

NASA project

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May 1, 2016

## **Introduction**

Insert story.

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# 1 High level specifications

The radiation and mass, power and volume budget are listed in table 1 and table 2.

Table 1: Overview of radiation limitations

<b>Radiation</b>	
Total Integrated Dose in Silicon behind 100 mil Al spherical shell	500 krad

Table 2: Requirements for mass, power and volume

<b>Mass, Power &amp; Volume Budget</b>	
Optical Head	<5 kg
Inside vault	<1 kg
Max cable length between optical head and electronics	2 m
Power	<50 W

The Lidar sensor features two operation modes: the Altimetry Mode, and the Hazard Detection Mode.

## 1.1 Altimetry Mode

Altimetry Mode is the first phase of the landing. During the Altimetry Mode, the Lidar sensor has to provide the altitude of the sensor in relationship to the surface of Europa. The requirements for the Altimetry Mode are listed in table 3

Table 3: Requirements for Altimetry Mode

<b>Altimetry Mode</b>	Threshold	Goal
Max acquisition Slant Range	5 km	8 km
Range Accuracy (3-sigma)	1%	0.10%
Update Rate	0.1 Hz	1 Hz

## 1.2 Hazard Detection Mode

During the Hazard Detection Mode a 3d map of the surface of Europa must be created around the landing place. The Hazard Mode is operational when the sensor is close enough to the surface of Europa. The requirements for the Hazard Detection Mode can be found in table 4

Table 4: Requirements for Hazard Detection Mode

<b>Hazard Detection Mode</b>	Threshold	Goal
Max range (altitude)	400 m	500 m
Min Operational Range (altitude)	5 m	1 m
Range Accuracy (3-sigma on final 3D map)	10 cm	5 cm
Ground Sample Distance (per pixel on 3D map)	10 cm	5 cm
Ground Area Coverage at max altitude	100 m x 100 m	125 m x 125 m
Time for 3D map creation	1 s	1 s

## 2 System engineering level design

In this section a system engineering level design is constructed that meets the performance requirements stated in section 1. Section 2.1 shall provide an overview of the system, section 2.2 shall list the assumptions made, and section 2.3 shall elaborate on trade-offs and design decisions.

### 2.1 Overview

A schematic overview of the sensor is shown in fig. 1.

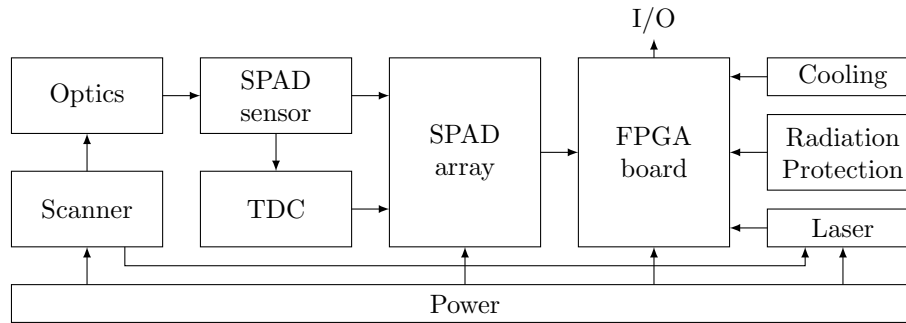


Figure 1: Schematic overview

**Laser:** The laser must send short pulses but powerful pulses at a predefined frequency, to transmit photons that can be detected by the SPAD Sensor. A critical requirement for the laser is the amount of photons it is able to transmit as a function of time, within the budget and technical limitations.

**SPAD Sensor:** The Single Photon Avalanche Diode (SPAD) is responsible for generating a digital pulse when hit by a photon. A circuit build around the SPAD must ensure that the SPAD is quenched as quickly as possible to minimize the deadline. A critical requirement for the SPAD is a small jitter to maximize the accuracy of the sensor.

**TDC:** The Time Interval to Digital Converter (TDC) is connected to the laser and the SPAD Sensor. The TDC must measure the time difference between the transmission of the laser and the receiving at the SPAD sensor. This measurement requires an accuracy of tens of picoseconds to meet the accuracy requirements.

