

6. Adaptive Optics

Introduction to Adaptive Optics

Brief introduction to adaptive optics: why, how ?

- AO for high contrast imaging

- Components of an AO system

- Types of AO systems

Atmospheric Turbulence

Useful references:

Adaptive Optics in Astronomy (2004), by Francois Roddier (Editor),
Cambridge University Press

Adaptive Optics for Astronomical Telescopes (1998), by John W.
Hardy, Oxford University Press

Why Adaptive Optics ?

Gains offered by AO :

Angular resolution:

Resolve small features on Sun, Moon, planets, disks, galaxies

Improved sensitivity for faint objects:

Detection of faint objects is a background-limited problem. By making the image smaller, the AO system limits amount of background mixed with image, and improves sensitivity. Efficiency with AO goes as D^4 instead of D^2 without AO.

This is especially important in infrared, as sky glows, and AO work well.

Astrometry:

Measuring the position of a source.

For example: measuring the mass of the black hole in the center of our galaxy.

Confusion limit:

Astronomical imaging of sources is often confusion limited. Better angular resolution helps !

For example: studying stellar populations in nearby galaxies.

High contrast imaging (Extreme-AO)

Direct imaging of exoplanets and disks

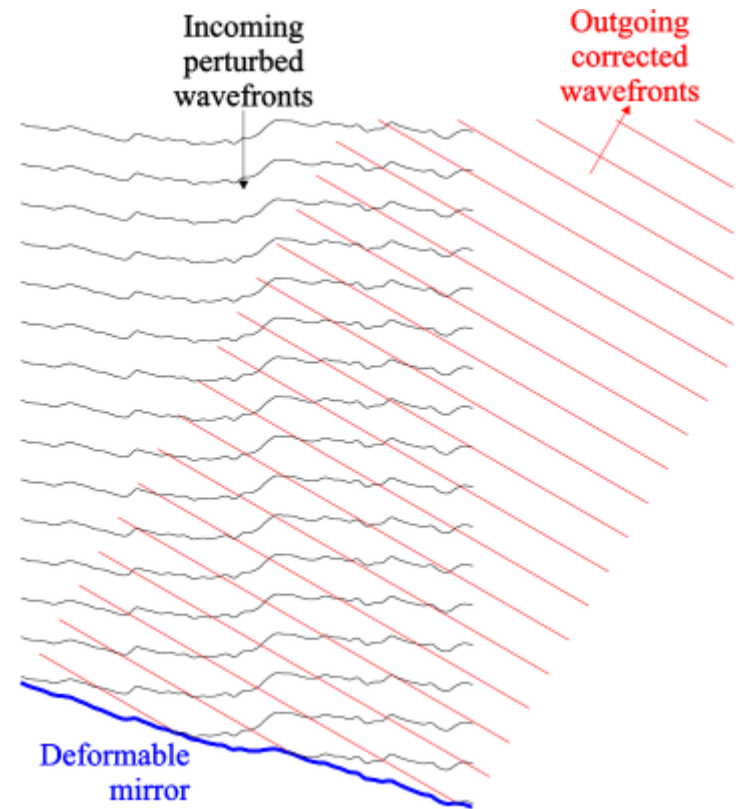
What is Adaptive Optics ?

Atmospheric turbulence limits size of images to $\sim 1''$ ($1/3600$ of a degree)
Diffraction limit of large telescopes is $0.1''$ to $0.01'' \rightarrow 10\times$ to $100\times$ smaller !



Without AO

With AO



AO uses a deformable mirror to correct atmospheric turbulence

Wavefront control for High contrast imaging

pupil plane complex amplitude

$$W(\vec{u}) = \mathcal{A}(\vec{u}) e^{i\phi(\vec{u})}$$

Cosine aberration in pupil phase

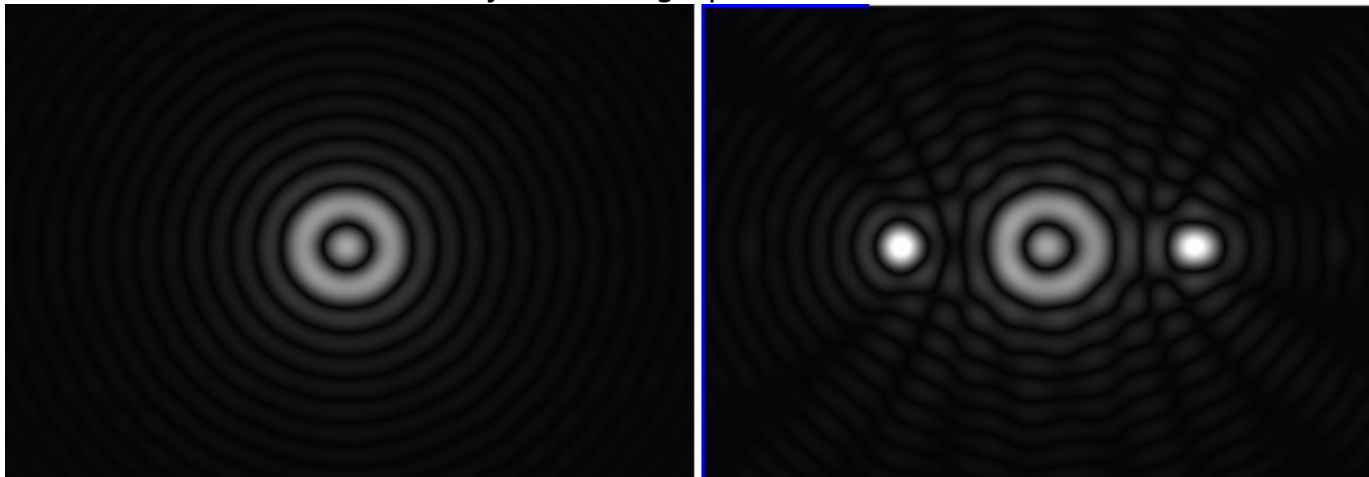
$$\phi(\vec{u}) = \frac{2\pi h}{\lambda} \cos(2\pi \vec{f} \vec{u} + \theta)$$

... creates 2 speckles

$$I(\vec{\alpha}) = PSF(\vec{\alpha}) + \left(\frac{\pi h}{\lambda}\right)^2 [PSF(\vec{\alpha} + \vec{f}\lambda) + PSF(\vec{\alpha} - \vec{f}\lambda)]$$

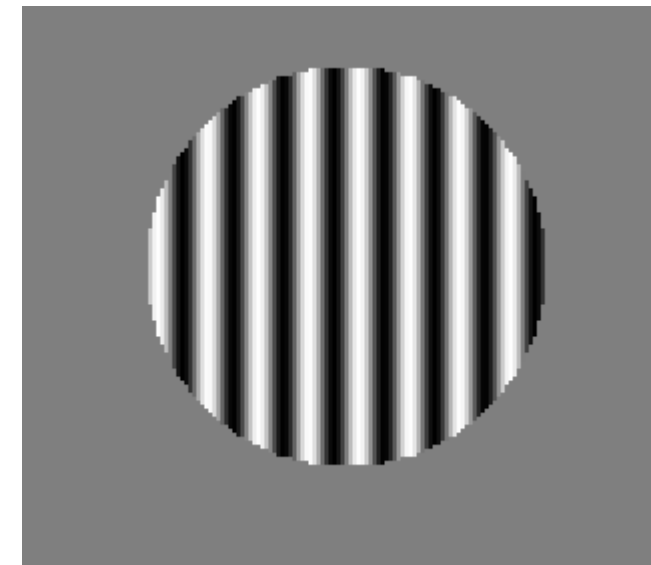
Earth-like planet around Sun-like star is $\sim 1e-10$ contrast
In visible light, $h = 1.6e-12$ m (0.0012 nm) = $1e-10$ speckle

Lyot coronagraph simulation



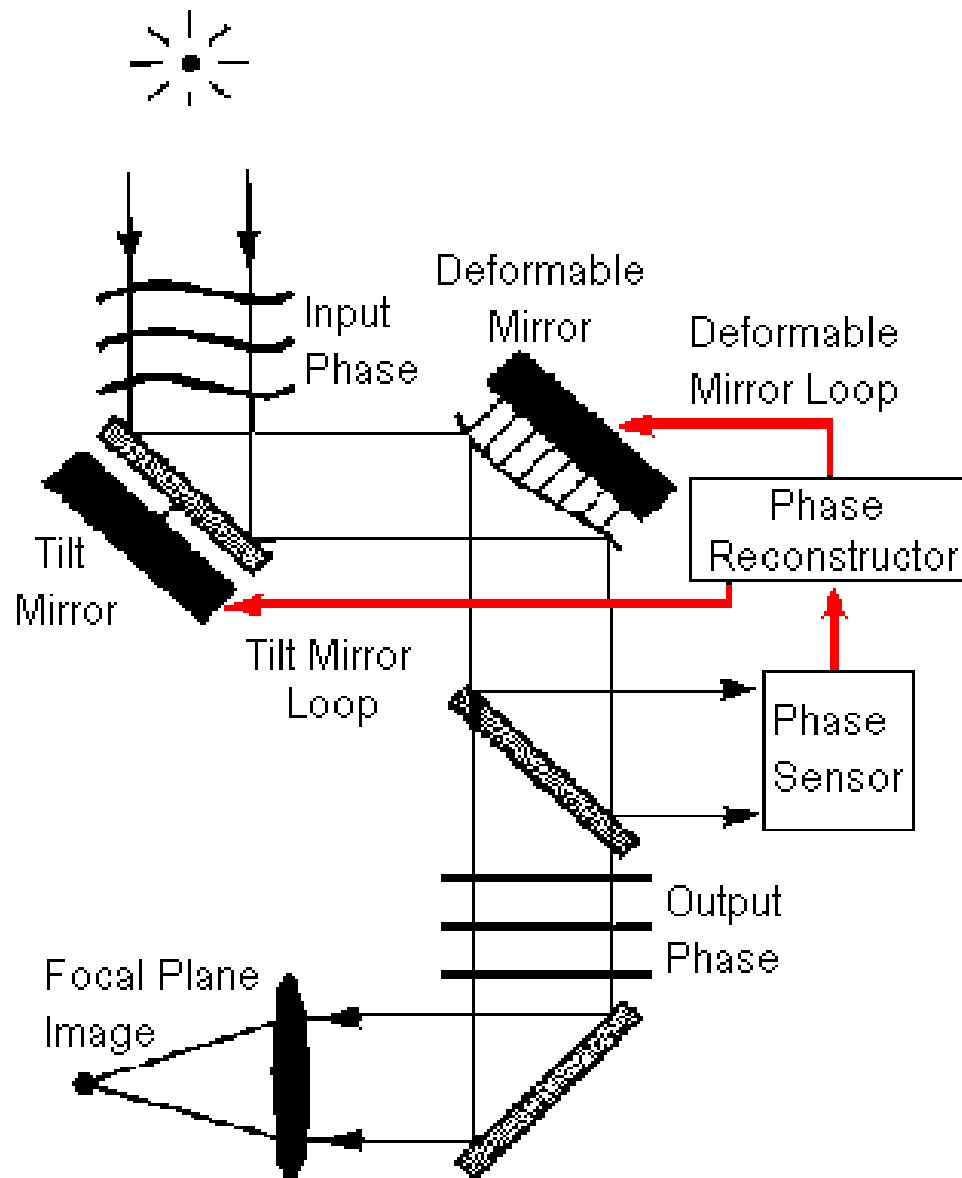
No phase error

pupil sine wave phase error



0.1 rad (1/63 wave) amplitude

What is Adaptive Optics ?



Main components of an AO system:

Guide star(s): provides light to measure wavefront aberrations, can be natural (star in the sky) or laser (spot created by laser)

Deformable mirror(s) (+ tip-tilt mirror): corrects aberrations

Wavefront sensor(s): measures aberrations

Computer, algorithms: converts wavefront sensor measurements into deformable mirror commands

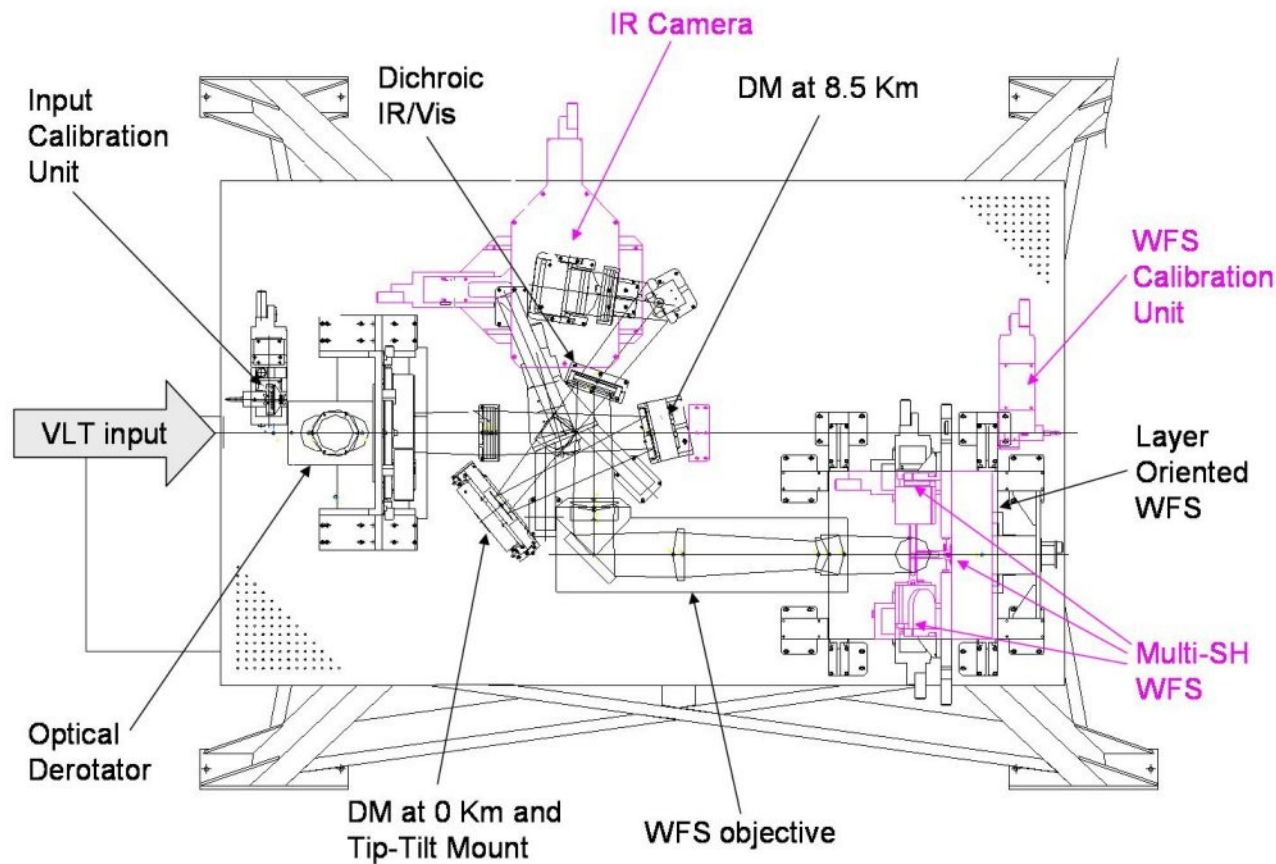
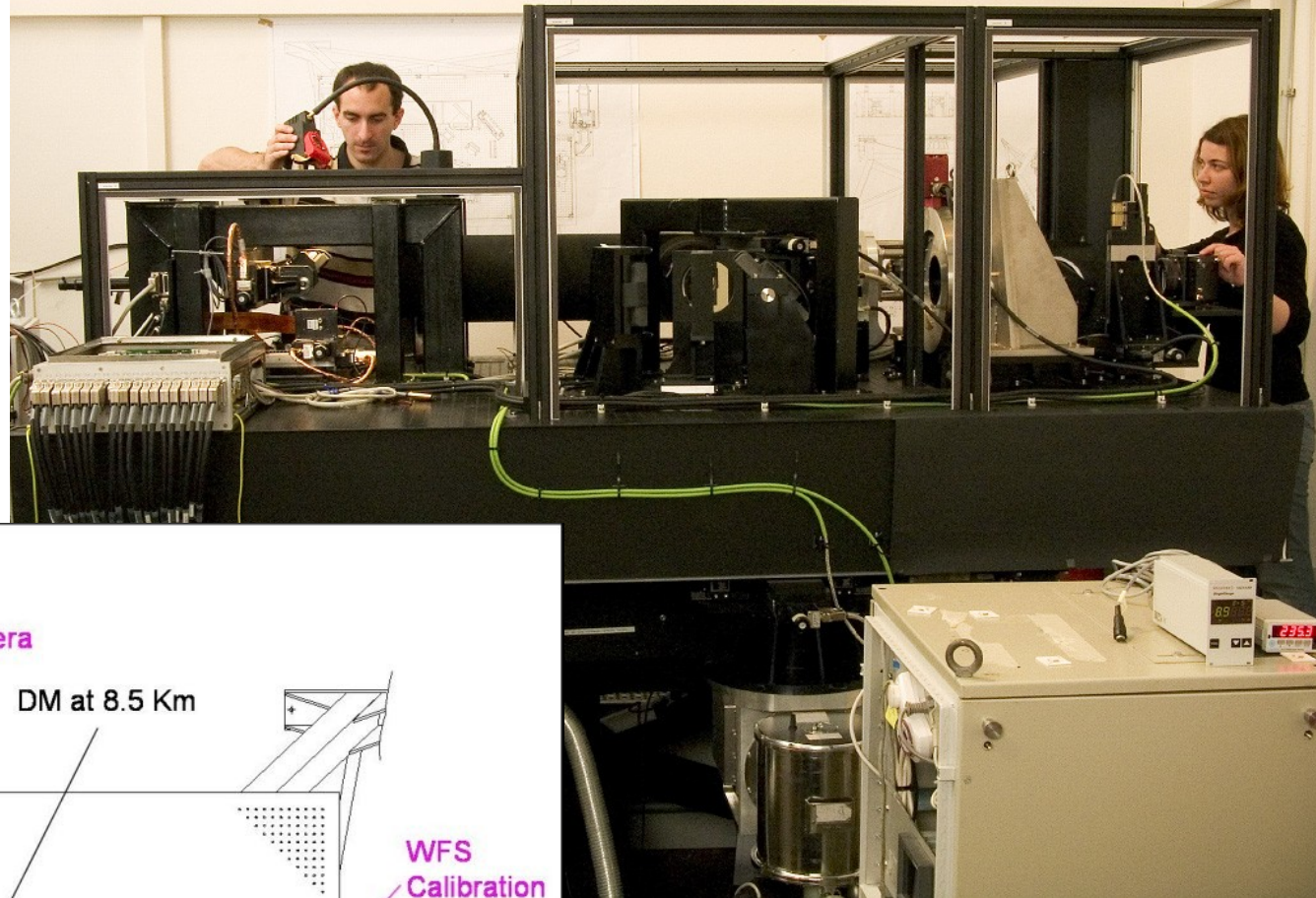
What is Adaptive Optics ?



