIaF		X	X
D98-D4		X	X
I N		X	X
IV N		X	X



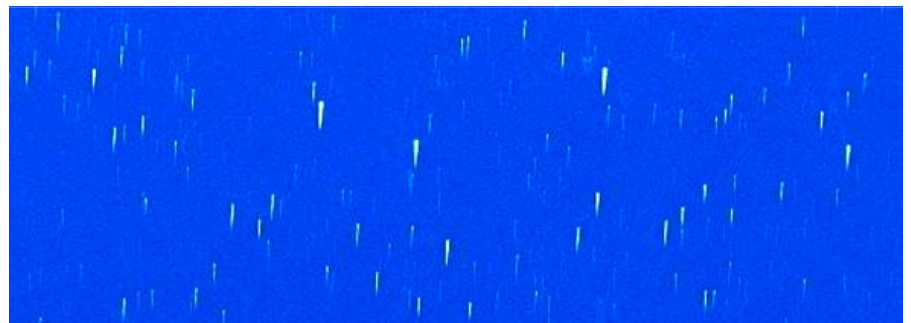
Analysis of Photographic Plates

Densitometer!



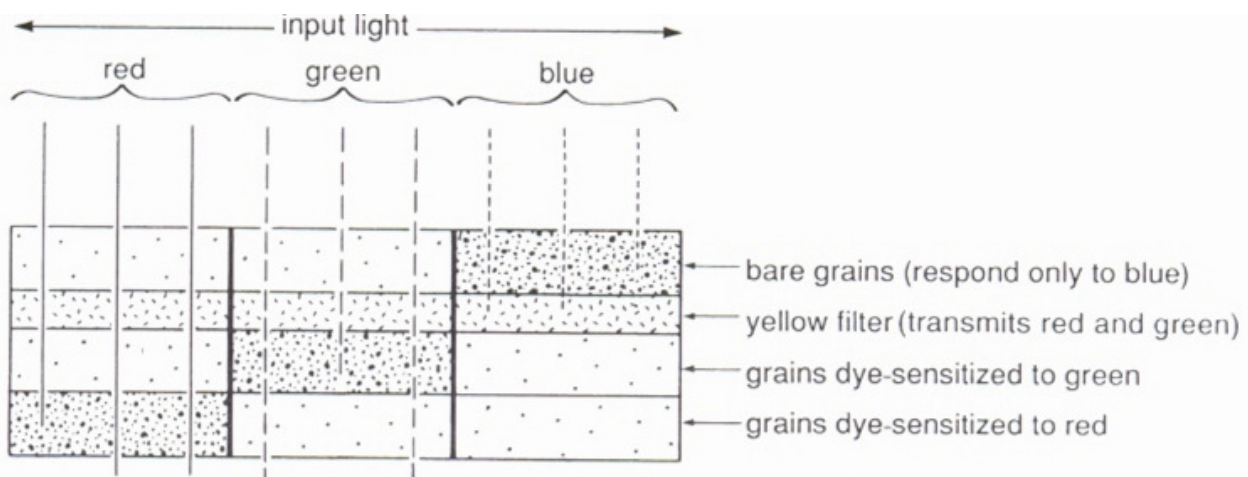
$$\text{Density } d = -\log_{10} I / I_0$$

Nowadays using
scanners, e.g. for
the Digitized First
Byurakan Survey
(DFBS) →



Color Photography (1)

Exposure of the emulsion layers to the three primary colors

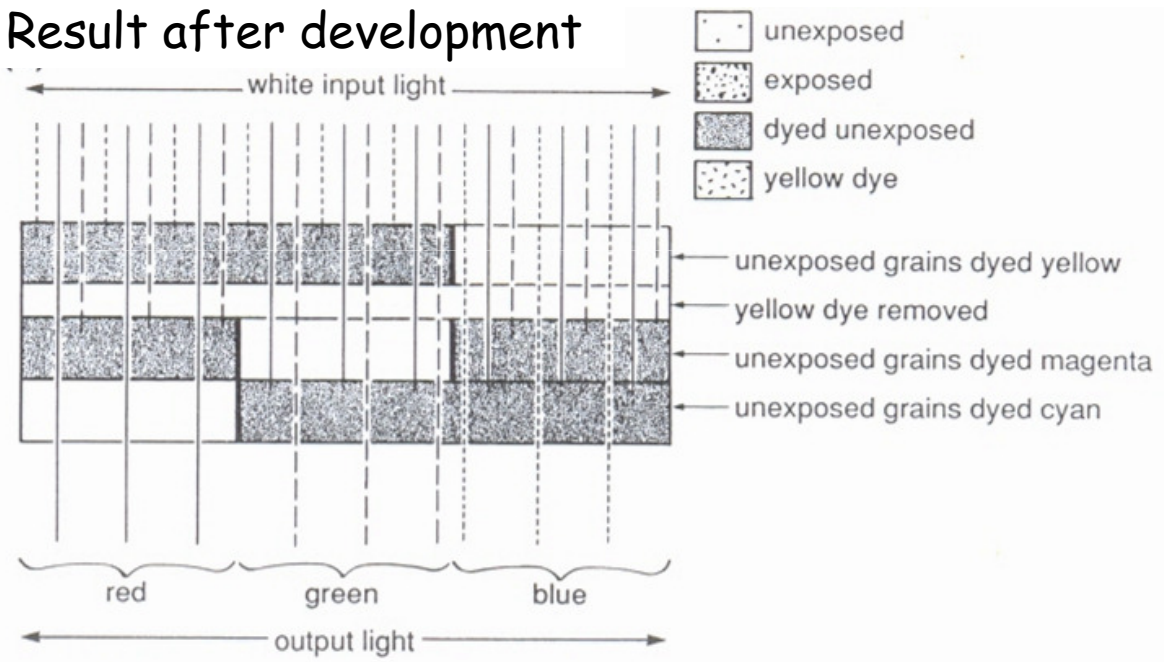


Depthwise superposition of emulsions

- top layer responds only to blue light
- yellow filter removes blue light (transmits green and red)
- the dye-sensitized layers underneath respond to green and to red (either one)

Color Photography (2)

Result after development



- yellow filter is removed
- layer-by-layer dyes are produced in emulsion layers
- at the end, all silver has been removed and the image dyes remain

For details see Rieke book, section 8.2.4