**Scanner:** The scanner handles the scanning motion that is needed to accumulate the entire picture. Different scanning motions can introduce undesired jitter and heavily influence the amount of SPAD Sensors that are needed on the SPAD Array.

**SPAD Array:** The SPAD Array integrates the SPAD Sensors on a chip and connects them to the TDC's. The layout of the SPAD Array is closely related to the scanning motion that is used in the scanner.

**Optics:** The optics must transfer as much of the incoming photons as possible to the sensitive area on the SPAD Sensors. The Optics part also implements a bandpass filter around the target frequency.

**FPGA Board:** The FPGA Board controls the sensor. It is responsible for accumulating and interpreting the measurements from the TDC's, and controlling the Scanner and Laser.

**Cooling:** The cooling has to keep the temperature of the FPGA chip under a threshold temperature.

**Radiation Protection:** The Radiation Protection shields sensitive parts of the sensor from radiation. The most sensitive part of the system is expected to be the FPGA Board, based on experience.

**Power:** The power block has to supply the scanner, SPAD Array, FPGA Board, and the laser with the required power. The power block has to operate within the specified power budget.

## 2.2 Assumptions

This section will list the assumption that are made throughout the design.

**Reflectivity of surface Europa:** It is assumed that out of all light that hit's Europa, 35% is reflected in a perfectly diffuse manner. The rest of the light is either reflected in a specular way that will not hit the sensor, or absorbed by the ice on the surface of Europa. This assumption is made in order to avoid the added complexity when using a more elaborate model.

**Wavelength laser:** The wavelength of light emitted by the laser is assumed to be  $850\text{ nm}$ . This wavelength is a typical choice for Silicon SPAD's.

**Bandpass filter:** A bandpass filter will be used to filter background noise. This filter is assumed to be a bandpass filter with a center frequency of  $850\text{ nm}$  and a FWHM of  $10\text{ nm}$ . The minimum transmission of the filter is 50%. These values are directly taken from the "850nm, 10nm FWHM, 12.5mm Mounted Diameter" product made by Edmund Optics and sold for 76 dollar.

**Jitter of SPAD Sensor:** The jitter of the SPAD Sensor, or Full Width Half Max (FWHM) is assumed to be  $100\text{ ps}$ . This value is a typical FWHM for state of the art Silicon SPAD's.

**Jitter of TDC:** The jitter of the TDC's is assumed to be insignificant when compared to the jitter of  $100\text{ ps}$  caused by the SPAD Sensors. Experience with previous designs show that TDC jitter is generally a very small contributor to overall jitter.

**Accuracy of TDC:** The accuracy of the TDC is assumed to be  $50\text{ ps}$ , and therefore well within the accuracy requirements. The accuracy should be  $5\text{ cm}$ . Using eq. (1), the desired accuracy is  $167\text{ ps}$ .

$$t = \frac{2x}{c} \quad (1)$$

where  $x$  is the accuracy in distance, and  $c \approx 3 \cdot 10^8$  the speed of light. The factor two is present

**Sunlight:** It is assumed that the light from the sun that is reflected of Europa is the only significant contributor to background noise. No other sources of light will be considered.

A second assumption about sunlight is that the irradiance of sunlight on Earth at  $850\text{ nm}$  is  $E_e = 1\text{ W/m}^2/\text{nm}$ .

**Effective area on chip:** It is assumed that 5% of the SPAD Array can be used to receive photons. This assumption is based on current gen Silicon SPAD's.

What should I choose here? Swisspad or LinoSPAD? (confused)

**Signal to Background Noise Ratio:** It is assumed that a Signal to Background Noise Ratio (SBNR) of 0 dB will be sufficient for the sensor. This value is based on previous research on Silicon SPADs.

## 2.3 Trade-offs and Methodology

This section will list the trade-offs that can be found in the system. Each trade-off will be analysed, and based on that, a decision will be made.