Altair Optics bench (for Gemini)

What is Adaptive Optics ?

Multi Conjugate AO
Demonstrator (MAD, ESO)



Why Adaptive Optics ?

CFHT Adaptive Optics Bonnette & Monica

Double star, separation=0.276"

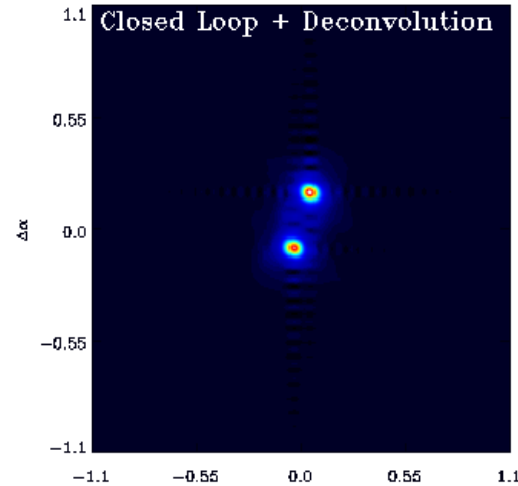
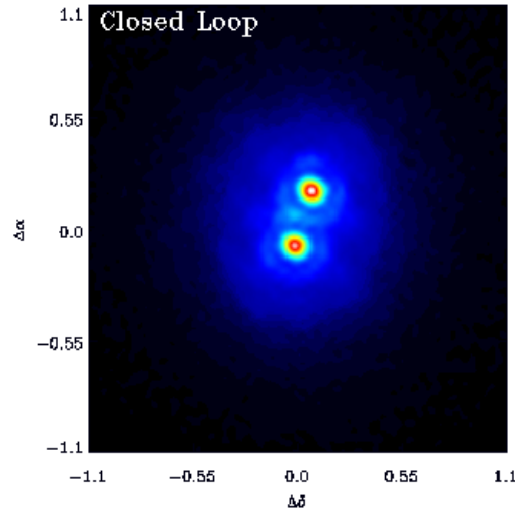
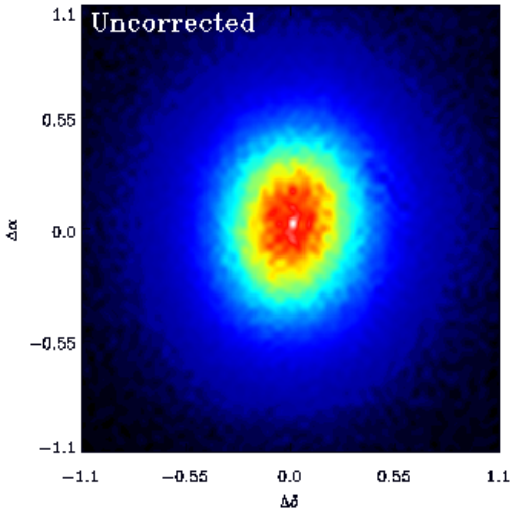
Magnitude=10.7

H band, Integration=40 sec

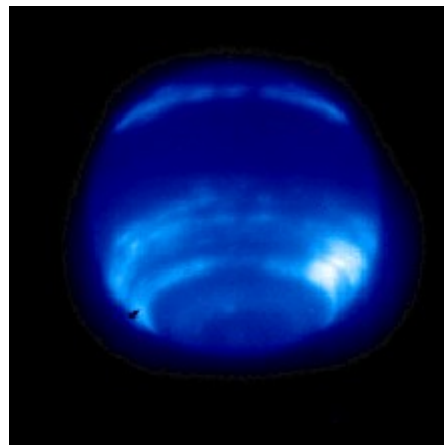
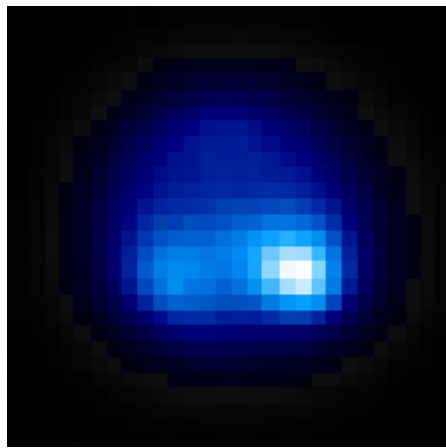
Seeing=0.7" @ 0.5mic

Strehl Ratio=30%

Maximum likelihood



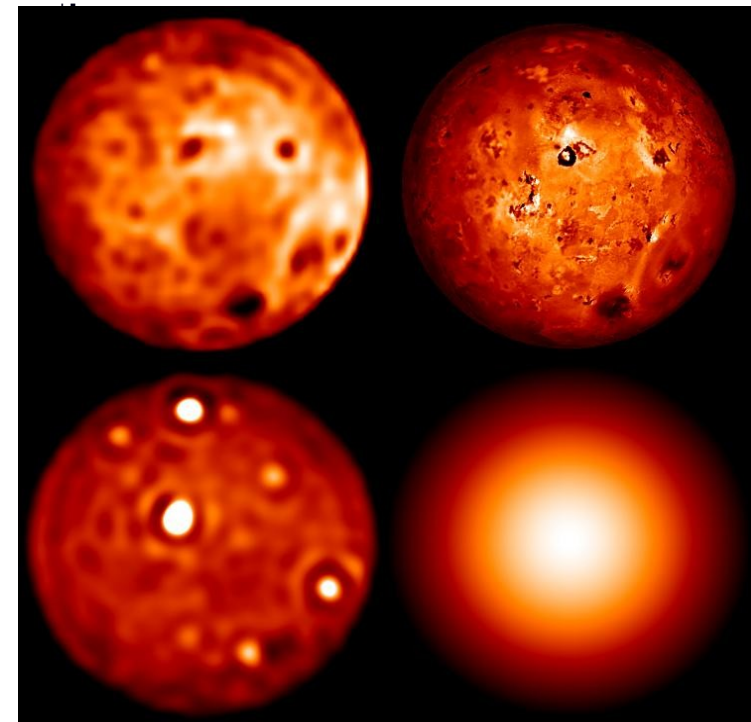
Io (Keck)



without AO

with AO

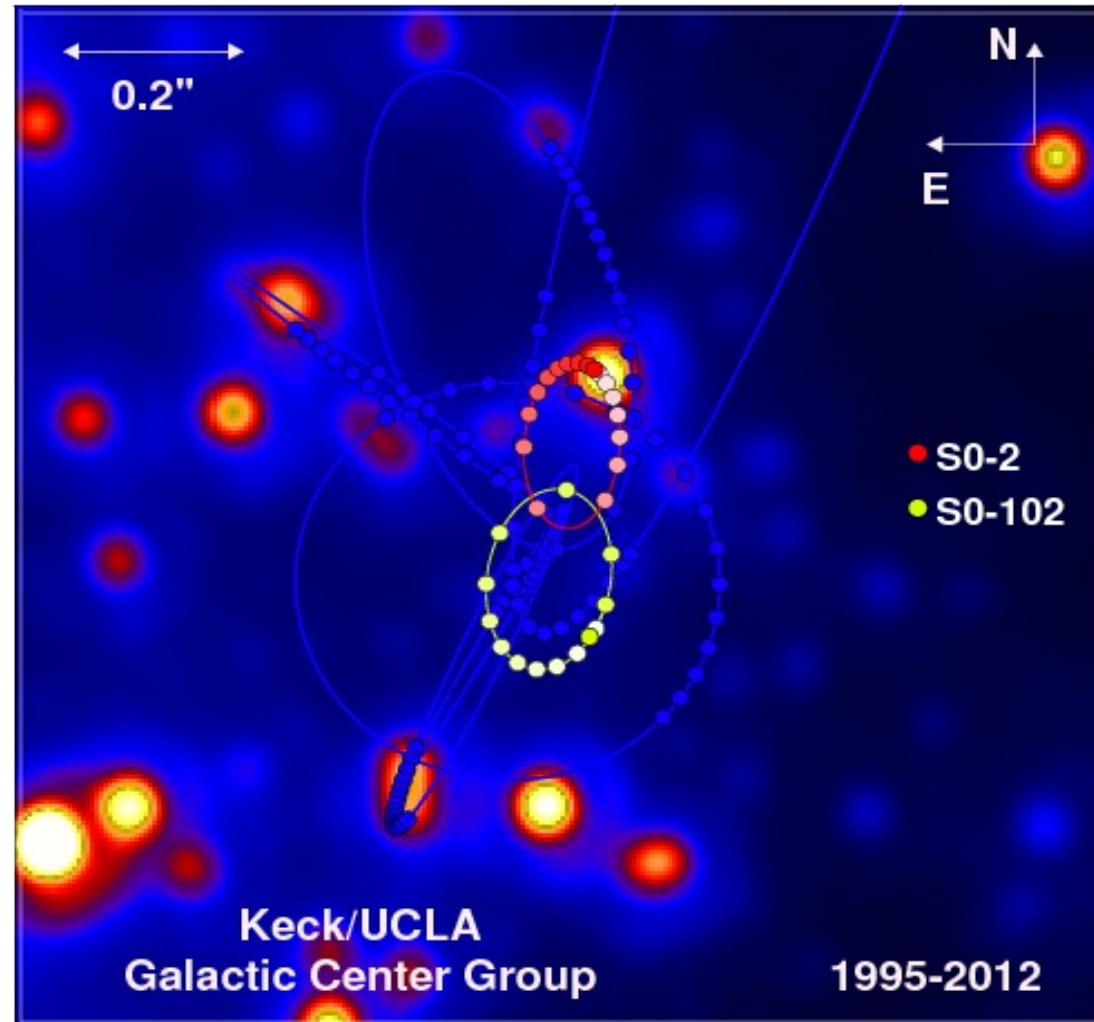
Neptune imaged by Keck AO



Why Adaptive Optics ? Galactic center

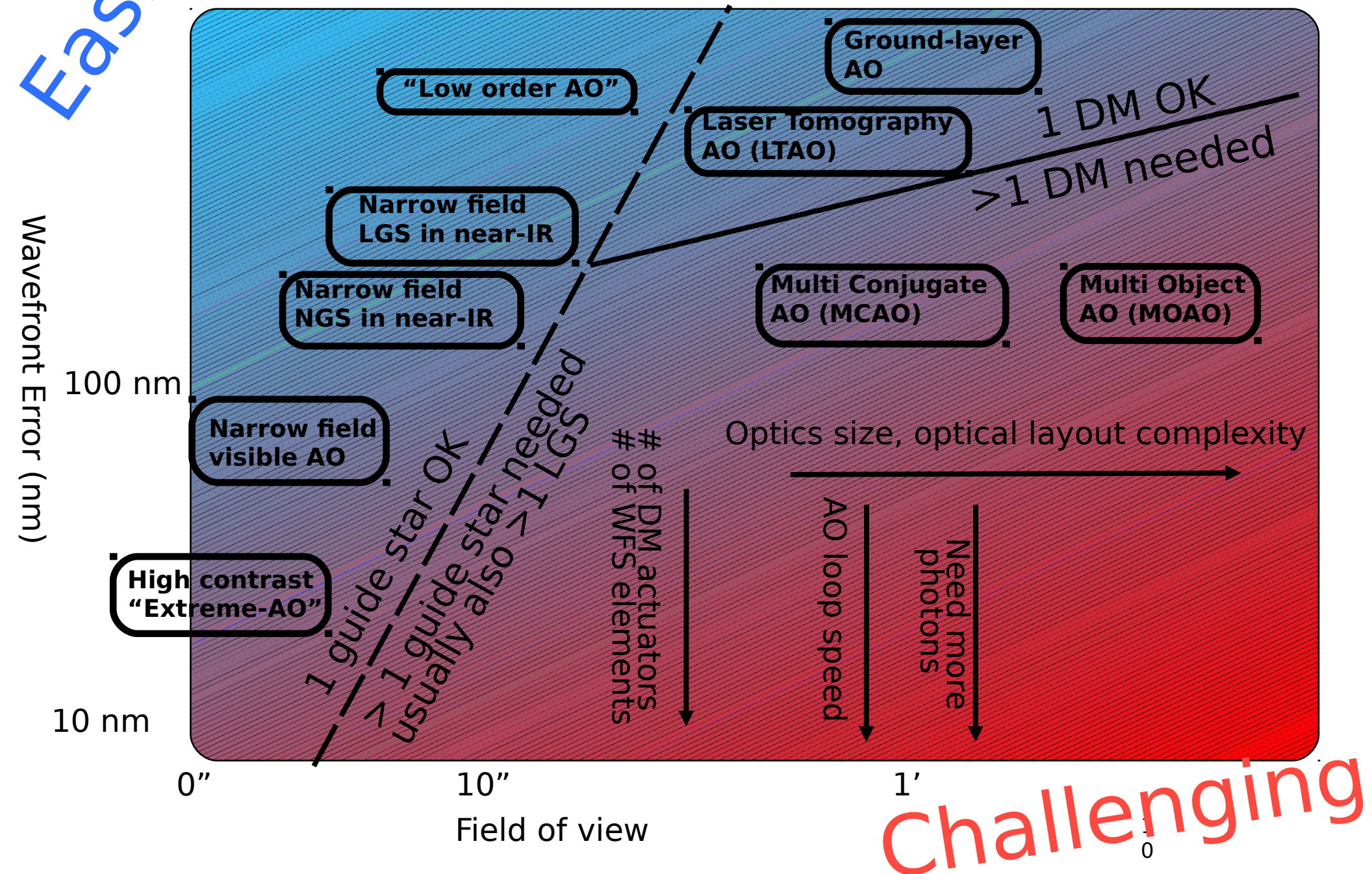


Gemini AO image



Astronomical AO system diversity: Field of view vs. Wavefront error

Easier



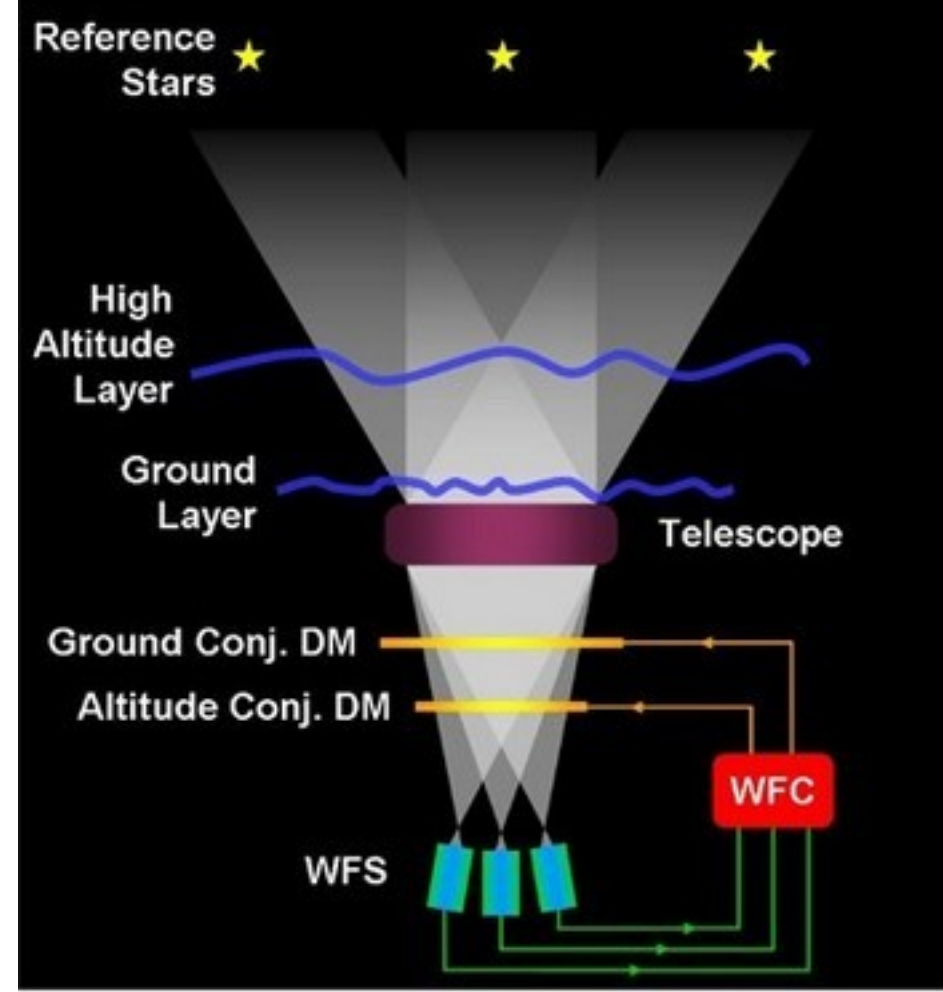
Example #1: Multi-Conjugate AO (MCAO)

Uses several guide stars (NGS or/and LGS)
to gain volumetric information of turbulence.

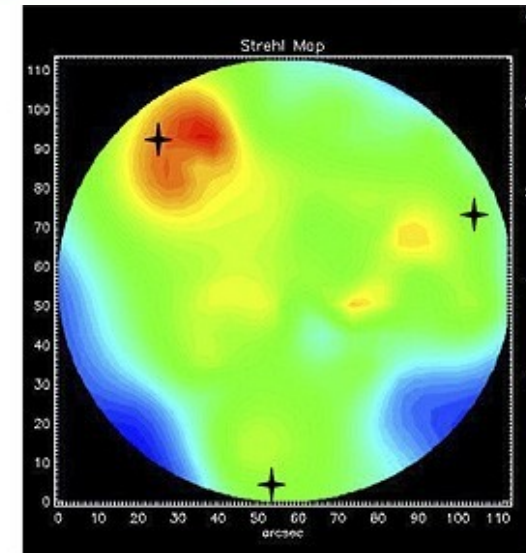
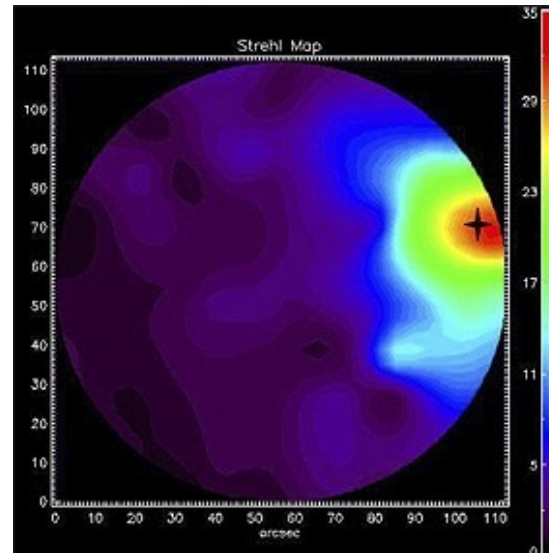
Uses several DMs to correct over wide field.

