A Technique for Two-Dimensional Photoelectronic Astronomical Imaging, With an Application to Lunar Spectral Reflectivity Studies

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ABSTRACT

An improved silicon vidicon photometer system, based upon the prototype by McCord and Westphal (1972a) was designed and constructed. An observing program was planned and carried out to test the system, and extensive software development was undertaken to handle the data. The Apollo 17 landing site and neighboring areas of the lunar surface were investigated at four wavelengths in the visible and near infrared. Data are presented and discussed. Suggestions for further development of the system and further applications to lunar reflectivity are presented.

Thesis Supervisor:Thomas B. McCordTitle:Associate Professor of Planetary Physics

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The development of a modern astronicaml data system is a project of such complexity that it cannot be done with reasonable efficiency by Thus this thesis, which is a report on one phase of the one person. development of such a system, is in effect a project report. The author was directly involved in every stage of the project, and served as project director. However, several people deserve credit for their contributions to specific parts of the development effort: Mr. George Silvis of the M.I.T. Planetary Astronomy Laboratory (MITPAL) did a great deal of work on the mechanical design and fabrication of the Mr. John Luzwick of M.I.T. Lincoln Laboratory provided camera head. Mr. Paul Kinnucan of MITPAL was of valuable engineering assistance. great help in the development of the data processing system. Finally. a particular debt is due Mr. Jeff Bosel of MITPAL, whose electronics skill and trouble shooting ability were as valuable as his strong back.

The pictures used in this thesis were produced by the Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology, through the courtesy of Dr. A. F. H. Goetz and Mr. John Morecroft.

I would like to thank Professor James A. Westphal of the California Institute of Technology, and my advisor, Professor Thomas B. McCord, for encouraging me to become involved with the vidicon system at one of its earliest stages; it has been a very interesting and educational association. In particular, Professor McCord served not only as advisor to me and to the project, but also as a dedicated participant

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in many stages of the project.

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My wife Marty provided the requisite moral support; in addition, her ability to type from my handwriting is probably unique, as well as invaluable.

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Chapter I -- Introduction

Many problems of interest in astronomy involve observations of extended sources; examples include galaxies, nebulae, and star clusters, as well as the sun, the moon, and the planets. Photography has been the standard method of recording astronomical images since it replaced hand drawing over a century ago. It has recently been shown, however, (McCord and Westphal 1972b) that a silicon diode array (SID) vidicon tube can be used as a replacement for the photographic process in a variety of astronomical applications. This project is a continuation of the development of this technique into a useful and efficient astronomical tool.

Although photography has been an effective recording technique, it suffers many disadvantages in some types of astronomical work. In particular, photometry using photographs is a difficult task. It is necessary to know both the gamma curve and the spectral response of the process, and to make use of instruments such as microdensitometers in order to determine the exact light level recorded on the plate or film. Comparing two or more pictures is often a difficult task. In addition, the time between the recording of an image and when it has been processed in order to view it is sometimes quite long. This can cut observing efficiency significantly.

There are obviously many advantages to using an electronic image recording system in place of a photographic one. The development of

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the SID tube (Crowell and Labuda, 1971) made possible the design and construction of a potentially very accurate and flexible two-dimensional photometry system. McCord and Westphal (1972b) showed that by cooling the tube, exposures of several hours are possible; combined with the tube's linearity, dynamic range, spectral response, and compactness, this makes for a usable two-dimensional photometer.

Based on the developers' and the author's experience with the prototype system, it was decided to carry out a project to further test the efficacy of the vidicon photometer. The first step was to redesign the system, particularly in those areas which were most inefficient. In addition, observing procedures were refined in conjunction with the operational improvements in the system. These areas are discussed in detail in Chapter II.

In order to handle the large number of pictures expected from the system -- more than 100 a night is not unusual -- a data processing system had to be developed. A major part of the project was devoted to making this system as simple to use as possible, while retaining the flexibility needed to accommodate a new data-gathering system. The data processing is detailed in Chapter III.

Finally, an observing program was planned and carried out as a test of the hardware and software. For this purpose, the spectral reflectivity of a portion of the lunar surface was chosen as a typical problem. It has been shown over the past several years that there are small (<10%) but significant differences in the spectral reflectance (color) curves of different areas of the moon (see McCord, <u>et al.</u>, 1972) for a review of such work), and that these differences can be related to differences in mineralogy (Adams and McCord, 1970, 1971).

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However, because of the nature of current photoelectric photometry, these data have to be gathered at one point at a time, the size of such a "point" varying from five to twenty km depending on telescope It would therefore be size, aperture size, and seeing conditions. extremely useful to be able to obtain data of this type over a twodimensional area, both to determine large-scale reflectivity differences and to pinpoint areas which require further study. This type of study has been done by photographic and photoelectric methods; McCord (1968) extensively reviewed studies through 1967 and Soderblom (1970) used photoelectric photometry to map color differences. In addition, Apollo multi-spectral photography has provided some large-scale color The vidicon photometer data, on information (Goetz, et al., 1971). the other hand, are produced as picture element (pixel) numbers immediately upon readout; photographs are not used directly in the data processing, but only as a display during several of the steps, or as one form of final data presentation.