### 2.3.1 High Frequency vs Low Frequency pulses

The pulse frequency is limited by the roundtrip time of the transmitted photons. The roundtrip time can be calculated using eq. (2)

$$t_{round} = \frac{2r}{c} \quad (2)$$

where  $c \approx 3 \cdot 10^8$  is the speed of light, and  $r$  the altitude of the sensor. The maximum pulse frequency can then be calculated using eq. (3)

$$f_{pulse} = \frac{1}{t_{round}} = \frac{c}{2r} \quad (3)$$

The maximum altitude are different for the Altimetry and Hazard Detection mode. The maximum pulse frequency of both modes is shown in table 5.

Table 5: Pulse frequency for both modes

<b>Pulse Frequency</b>	Altimetry	Hazard Detection
Maximum altitude	8 km	500 m
Roundtrip time	53.3 $\mu s$	3.33 $\mu s$
Pulse frequency	18.75 kHz	300 kHz

insert chirping and frequency hopping

### 2.3.2 Background Noise

For the background noise, it is assumed that the sun is the dominant source. The sun is modelled as an ideal black body. The spectral irradiance of the sun can be calculated using eq. (4).

$$I_{\lambda}(\lambda, T) = \frac{2hc^3}{\lambda^5} \frac{1}{e^{\frac{hc}{\lambda kT}} - 1} \quad (4)$$

where  $I_{\lambda}(v, t)$  is spectral irradiance with unit  $W/m^3$ .

$h$  is the planck constant

$c$  is the speed of light in vacuum

$k$  is the Boltzman constant

$\lambda$  is the wavelength of the electromagnetic radiation

$T$  is the absolute temperature of the body

The spectral irradiance of the sun is calculated in table 6.

Table 6: Calculation of sun irradiation

<b>Sun irradiation</b>		
$h$	$6.63 \cdot 10^{-34}$	$J \cdot s$
$c$	$3.00 \cdot 10^8$	$m/s$
$k$	13.8	$\mu j/K$
$\lambda$	850	$nm$
$T$	5780	$K$
$I_{\lambda}$	$5.47 \cdot 10^{19}$	$W/m^3$

The next step is to calculate the power emitted by the sun in the specified bandwidth, at the location of Europa. This is done by modelling sun as a point source, and then spreading that power over a sphere with a radius equal to the distance between the sun and Europa, as is done in eq. (5).

$$P_{sun} = I_{sun} B_{\lambda} \frac{r_{sun}^2}{r_{europa}^2} \quad (5)$$

where  $I_{sun}$  is the spectral irradiance of the sun at the center frequency of the filter,  $B_{\lambda}$  is the bandwidth of the filter in meters,  $r_{sun}$  the of radius of the sun, and  $r_{europa}$  the distance between Europa and the sun. The effective radiance of the background noise at Europa is calculated in ?? using eq. (5).

Table 7: Effective Irradiation

<b>effective radiance sun</b>		
$I_{\lambda}$	$5.47 \cdot 10^{19}$	$W/m^3$
$B_{\lambda}$	10	$nm$
$r_{sun}$	695.7	$km$
$r_{europa}$	$8 \cdot 10^8$	$km$
$P_{sun}$	0.413	$W/m^2$

### 2.3.3 Optics

The receiver optics guide the photons that arrive at the device. The main task of the receiver optics is to lose as little incoming photons as possible.

The most basic approach is a single lens with an aperture. Loss of photons is determined by the absorption of the lens, the f-number (size of the aperture), and active area on the chip. The active area on the chip, the percentage that can receive light, is assumed to be  $\approx 5\%$ .

The performance of a possible configuration is shown in table 8

Table 8: Parameters for a basic optical system

<b>Basic Optics</b>	
f-number	2
absorption	0.05
active area on chip	0.05
effective opacity	0.011875

### Improvements

There are a couple of additions that can improve the performance of the optics. The performance of the optics is most affected by the active area on the chip, so in order to improve that, one can use microlenses. Microlenses focus light on a small area on the chip, and one is needed for every SPAD. Two types of microlenses will be considered: a spherical lens, and a square shaped lens. The presence of microlenses poses a limitation of the main lens. The f-number must be 8 or higher. A higher f-number means a smaller aperture and therefore more loss of energy. A way of dealing with this problem is to use a second lens instead. An overview of the available options is shown in fig. 2