Results from ESO's MCAO
demonstrator (MAD)

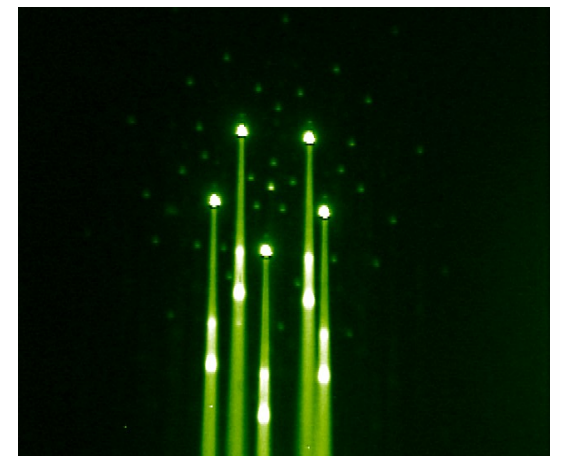
Gemini currently developing MCAO system



Strehl maps on the right show image
quality is high over a wide field of view
(black crosses show position of guide
stars)



Example #2: The MMT multi-laser Ground Layer AO (GLAO) system



5 laser guide stars \rightarrow 5 wavefront measurements

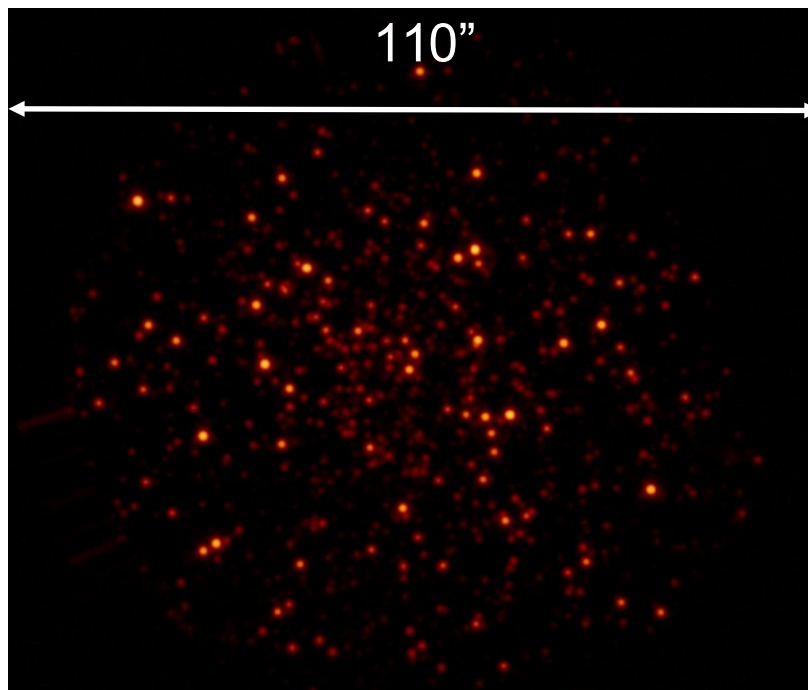
Reconstructor keeps only ground layer, common to the 5 wavefronts

Single DM corrects for the ground layer: correction is valid over a large field

MMT results: M3 globular cluster

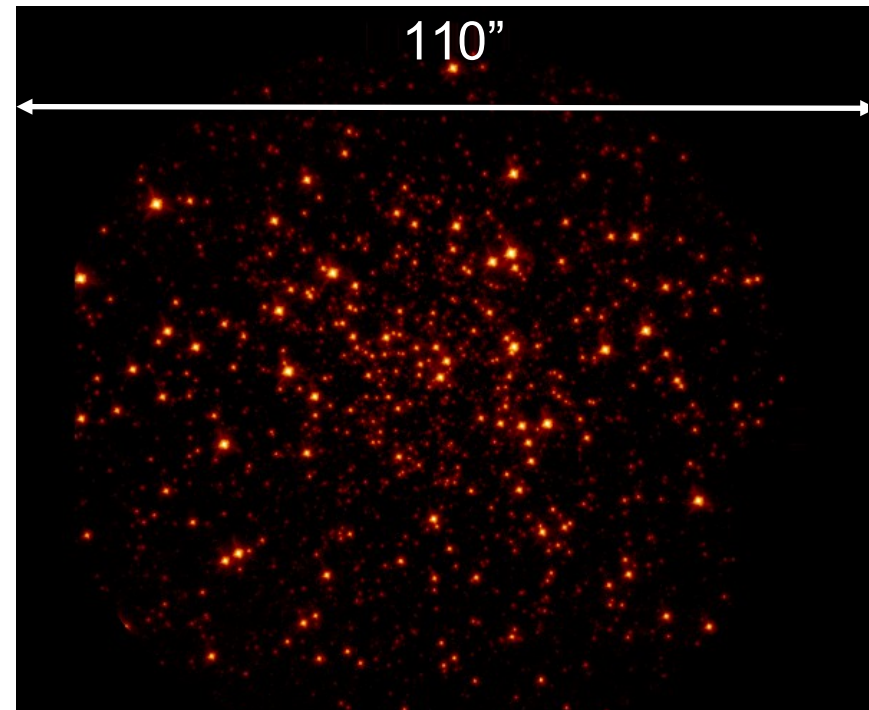
Open loop, K_s filter, FWHM 0.70"

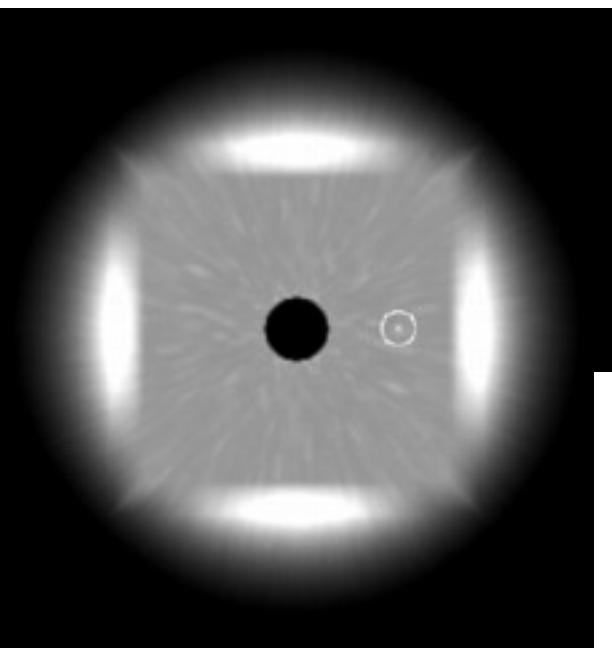
Logarithmic scale



Closed loop GLAO, K_s filter, FWHM 0.30"

Logarithmic scale



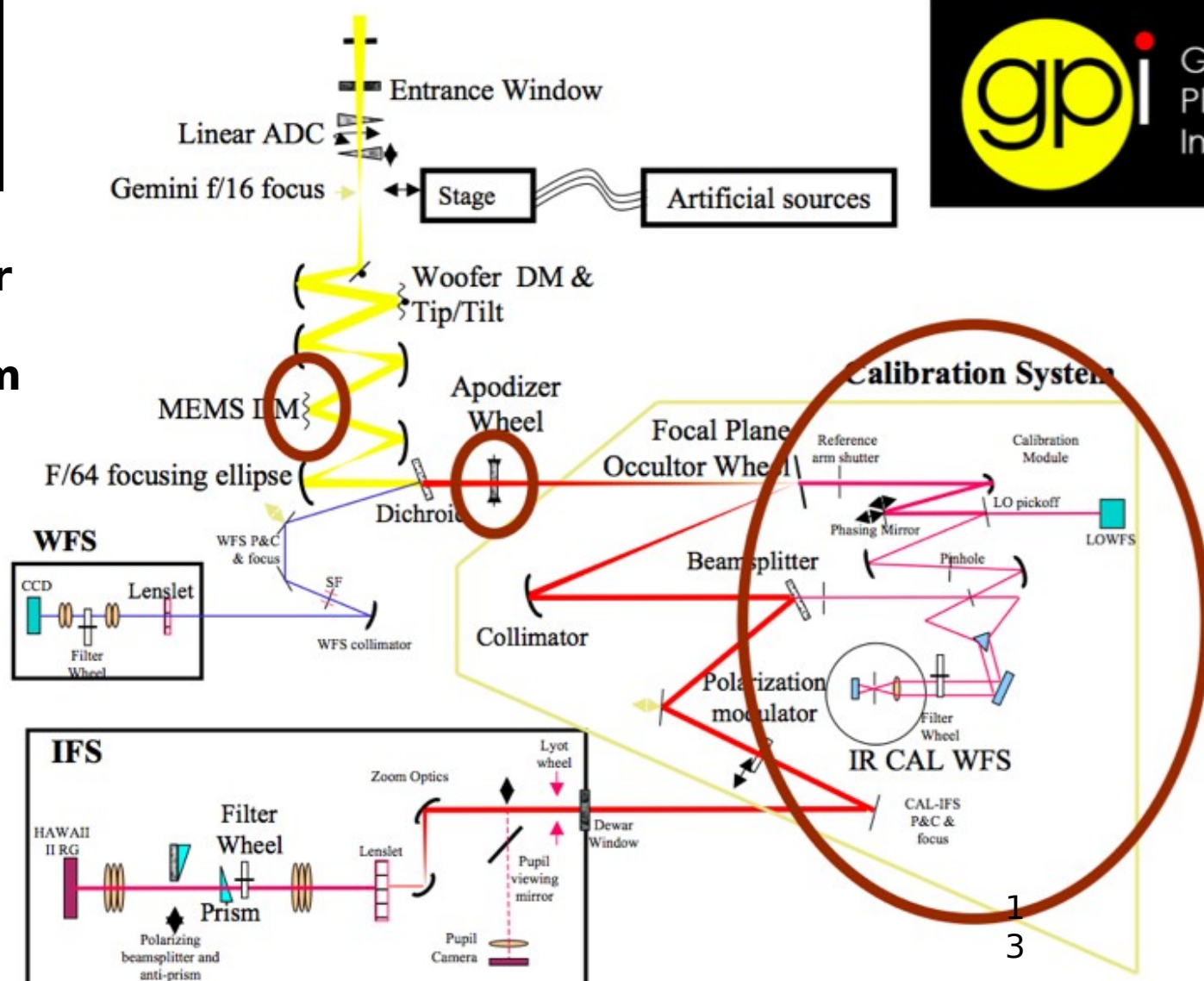


Example #3: The Gemini Planet Imager Extreme-AO system



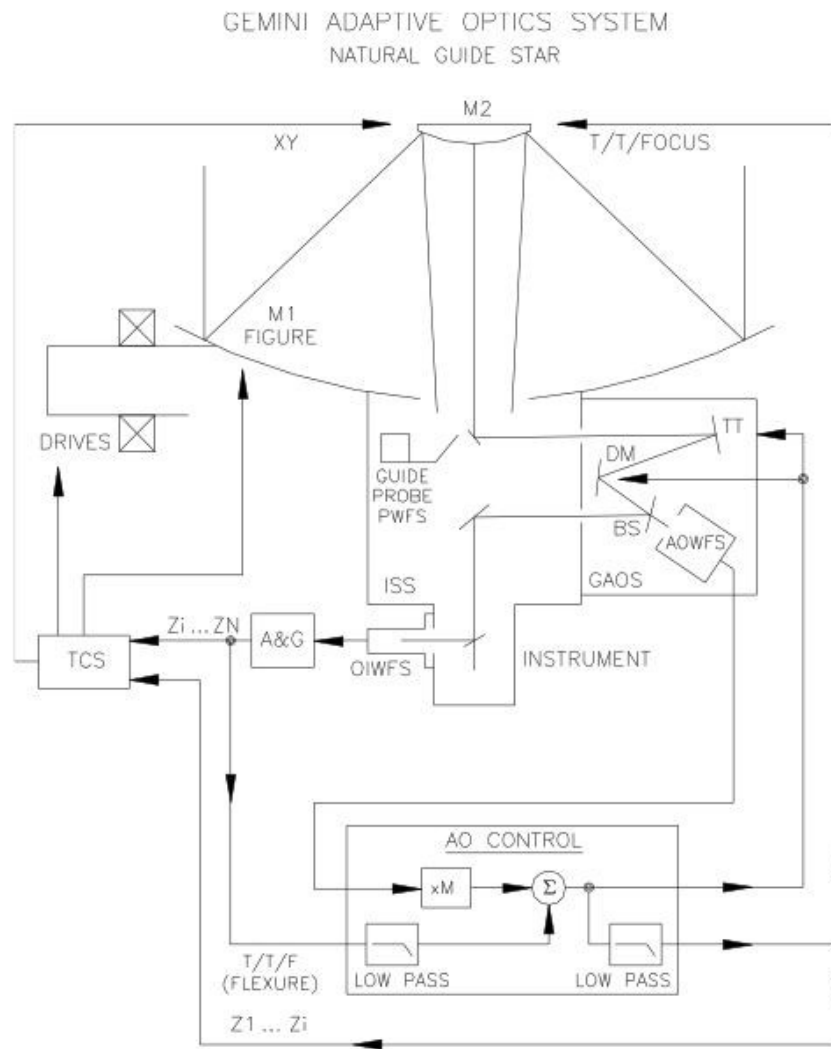
**Gemini Planet Imager
SPHERE (ESO)
Subaru CExAO system**

**Also under study:
space-based ExAO
systems**

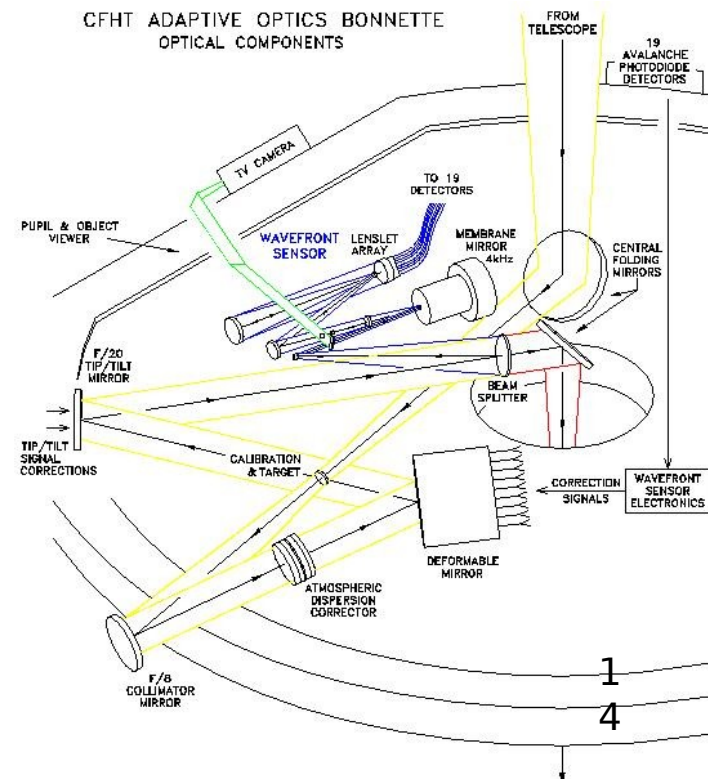


Communication between telescope/instruments and AO system

On modern telescopes, the AO system can “offload” wavefront aberrations to primary mirror, tip/tilt/focus secondary mirror and telescope pointing. The AO system “drives the telescope”.

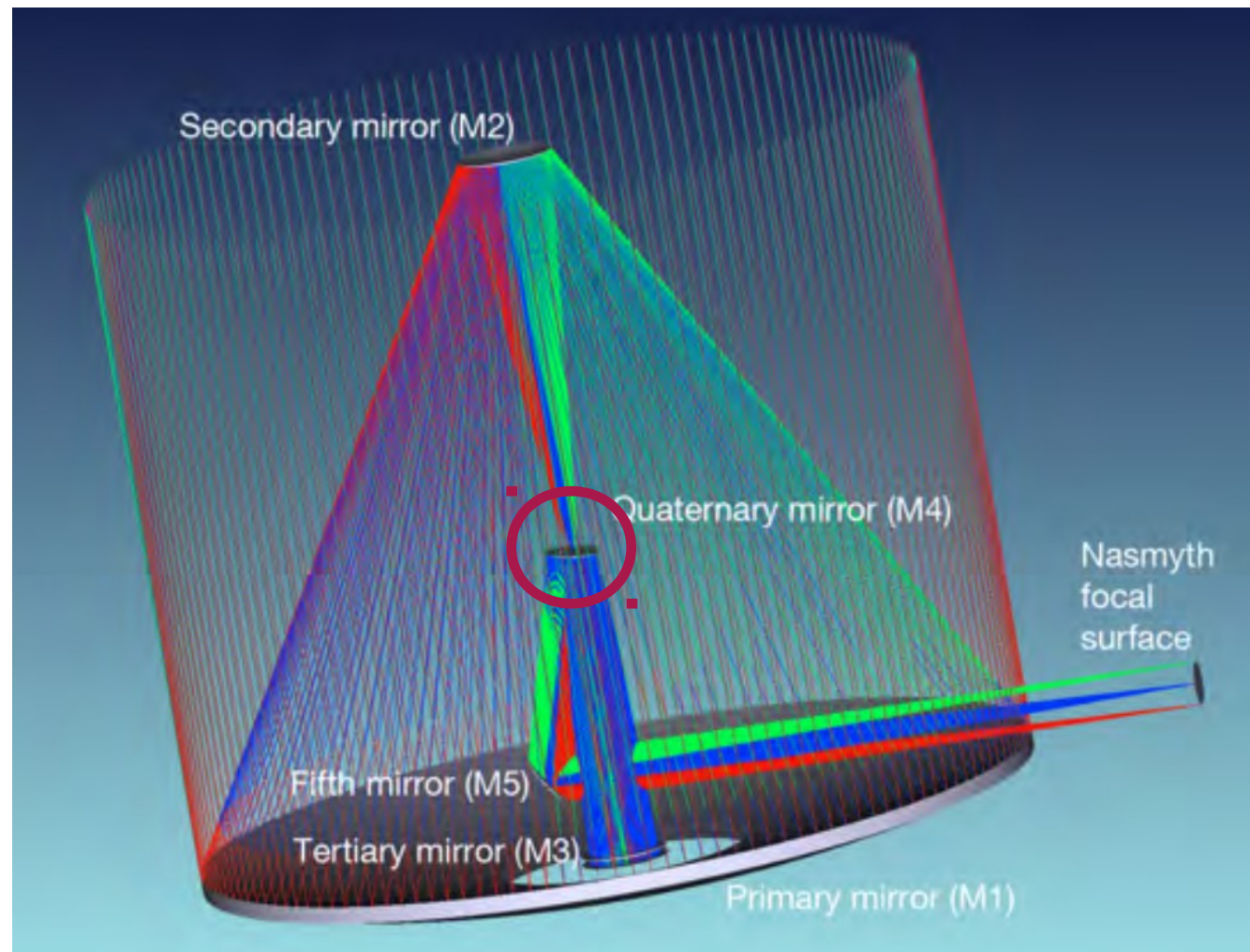
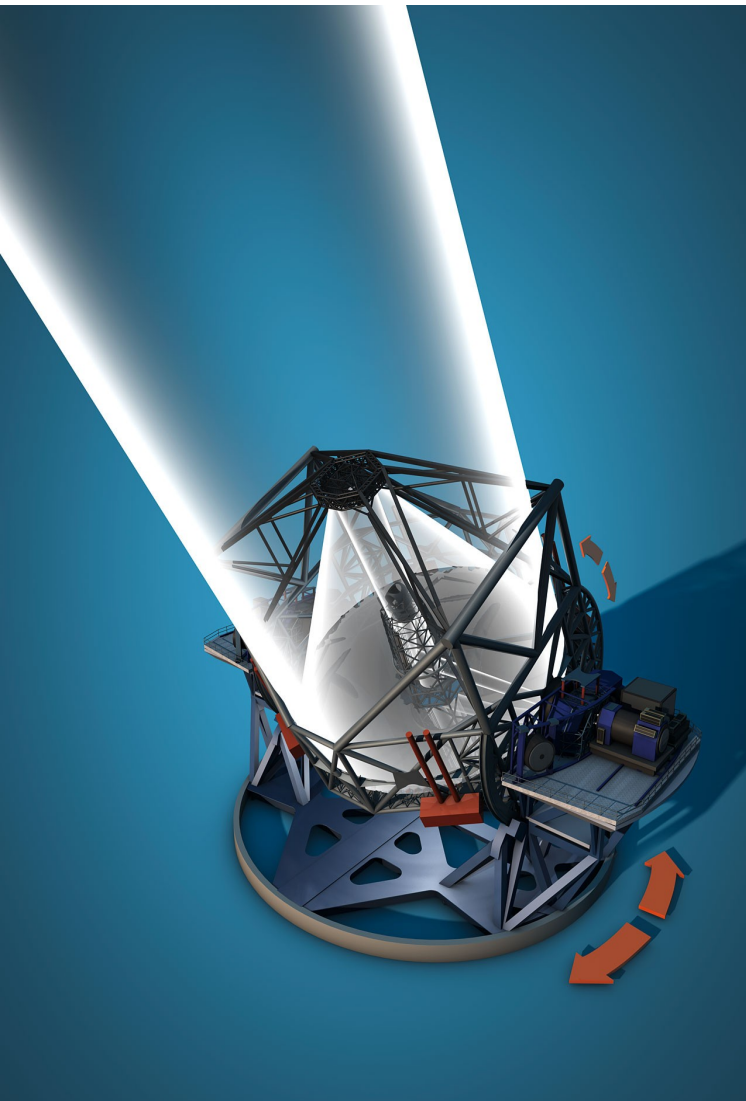