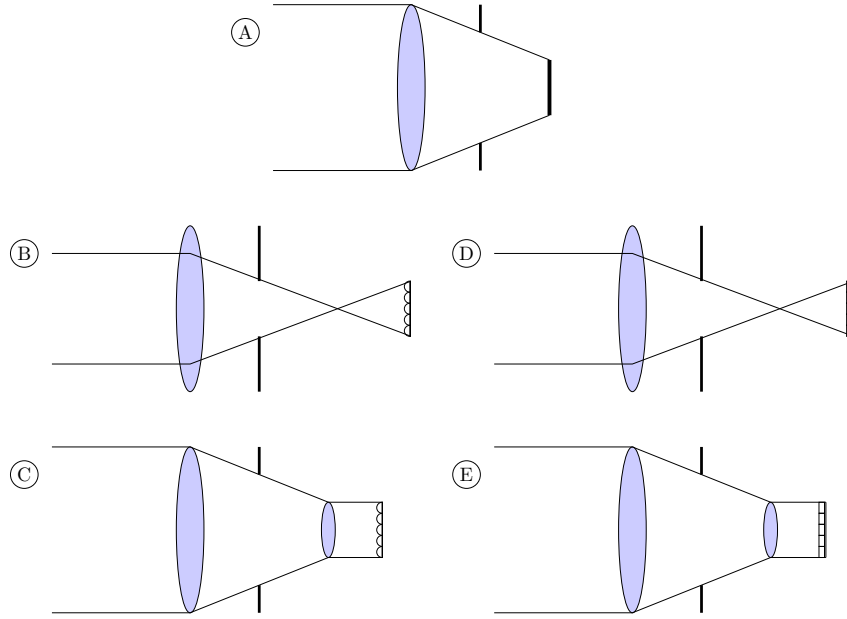


Figure 2: Overview of possible receiver optics implementations

A comparison between the different options is shown in table 9

Table 9: comparison of different optics solutions

Type	A	B	C	D	E
absorption 1 <sup>st</sup> lens	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05
f-number	2	8	2	8	2
absorption 2 <sup>nd</sup> lens	0	0	0.05	0	0.05
active area on chip	0.05	0.55	0.55	0.65	0.65
effective opacity	0.011875	0.008164	0.124094	0.009648	0.146656

The comparison in table 9 shows that type **E** is the best option. This is the version with square microlenses, and a second lens to increase the maximum allowable aperture.

### 2.3.4 SPAD Array and Scanning Motion

The specifications state the dimensions and resolution of the image. The specifications are provided in table 10.

Table 10: Properties of ground image

image properties	
ground area coverage	15625 $m^2$
ground sample distance	0.05 $m$
total amount of pixels	6250000

### Basic approach

The most straightforward pixel layout, is one where every pixel is represented by a single SPAD. The size of a SPAD with a quenching circuit is between  $24 \times 24 \mu m^2$  and  $16 \times 16 \mu m^2$ . This results in a chip size between  $6.144 \times 6.144 cm^2$  and  $4.096 \times 4.096 cm^2$ , which is very large for a chip. This

also only accounts for the SPAD and the electronics. The TDC's and other components need to be put elsewhere. The system is also inefficient, because only a limited number of transmitted photons arrives at the SPAD's, the SPAD's are mostly idle, or receiving background noise.

### Scanning

To tackle this issue one can use scanning. Here a SPAD is responsible for multiple pixels. This has a couple of advantages. First of all, the idle time of the SPAD's goes down, which means that the SNR goes up. Second, the chip size can be a lot smaller. A clear negative is that a scanning motion must be made. Two types of scanning will be considered. The first one is a line of SPAD's, and the second one a square of SPAD's.

### Horizontal Line layout

In the horizontal line layout each SPAD is responsible for every point on a vertical line. The width of the chip remains the same at approximately 4-6 *cm*, but the length is a lot shorter which besides production costs, leaves room for on board TDC's, that are directly attached to the SPAD's. The Laser must be configured to send out a line, and the system must be capable of performing a vertical scanning motion. Also the lens must be configured to concentrate the incoming information on a line instead of a more square shaped form. The main problem of the scanning motion is that it should vary based on the altitude. This could cause uncertainty problems, especially at large speeds.