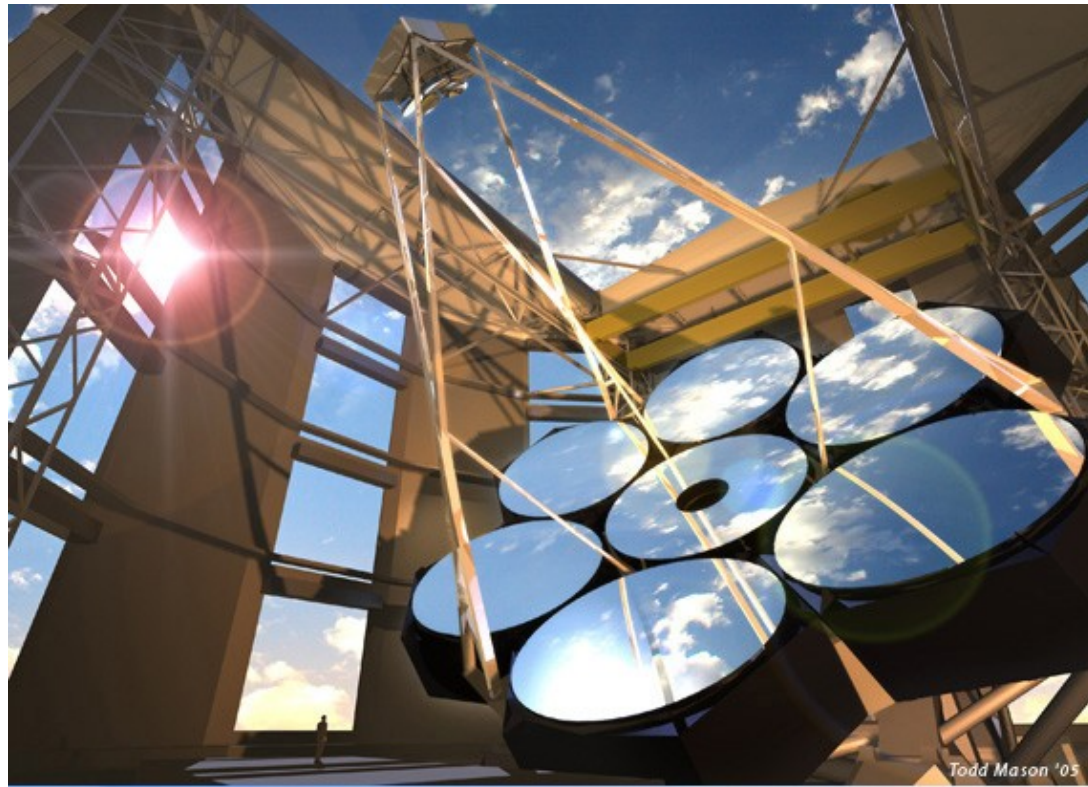
“Facility” AO systems can feed several instruments, and can be a “layer” which processes the beam prior to sending it to instruments.



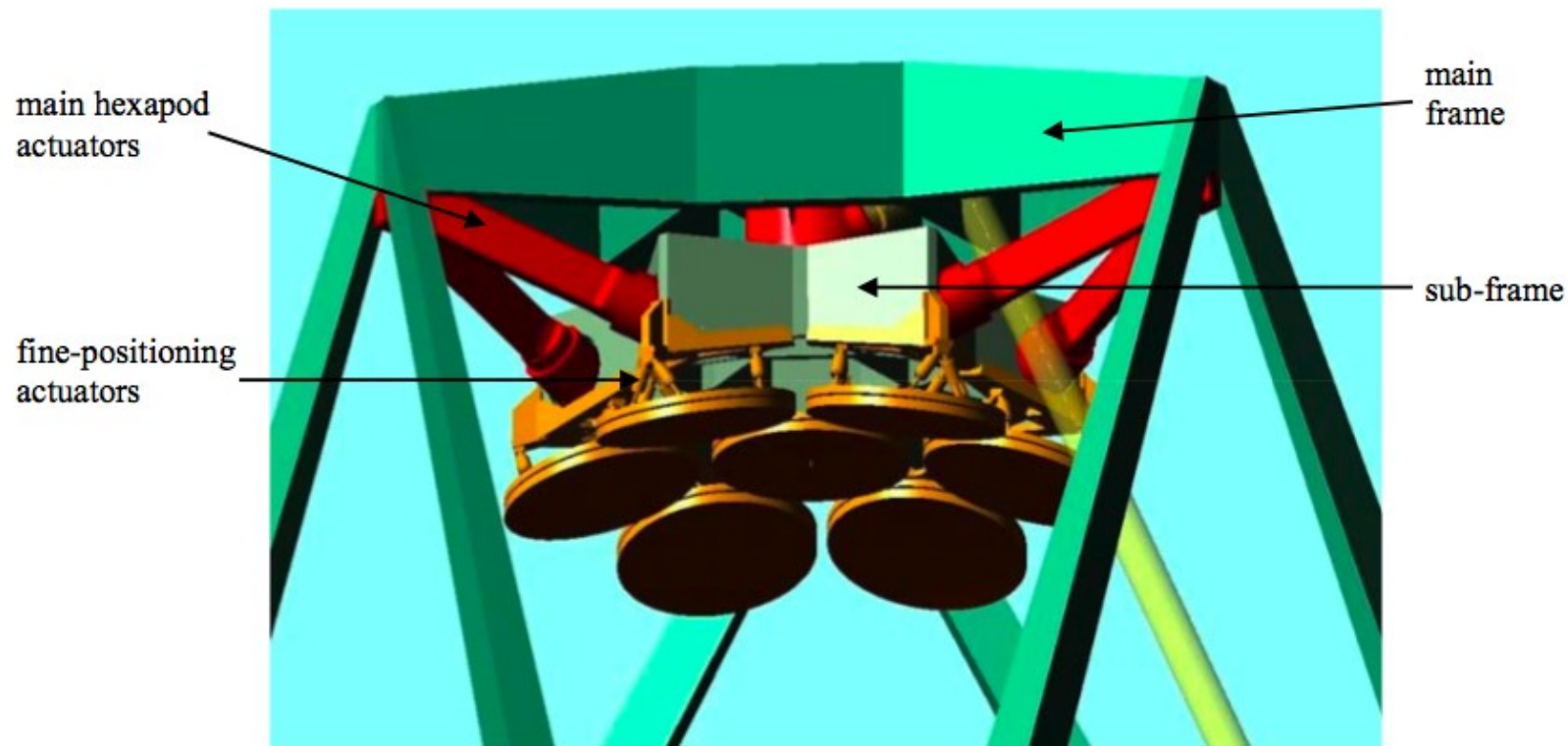
The next generation of large telescopes combine AO with telescope design

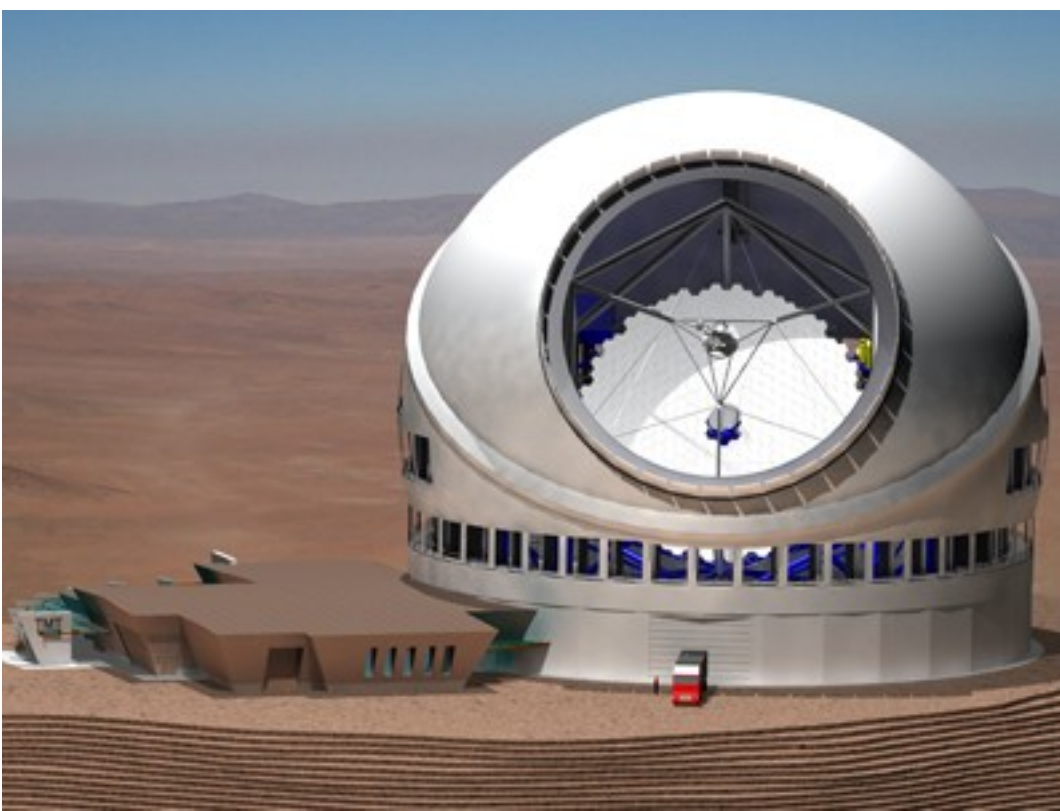
The 39m diameter European Extremely Large Telescope (EELT) optical design includes a large deformable mirror (2.4m diameter).



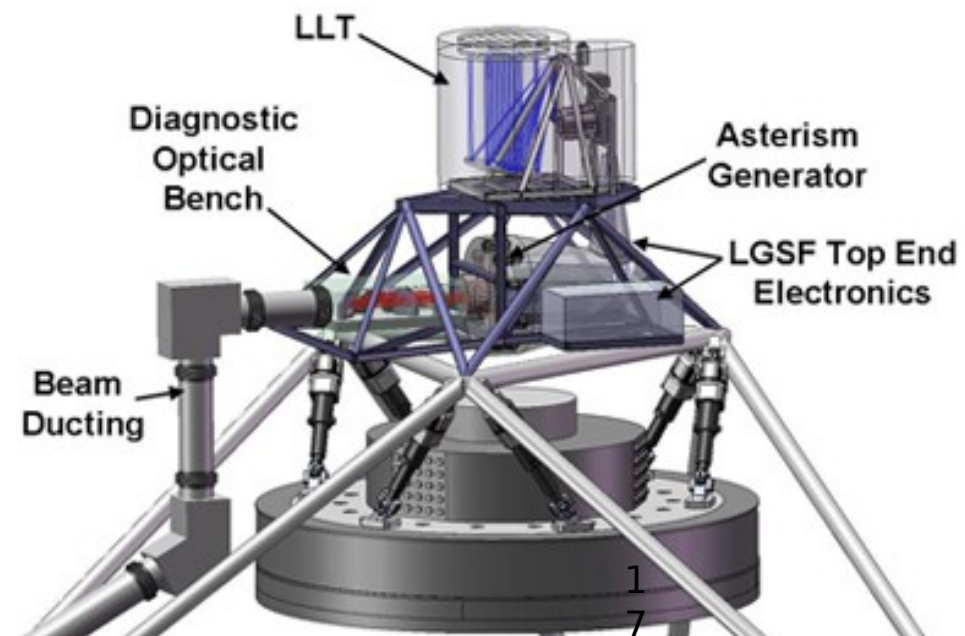
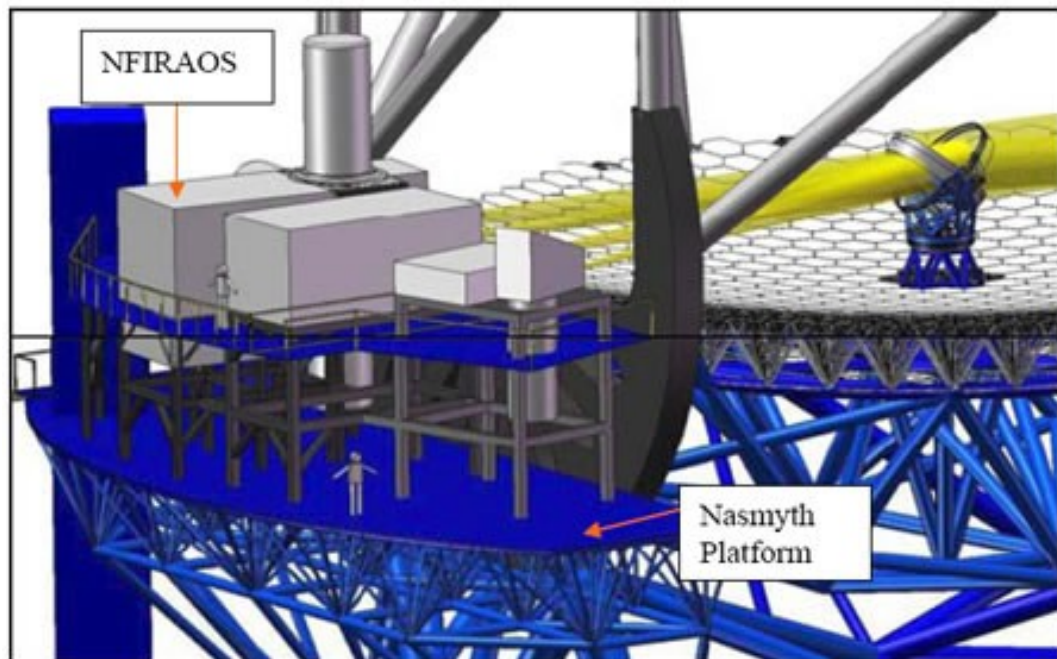


The Giant Magellan Telescope (GMT) secondary mirrors are adaptive and serve as DMs for the AO system(s).





The Thirty Meter Telescope (TMT), just like GMT and ELT, includes adaptive optics for first generation instruments.



Atmospheric turbulence and its effect on image quality

Image quality metrics

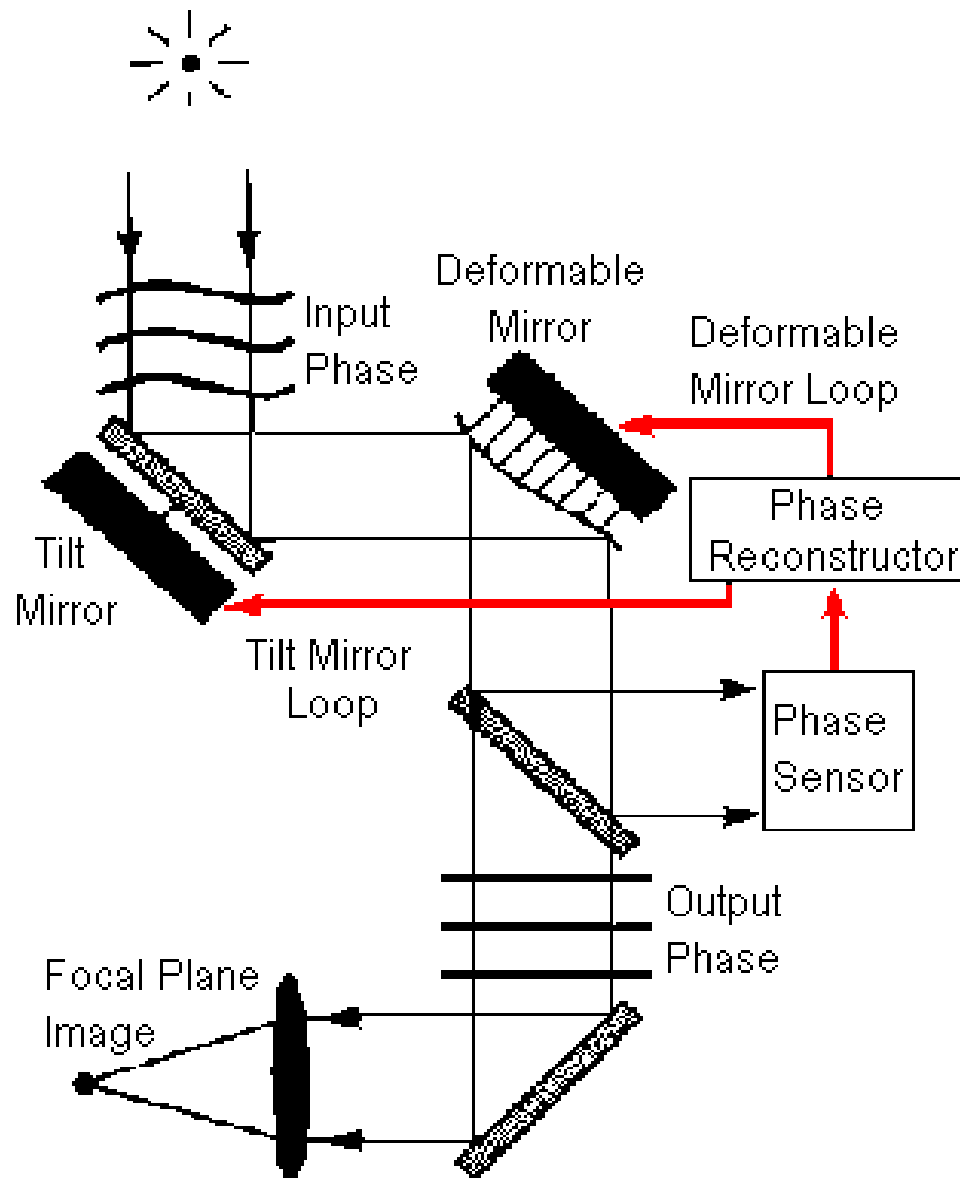
Atmospheric turbulence

Wavefront phase

Measuring important turbulence parameters

Wavefront phase error budget

What is Adaptive Optics ?