### Square Layout

The second alternative uses the same approach as the basic approach, but now with less SPAD's. The ground image is divided into blocks that are scanned consecutively. The scanning motion is more complicated than both the basic, and horizontal line layout, but the main advantage is that the amount of SPAD's are free to choose for the designer.

### Comparison

The first design with a SPAD for every pixel is not feasible. The size of the resulting chip would be too large, even in the most optimistic case, and the advantages for this design are mostly limited to the absence of the scanning motion. The Square layout is a better alternative in terms of chip design and efficiency, but the scanning motion is very complex, using two axes, and causes a lot of extra jitter on the signal. The Horizontal Line Layout is the most promising layout of the three designs. It uses only one axis, which is the most reasonable of the two scanning motions, and also has the advantage of a smaller and more efficient chip design.

#### 2.3.5 Laser

The laser is responsible for the photons that are used for the Time of Flight (ToF) measurement. The laser has to ensure that the Signal to Background Noise Ratio (SBNR) is at most 0 dB. The power budget of the entire system is 50 *W*, which is the main bottleneck for the performance of the laser. The wavelength of the laser is 850 *nm*. The energy of a single photon can be calculated using eq. (6).

$$E = \frac{hc}{\lambda} \quad (6)$$

The  $P_B$  is already calculated in section 2.3.2, and is  $P_B = P_{\text{Europa}} = 0.971 \text{ W/m}^2$ . In order to achieve an SNR of 0 dB, the signal power  $P_S$  must therefore at least match the background noise power that hits the surface of Europa. One can calculate the signal power at the optics using eq. (7).

$$P_S = P_{pulse} \cdot f_{pulse} \cdot R_{Europa} \quad (7)$$

where  $P_{pulse}$  is the power of a single pulse of the laser,  $f_{pulse}$  the frequency at which the pulses are transmitted,  $R_{Europa}$  the reflectivity of Europa, and  $r$  the altitude from the sensor to the surface of Europa. The SBNR can then be calculated using eq. (8).

$$SBNR = \frac{P_S}{P_B} \quad (8)$$

the power of a single pulse can be calculated by combining eq. (7) and eq. (8) into ???. This is done in table 11.

$$P_{pulse} = \frac{P_B \cdot SBNR}{f_{pulse} \cdot R_{Europa}} \quad (9)$$

Table 11: Power of a laser pulse

power of a laser pulse		
$R_{Europa}$	0.35	
$P_B$	0.413	$W/m^2$
ground area coverage	15625	$m^2$
$SBNR$	0	$dB$
$f_{pulse}$	18750	$Hz$
$P_{pulse}$	0.3441	$W$

The required power of  $P_{pulse}$  is well within the power envelope of 50 W. The next step is to calculate the required peak power  $p_{peak}$  of the laser, using eq. (10)

$$P_{peak} = \frac{P_{pulse}}{t_{pulse} \cdot f_{pulse}} \quad (10)$$

where  $P_{peak}$  is the peak power and  $t_{pulse}$  the FWHM of a pulse.

Using a typical pulse width of  $t_{pulse} = 100 \text{ ns}$  and the  $f_{pulse}$  as calculated in section 2.3.1 one gets the results shown in table 12.

Table 12: Peak power calculation

Peak laser power		
$P_{pulse}$	0.3441	$W$
$t_{pulse}$	$1.00 \cdot 10^{-7}$	$s$
$f_{pulse}$	18750	$Hz$
$P_{peak}$	184	$W$

The calculated power of  $P_{peak} = 432 \text{ W}$  is significantly more than the power envelope of 50 W. In order to fit within the envelope there are two possible solutions. The first one is to charge a capacitance in the idle time between pulses, and use that capacitance to power the laser. This effectively increases the  $t_{pulse}$  for the power consumption.

The second solution is to increase the pulse frequency using the chirping technique discussed in section 2.3.1.