Main components of an AO system:

Guide star(s): provides light to measure wavefront aberrations, can be natural (star in the sky) or laser (spot created by laser)

Deformable mirror(s) (+ tip-tilt mirror): corrects aberrations

Wavefront sensor(s): measures aberrations

Computer, algorithms: converts wavefront sensor measurements into deformable mirror commands

Atmospheric Turbulence

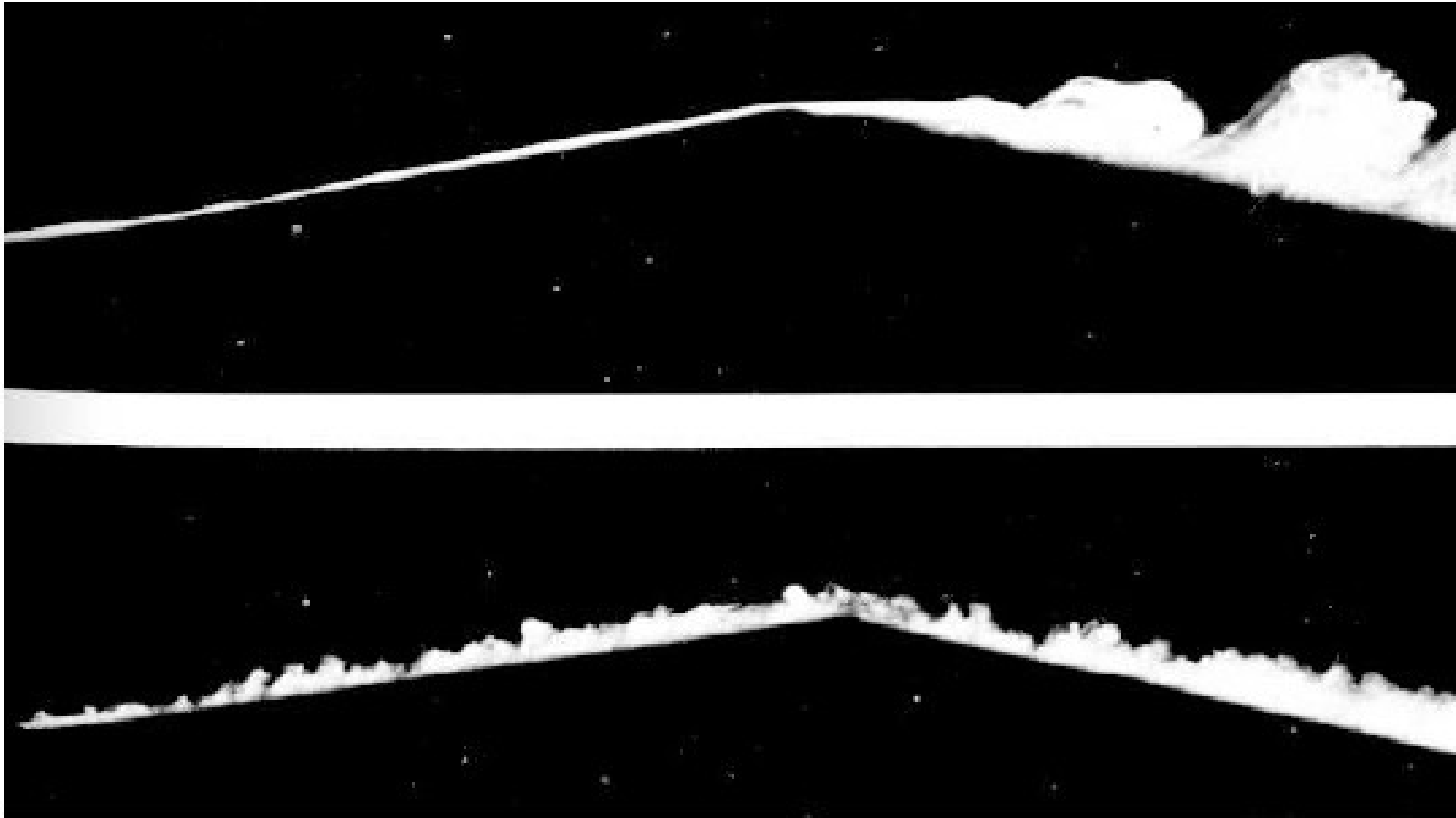


Spatial variations in refractive index → poor image quality

Turbulence is energy dissipation effect :

Large motions → breaks down into smaller turbulence cells → friction (heat dissipation) at inner scale

Turbulence from a boundary layer



***Bigger whirls have little whirls, Which
feed on their velocity; Little whirls have
smaller whirls, and so on to viscosity.***

Atmospheric Turbulence

Temperature variations in the atmosphere result in index of refraction variations. This, in turn causes corrugations in wavefronts propagating through the atmosphere.

Large scale temperature variations create flow of air which will interact at boundary layers to create turbulence. Large scale eddies cascade into smaller scale turbulence. The resulting index variations have typical power spectra (strength versus spatial scale) which are characteristic of the turbulent process.

Strength of Turbulence : C_N^2

Refractive index spatial structure function (3D):

$$D_N(\rho) = \langle |n(r) - n(r+\rho)|^2 \rangle = C_N^2 \rho^{2/3} \quad (\text{equ 1})$$

Equation is valid between inner scale ($\sim \text{mm}$) and outer scale (few m)

Taylor approximation: turbulence is a frozen wavefront pushed by the wind (frozen flow)

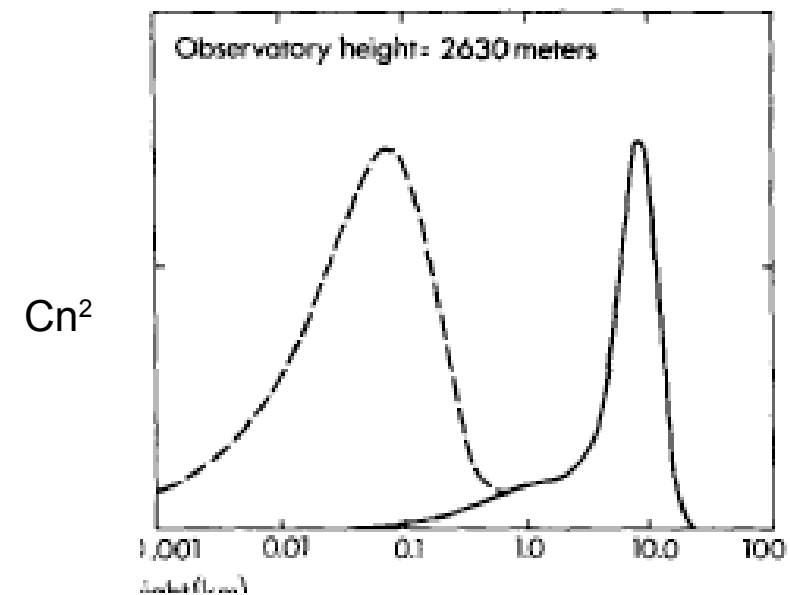
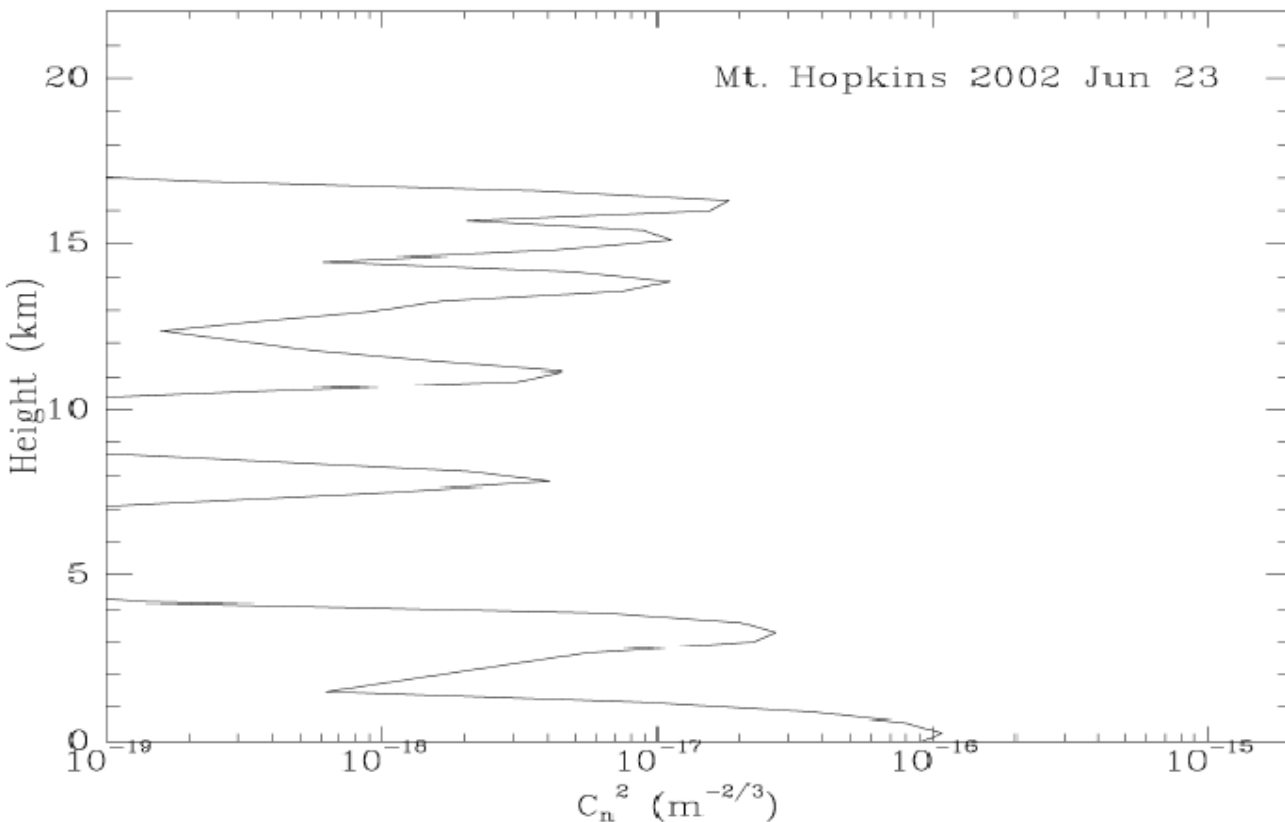
Between inner and outer scale, turbulence is well described by this power law.

Refractive index temporal structure function under Taylor approximation:

$$D_N(\tau) = \langle |n(r,t) - n(r,t+\tau)|^2 \rangle = C_N^2 |v_T|^{2/3}$$

Cn² profiles

- The strength of the turbulence is measured as an index of refraction variation (termed Cn²).
- The turbulent layers are not limited to the ground, but extend well up into the troposphere.



From C_N^2 to wavefront structure function

Wavefront phase spatial structure function (2D):

$$D_{\phi_a}(\rho) = \langle |\phi_a(\mathbf{r}) - \phi_a(\mathbf{r} + \rho)|^2 \rangle_{\mathbf{r}}$$

Can be obtained by integrating equ 1 over light path:

$$D_{\phi_a}(\rho) = 6.88 \left(\frac{|\rho|}{r_0} \right)^{5/3} \quad (\text{equ 2})$$

With r_0 = Fried Parameter [unit = m]

$$r_0 = \left(16.7 \lambda^{-2} (\cos \gamma)^{-1} \int_0^\infty dh C_N^2(h) \right)^{-3/5}$$

Wavelength

Elevation (=0 for Zenith)

From C_N^2 to wavefront error

Wavefront phase error over a circular aperture of diameter d :

$$\sigma^2 = 1.0299 \left(\frac{d}{r_0} \right)^{5/3}$$

r_0 = Fried Parameter [unit = m] = diameter of telescope for which atmospheric wavefront $\sim 1 \text{ rad}^2$

In this “collapsed” treatment of turbulence (what is the wavefront in a single direction in the sky), turbulence is fully described by r_0 and wind speed v

If variation of wavefront over small angles is important, the **turbulence profile** becomes important

Atmospheric turbulence, wavefront variance, Image quality

D = telescope diameter

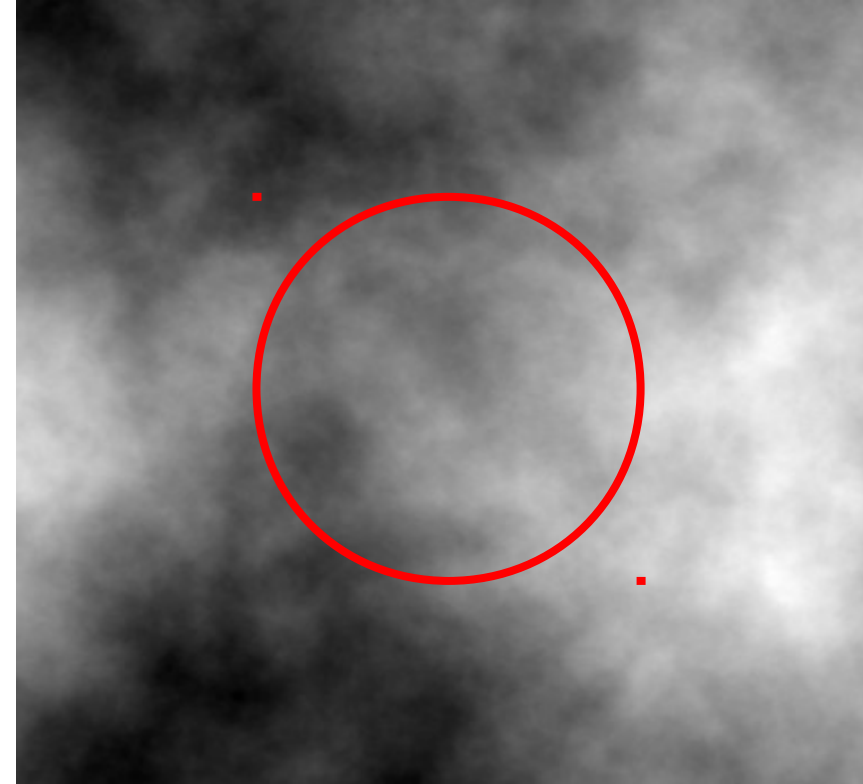
$$\sigma^2 = 1.03 (D/r_0)^{5/3}$$

$$\text{Seeing} = \lambda/r_0$$

$$\text{Number of speckles} = (D/r_0)^2$$

$$D = 8 \text{ m}, r_0 = 0.8 \text{ m}$$

$$(0.2 \text{ m in visible} = 0.8 \text{ m at } 1.6 \mu\text{m})$$



Kolmogorov turbulence

Wavefront error σ is in radian in all equations.

Wavefront variance σ^2 is additive (no correlation between different sources), and the wavefront error budget is built by adding σ^2 terms.

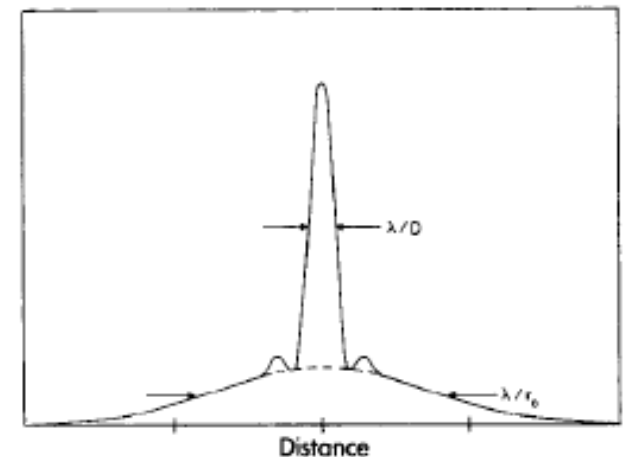
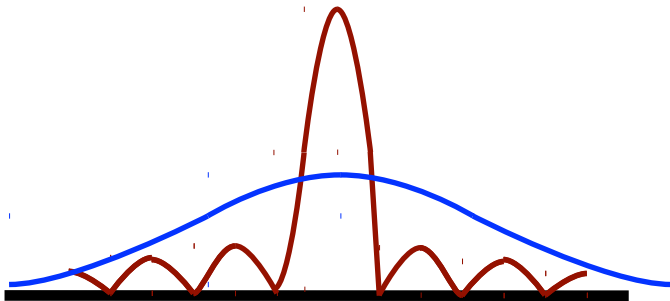
$$\text{Wavefront error (m)} = \lambda \times \sigma / (2\pi)$$

$$\text{Strehl ratio} \sim e^{-\sigma^2}$$

(Marechal approximation, valid for Strehl ratio higher than ~ 0.3)

Image Structure

- The point spread function of an adaptive optics system is complicated by the fact that the light is only partially corrected.
- A portion of the total energy, S , is gathered into an Airy pattern.
- The remaining energy, $1-S$, is spread into a halo with a characteristic size of the seeing disk.



Contribution to Strehl

Potential sources of wavefront error include

time delay,

fitting error,

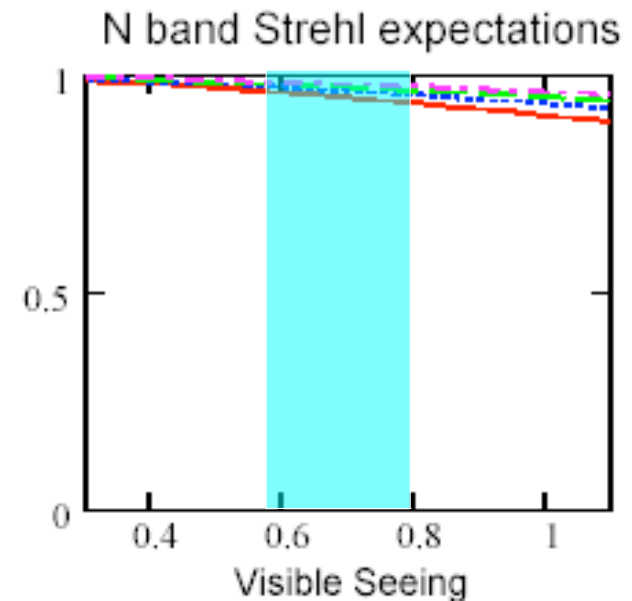
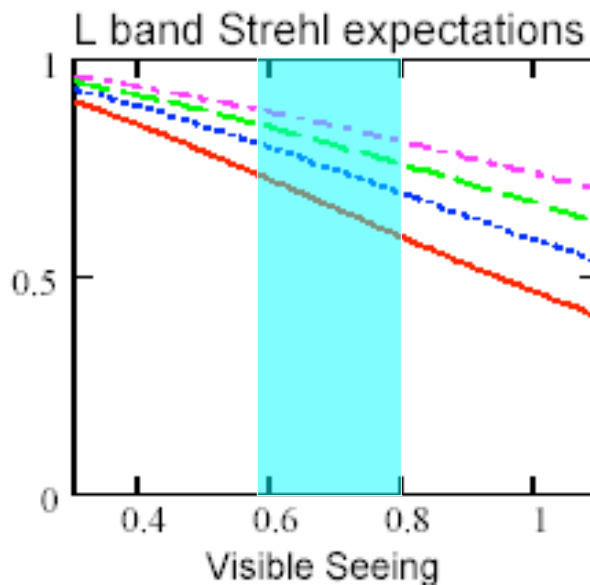
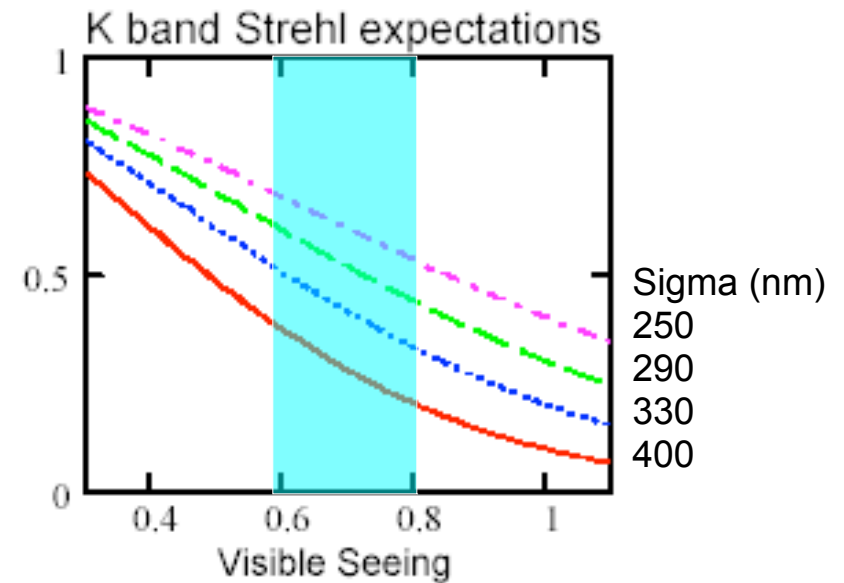
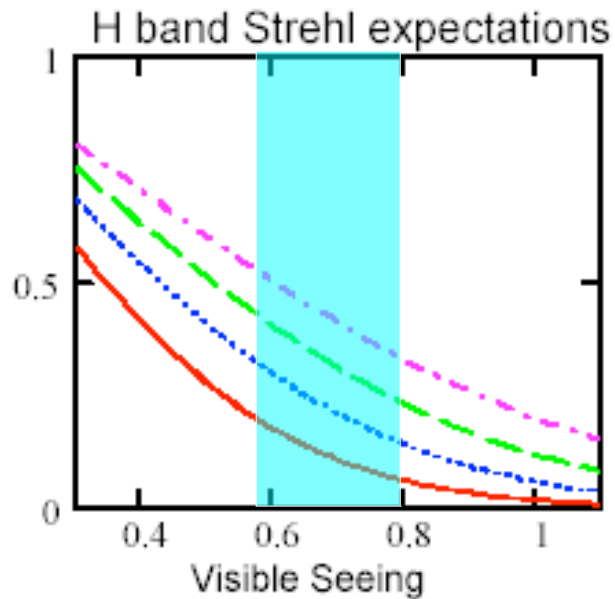
isoplanatic error,

photon noise error

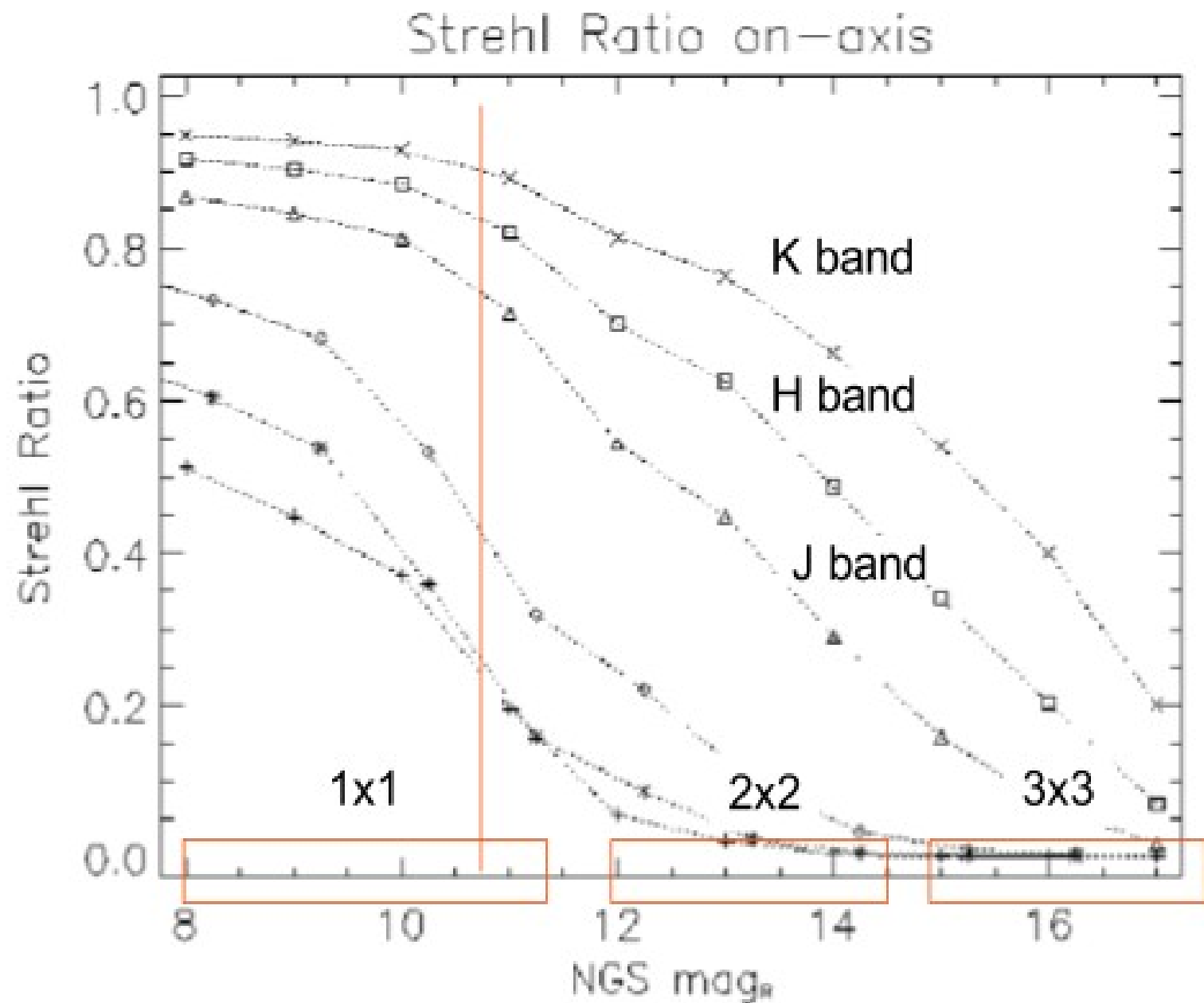
If we assume the wavefront error terms are independent we can write:

$$\sigma^2 = \sum \sigma_i^2$$

Strehl versus seeing

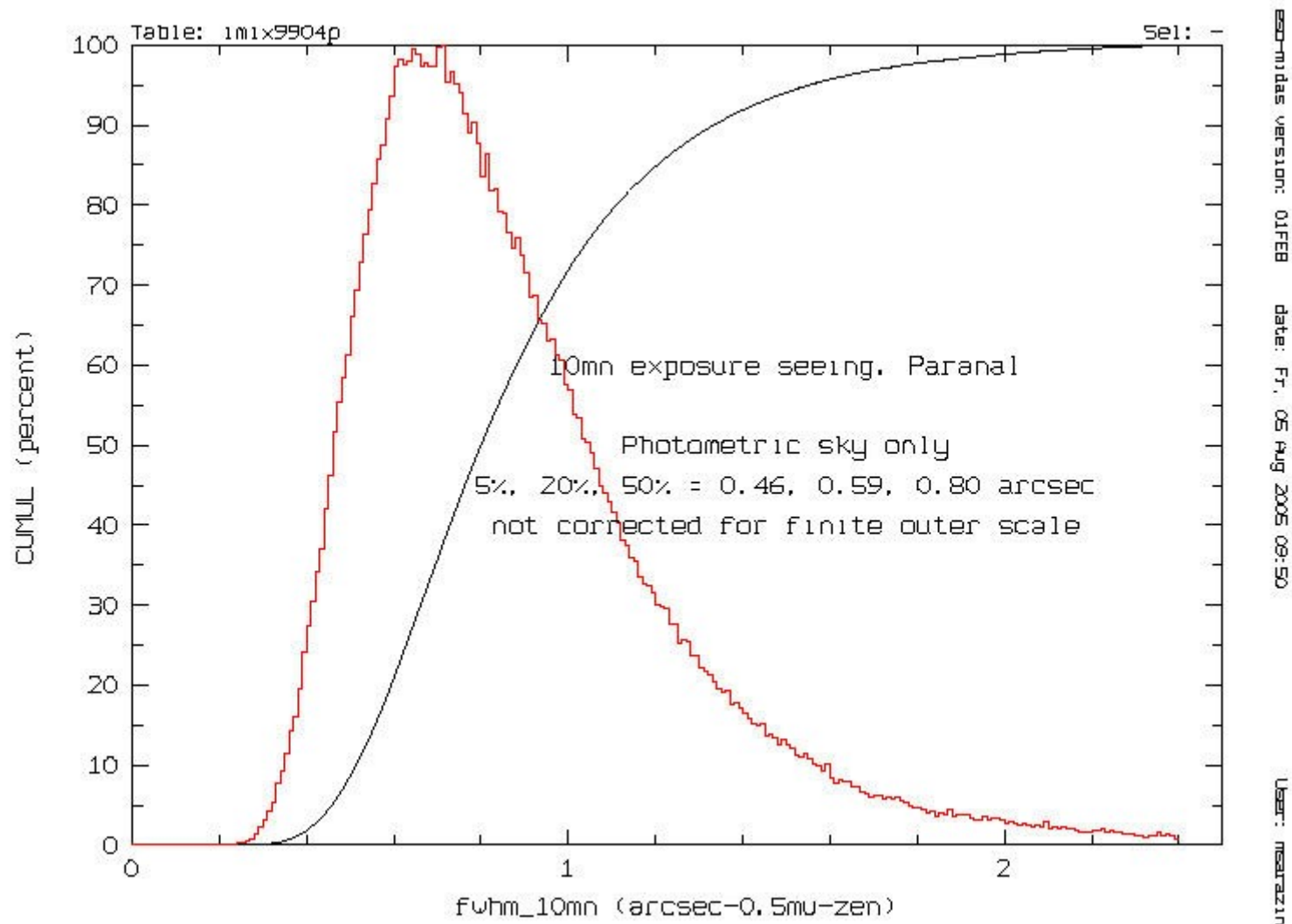


Predicted Strehl versus Guide Star



Seeing (or its equivalent r_0) is the most used metric to quantify atmospheric turbulence

WITHOUT AO (and with long exposures), this is the only relevant quantity to describe atmospheric turbulence



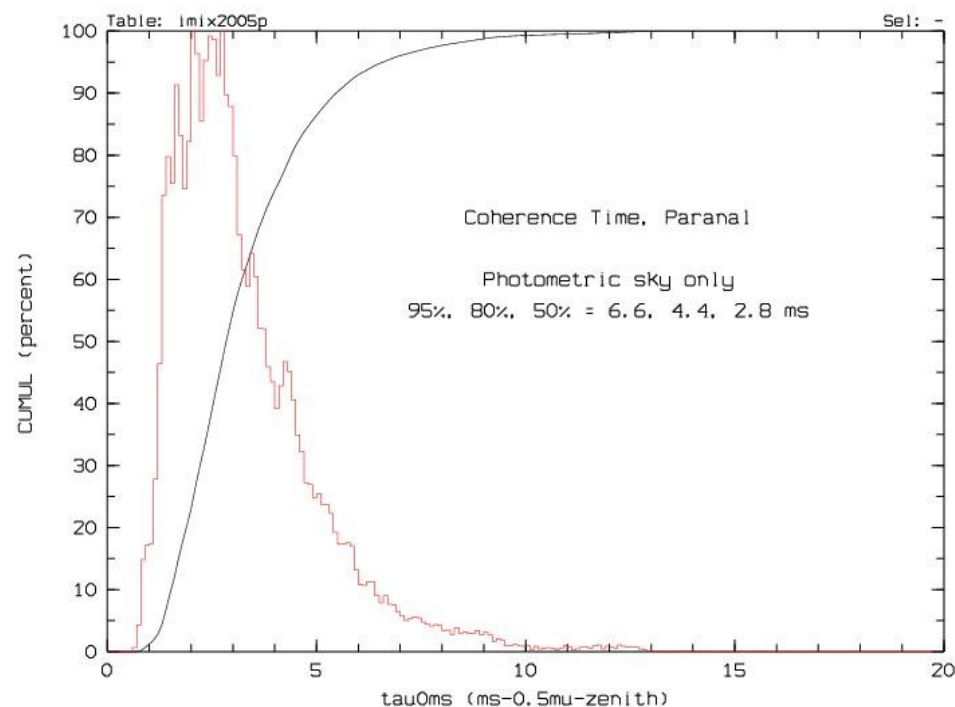
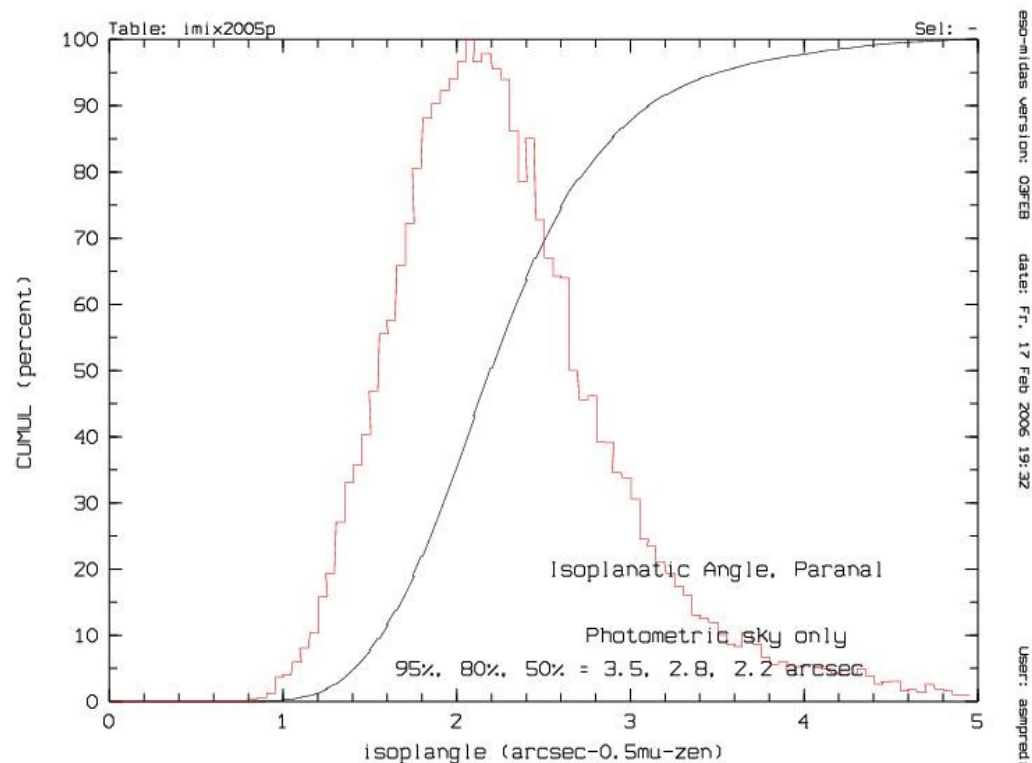
With AO, **isoplanatic angle** and **coherence time** become important

How quickly does the wavefront change with location on the sky is quantified by **isoplanatic angle**

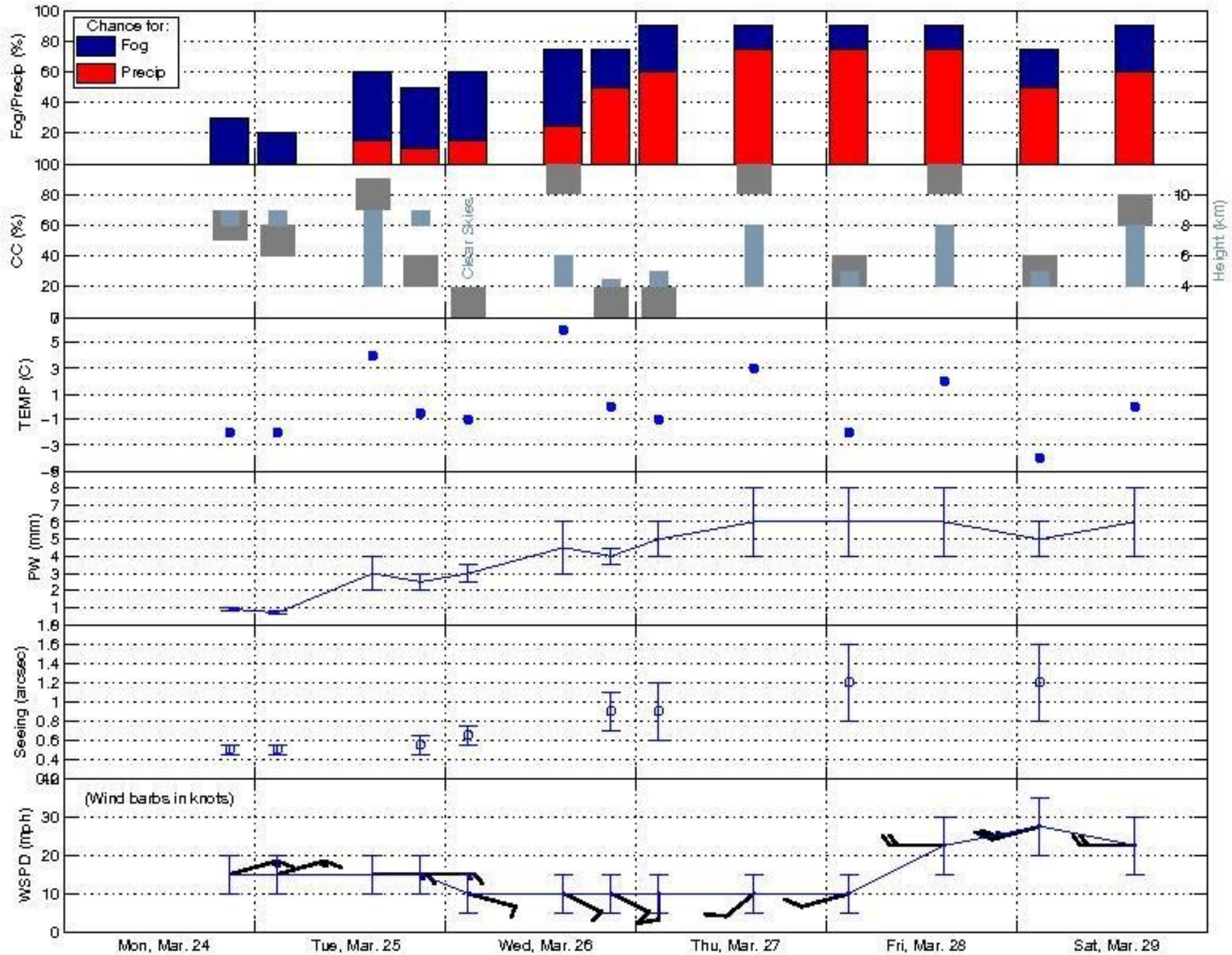
- field of view of corrected image
- how far from science target can the guide star be

Speed at which wavefront changes is quantified by **coherence time**

- how fast should the AO system run ?
- how faint a guide star can be used ?

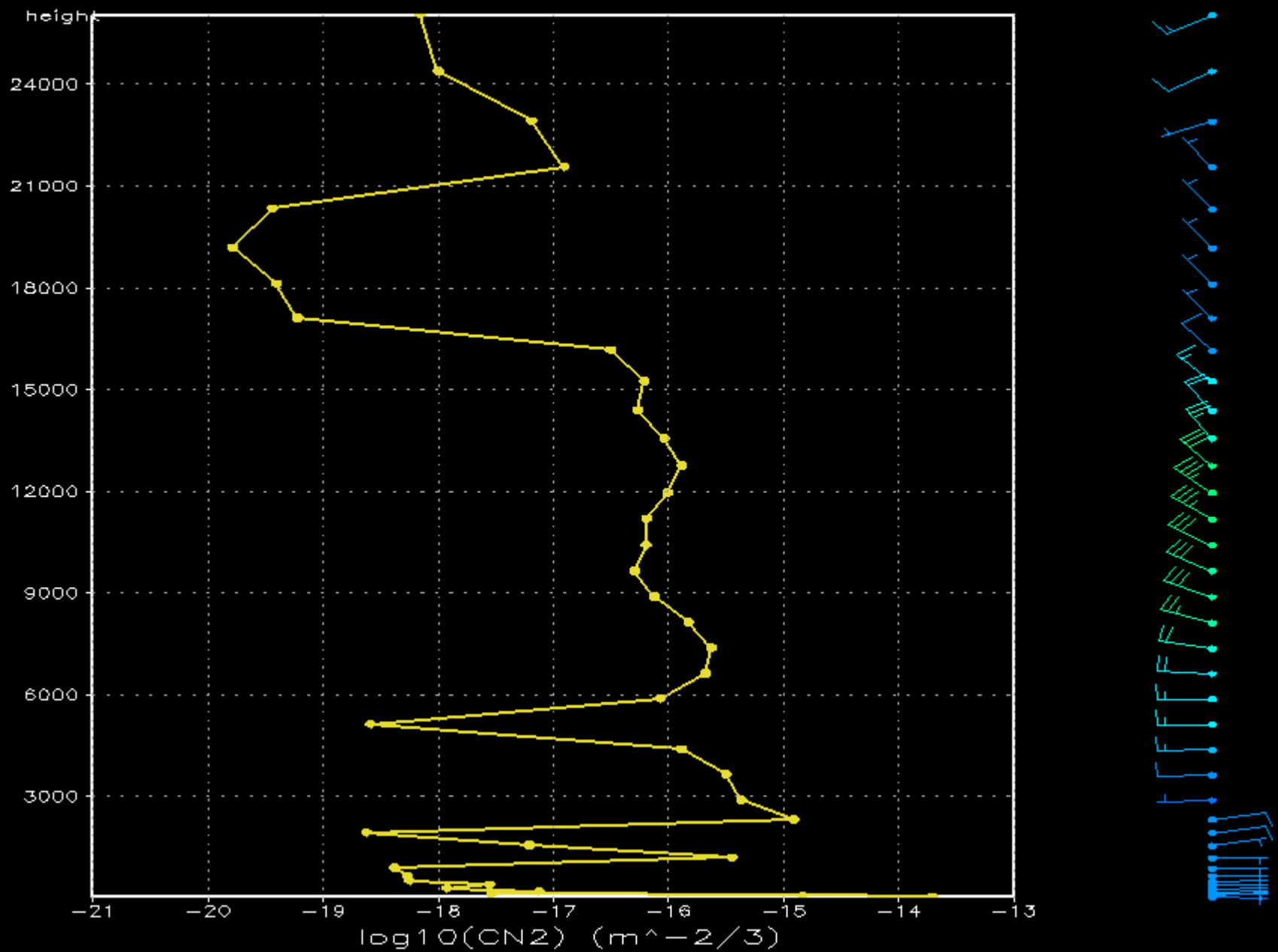


Example: Mauna Kea observatory forecast



C_N^2 profile

Valid 15:00 UTC Tue 25 Mar 2014 — 5:00 HST Tue 25 Mar 2014

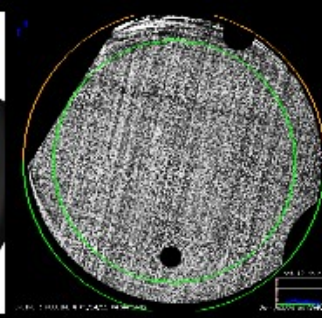
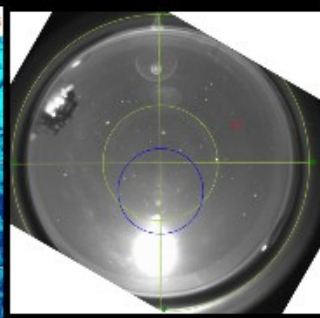
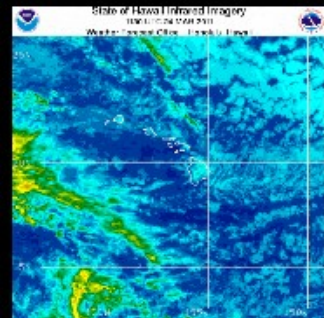
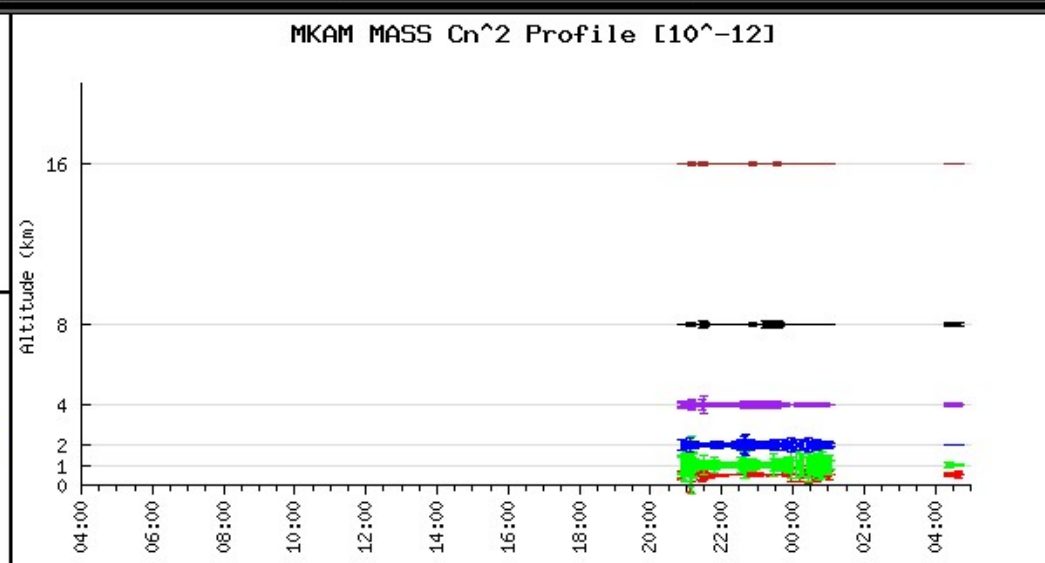
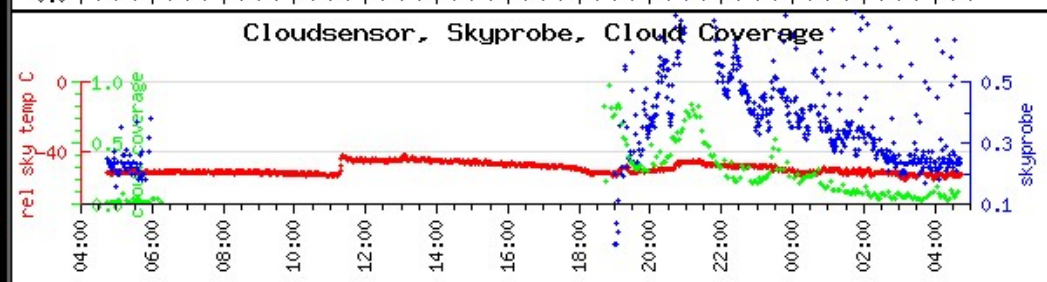
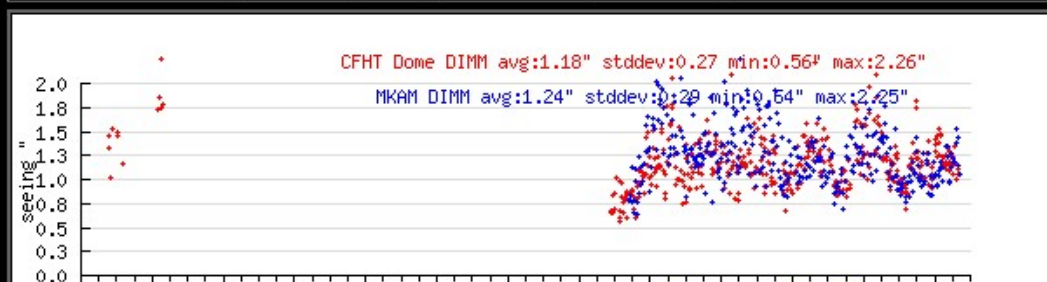


Canada France Hawaii Telescope (CFHT) weather summary page

DIMM: Differential Image Motion Monitor

MASS: Multiaperture Scintillation Sensor

Currently	Ambient	RH %	Wind	Sky Temp	Last Cloud Coverage	Last Skyscope	Last Dome DIMM seeing	Last Seeing Monitor Seeing
Mar 24 2011 4:43AM	0C	10%	6 @ 79deg	-53.01C	10% @ Mar 24 2011 4:39AM	0.23 @ Mar 24 2011 4:42AM	1.08" @ Mar 24 2011 4:37AM	1.06" @ Mar 24 2011 4:42AM



Differential Image Motion Monitor (DIMM)

Concept: measure differential motion, for a single star, between images formed by different subapertures of a single telescope



RoboDIMM for Isaac Newton group of Telescope (LaPalma, Canary islands, Spain)

Coherence time

Assuming perfect DMs and wavefront knowledge, how does performance decrease as the correction loop slows down ?

Assuming pure time delay t

$$\sigma^2 = (t/t_0)^{5/3}$$

t_0 = coherence time “Greenwood time delay” = $0.314 r_0/v$

$v = 10 \text{ m/s}$

$r_0 = 0.15 \text{ m (visible)} \quad 0.8 \text{ m (K band)}$

$t_0 = 4.71 \text{ ms (visible)} \quad 25 \text{ ms (K band)}$

Assuming that sampling frequency should be $\sim 10\times$ bandwidth

for “diffraction-limited” system (1 rad error in wavefront):

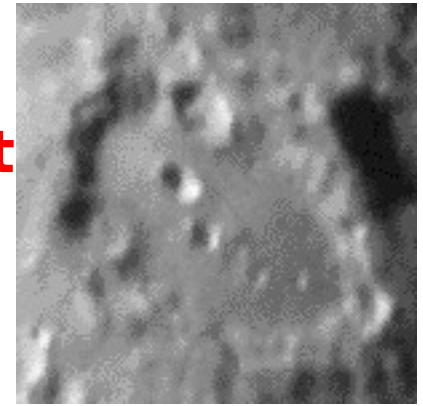
sampling frequency = 400 Hz for K band

for “extreme-AO” system (0.1 rad error):

sampling frequency = 6 kHz for K band

Isoplanatic angle

Atmospheric wavefront not the same for different directions on the sky



Two equivalent views of the problem:

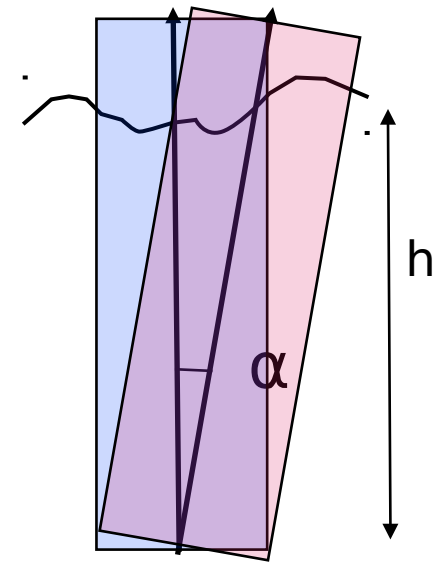
- Wavefront changes across the field of view (MOAO)
- Several layers in the atmosphere need to be corrected (MCAO)

If we assume perfect on-axis correction, and a single turbulent layer at altitude h , the variance (sq. radian) is :

$$\sigma^2 = 1.03 (\alpha/\theta_0)^{5/3}$$

Where α is the angle to the optical axis, θ_0 is the isoplanatic angle:

$$\theta_0 = 0.31 (r_0/h)$$



$$D = 8 \text{ m}, r_0 = 0.8 \text{ m}, h = 5 \text{ km} \rightarrow \theta_0 = 10''$$

To go beyond the isoplanatic angle: more DMs needed (but no need for more actuators per DM).

Amplitude effects (scintillation), chromaticity

Atmospheric wavefronts are chromatic (in optical path unit), and include amplitude modulation (scintillation)

Several effects:

- Diffraction propagation converts phase into amplitude (scintillation)
- Diffraction propagation is chromatic → scintillation is partially chromatic
- Refraction index of air is chromatic
- Atmospheric dispersion → light path from source to telescope is slightly different for different colors (~cm offset between red and blue light at a few km altitude)

Amplitude and chromaticity effects \ll phase corrugations, but can be important in Extreme-AO systems aiming a very high quality correction

OR

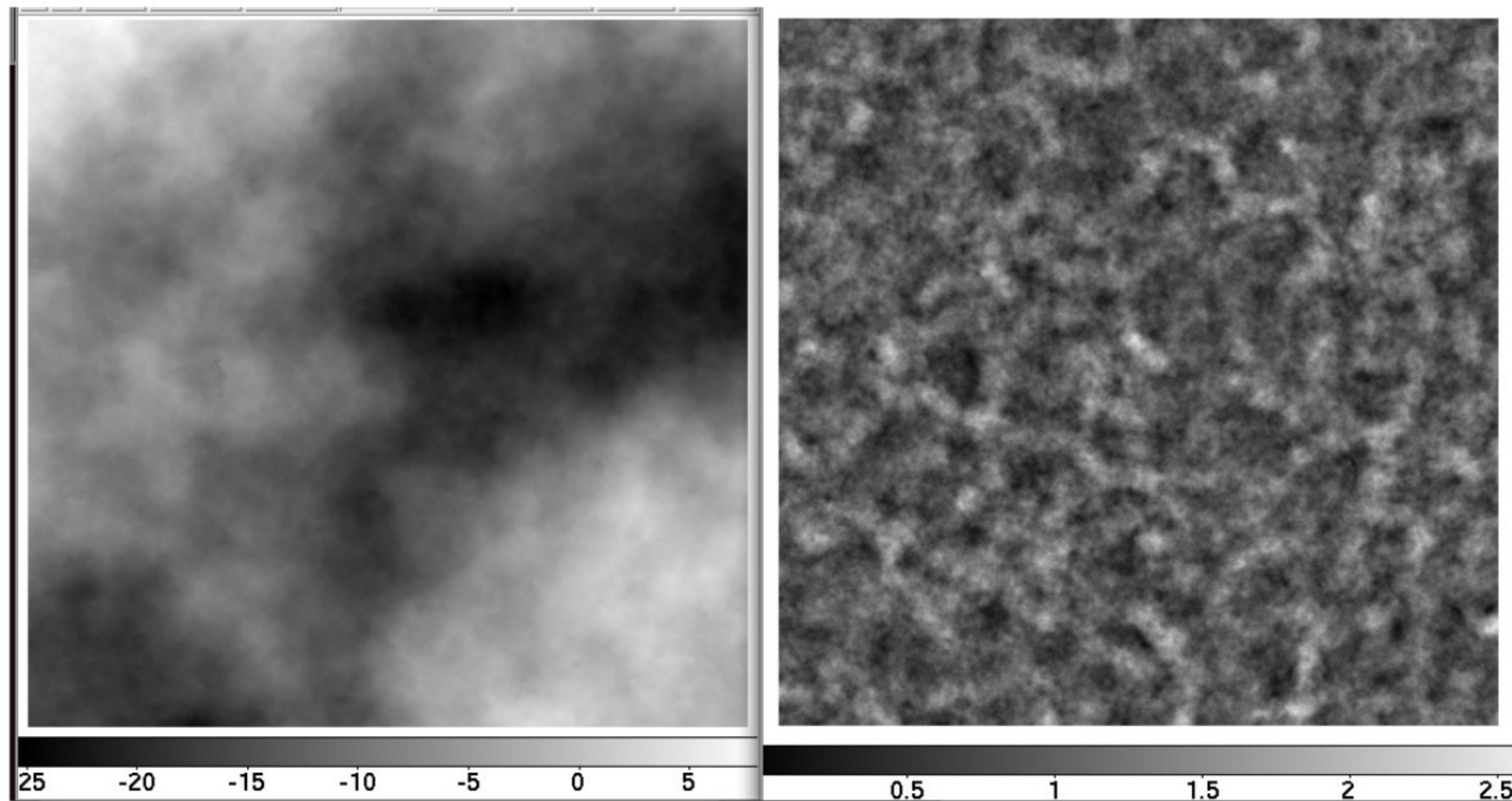
High precision photometry

Scintillation example

2mm/pixel, 1024x1024 pix (~2m x 2m)

$\lambda=500\text{nm}$, 30 deg zenith angle, 0.8" seeing at zenith

Site: Mauna Loa observatory (3500m altitude)



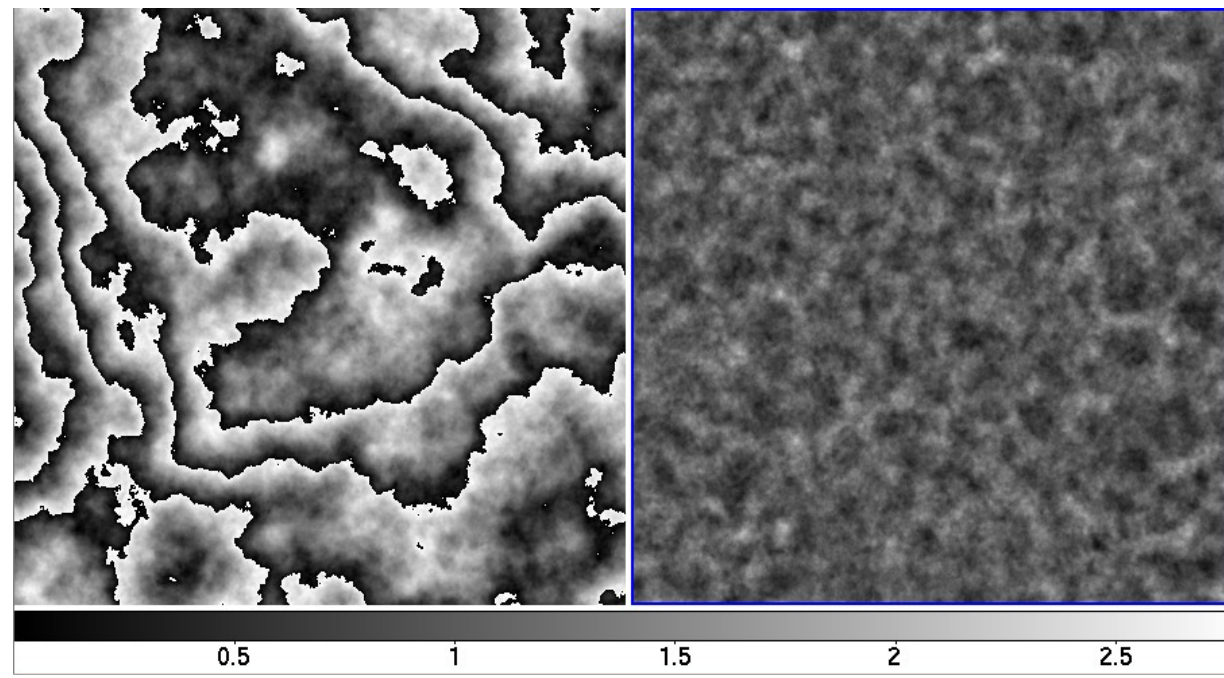
Photometry: Atmospheric Scintillation

Scintillation noise (multiplicative)
 $= 0.004 \text{ airmass}^{3/2} D^{-2/3} t^{-1/2} \exp^{-h/h_0}$

Tel diam [m]

altitude / 8km

$\sim 1/\cos(\text{zenith angle})$ exp time [sec]



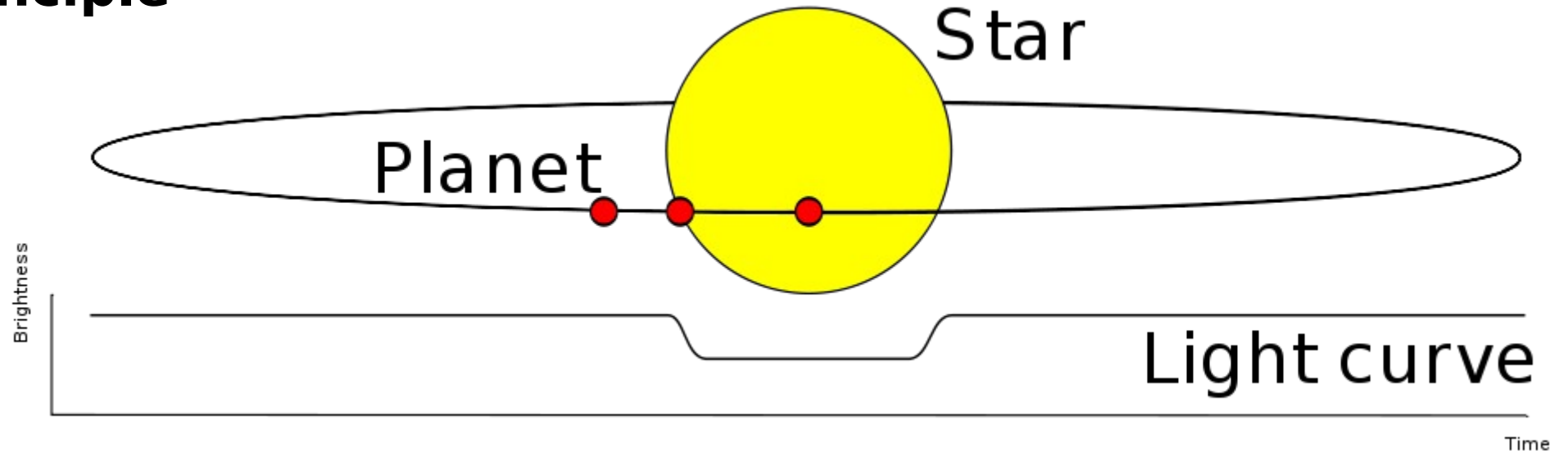
Atmospheric phase

***Atmospheric ampl
(scintillation)***

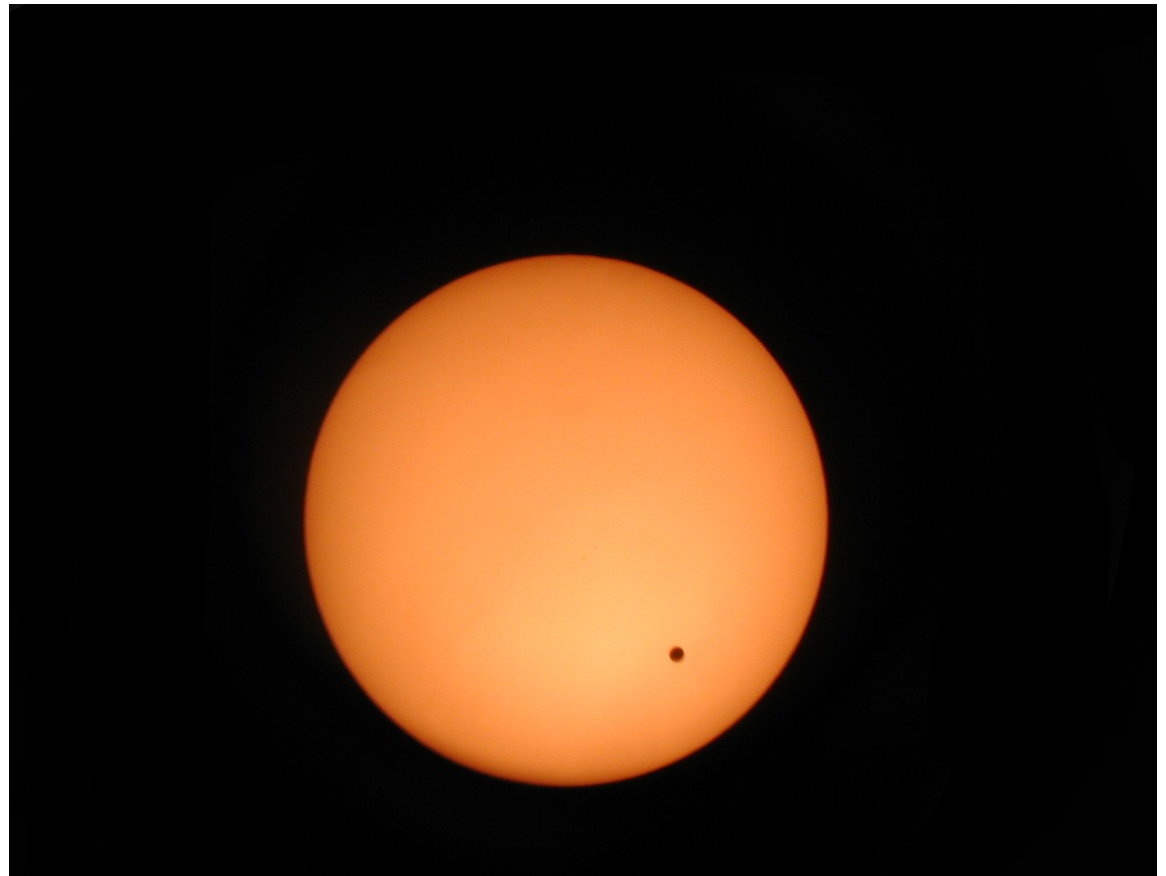
Earth analog transit:

1m telescope, 1hr exposure $\rightarrow 7e-5$ (similar to Earth transit depth)

Principle



2004 transit of Venus



Transit depth

$$\text{Transit depth} = (R_{\text{planet}} / R_{\text{star}})^2$$

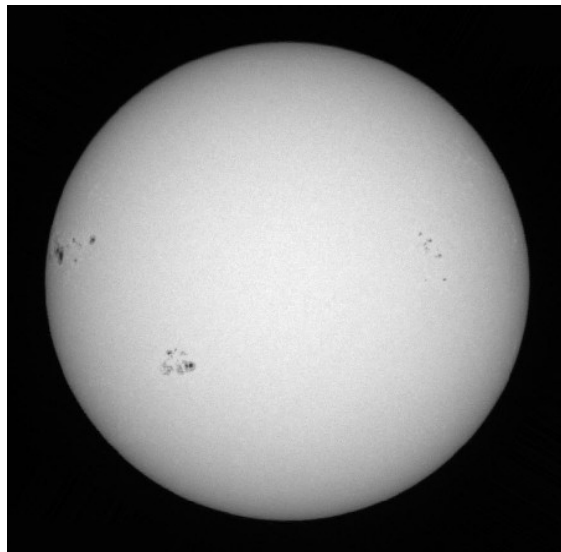
Earth radius = 6,371 km

Jupiter radius = 69,911 km

Sun radius = 696,000 km

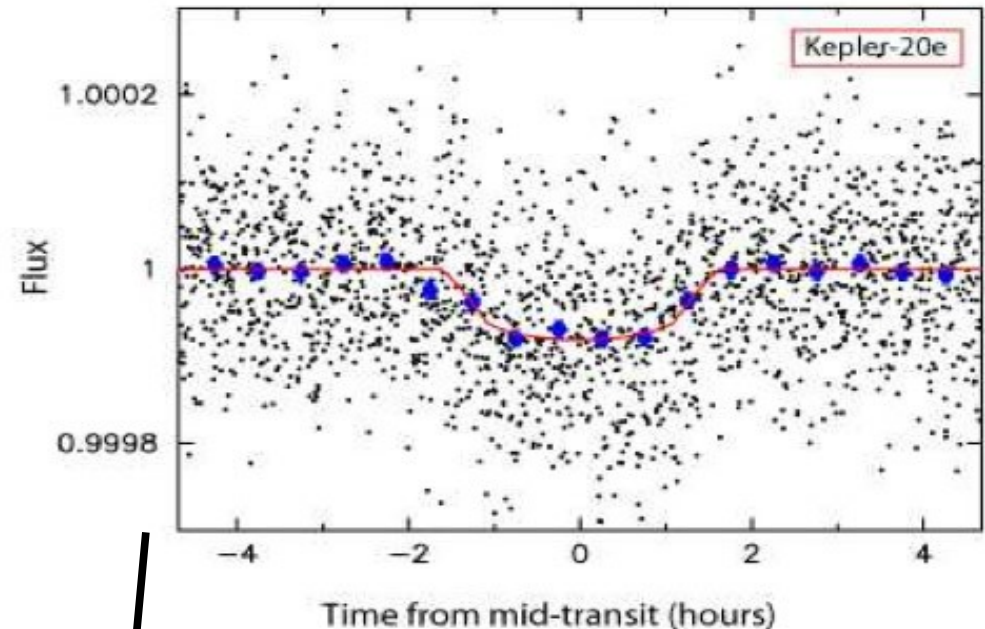
→ Amplitude = 8×10^{-5} (Earth)

→ Amplitude = 1% (Jupiter)



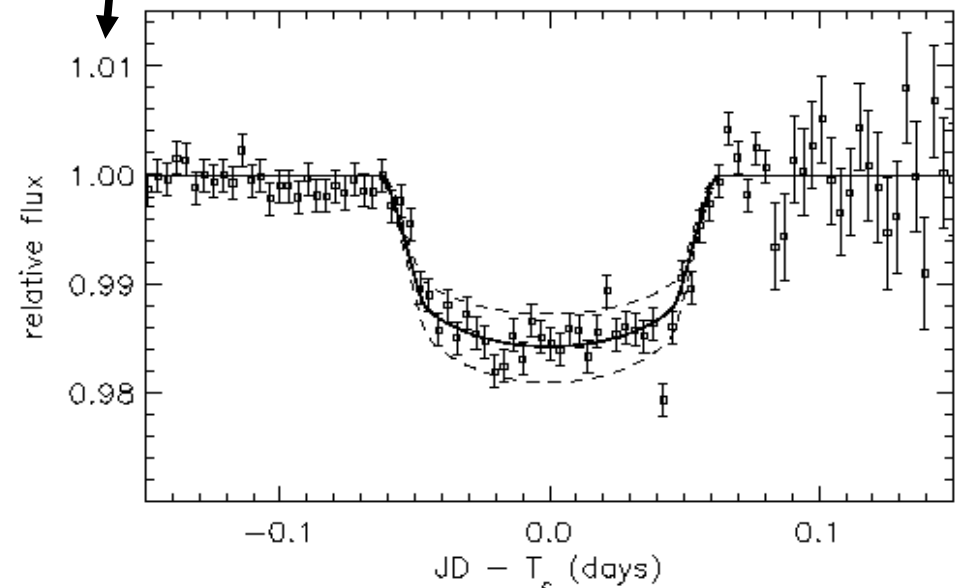
Note that transit is deeper at mid-transit (limb darkening)

**Kepler 20e: transit depth = 0.008 %
(similar to Earth transit depth)**



~100x factor in scale

HD 209458: 1.7% deep transit



Error Summary

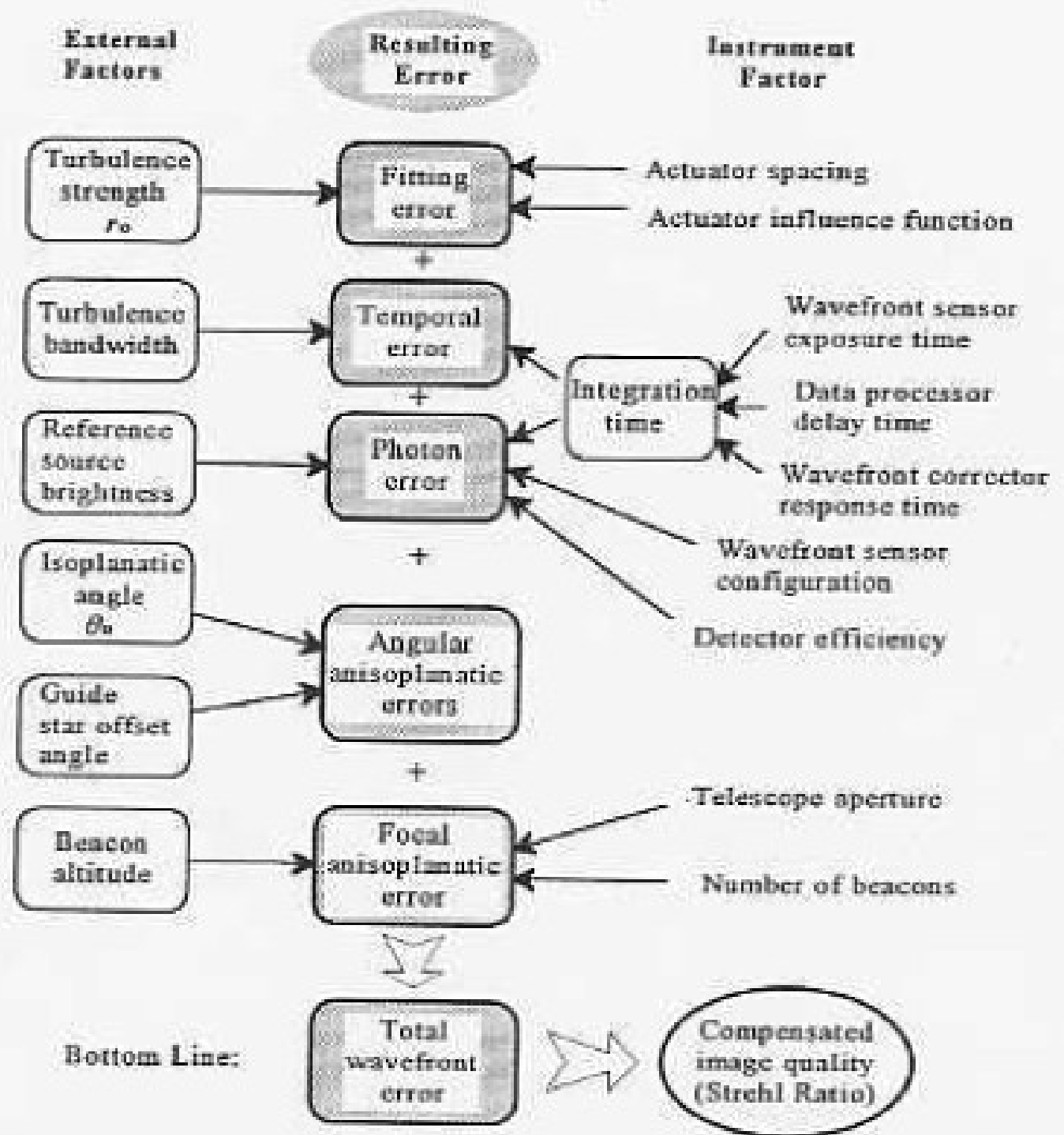


Figure 2.32 Main sources of wavefront error in adaptive optics.

How good a Strehl do you need?