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Chapter II -- The System

An RCA 4532A vidicon tube was used as the sensor. The quantum efficiency of the target (fig 1) ranges from a peak of 80% at $\lambda = .55\mu$ to 6% at $\lambda = 1.1\mu$, the longest wave length normally used in the system. Response in the near ultraviolet falls off primarily because of the anti-reflection coating on the target. The manufacturer's curve of MTF is reproduced in fig. 2. The particular tube used had no defects in the target large enough to cause visible effects.

The system used for this project was based on the prototype system mentioned above which has been fully described in the literature (McCord and Westphal, 1972b). Briefly, the prototype consisted of a simple dry-ice container, in which the tube and focus/deflection coil assembly were cooled, a mechanical shutter and a manually-rotatable filter wheel for basic photometry, electronics for controlling electron beam scanning and digitization and recording of data, and a cable connecting the cold box/photometer head unit with the electronics rack assembly. This system was inefficient in many ways and it was decided to redesign it and to construct a new system.

The system as used for these observations is shown schematically in fig. 3. The control logic and deflection generators are basically unchanged from the first system, except for the changes necessitated by the use of a different coil assembly. In addition, the video signal is now filtered above 10 kHz by a simple RC circuit at the input to the A/D converter in order to avoid aliasing problems with the

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Figure 1 Target Quantum Efficiency

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Figure 2 Target Modulation Transfer Function



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20 kHz sampling frequency. The A/D converter is a 0-10 volt 10-bit unit, of which the middle eight bits are used. This allows each pixel to be recorded as one word on the 9-track magnetic tape with a resolution of 256 gray levels of about 19.5 mV each. In order to avoid ambiguity, the signal range is limited to less than five volts By recording an unexposed, or "dark", field immediately peak-peak. after the picture is read off the target, correction .can be made for short-term drift in the preamplifier bias, thereby yielding a value between 0-5 volts which is digitized to a value in the range 0-255 for Inasmuch as the system noise, in this case due to the each pixel. preamplifier, is about 10 mV peak-peak, the noise in the digitized picture is limited by the $\pm 1/2$ LSB digitization noise.

A major addition to the system was a Hughes scan converter unit, which consists of a storage tube and electronics which write an image onto the tube at the system's 3.3 second frame rate, and then read it off continuously at standard television rate into a 9" monitor. The scan converter provides an overall qualitative display of the data that have been recorded, which, in conjunction with a quantitative display on the oscilloscope monitoring the video signal, provides very effective feedback to the observer about the quality of the picture he is obtaining. This addition to the system can increase the observing efficiency many times by allowing the observer to retake bad pictures or avoid taking redundant pictures.

The main change in the system is in the camera head assembly, which includes all the equipment mounted on the telescope itself.

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One major problem with the original system was the fact that the coldbox was merely a container in which dry ice was physically packed around the tube/coil assembly. In addition to the poor insulation of this device, the open assembly of the can allowed the faceplate of the tube to become fogged with water condensing onto the cold glass. In order to eliminate these problems, a standard photomultiplier-tube dry ice dewar was modified to hold the vidicon assembly. Thus the tube sits in a dry nitrogen atmosphere which is cooled by dry ice packed around the sealed N, container; the entire assembly is insulated by an outer vacuum chamber. The light beam enters the cold box through a sapphire window, which is heated to prevent condensation. The tube and coil assembly are connected to the main cable through an hermetically sealed connector. The video signal is fed from the tube target electrode through a coaxial cable to the preamplifier, which is mounted on the cradle holding the dewar; this cable is also sealed at the point where it enters the cold box in order to retain the integrity of the nitrogen chamber.

A 1 cm² black mask was placed on the faceplate of the tube to provide a reference for the initial setup of the system; it also acts as an aspect ratio scale in the data, as described in Chapter III.

The photometer functions of the camera were designed to make use by only one observer as easy as possible. A schematic is shown in fig. 4; the design in use is usable at any focal ratio up to f/3 without vignetting the 1 cm mask. Directly in front of the coldbox window is a wheel carrying 1-inch-diameter interference filters. The wheel is driven by a stepping motor (one step = 1.8°, 4-200 steps/

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second) which can be mounted to accommodate either a 25- or 33-hole filter wheel. A small hole is drilled at a known spot on the filter wheel and is used with a lightbulb/phototransistor system to detect a "home" position of the filter wheel. The observer can control the motion of the filter wheel from the panel; he can increment the wheel to the next filter in either direction, or move it to the home filter at any time. In this manner, it is possible to use any set or subset of filters in any order, with minimum waste of time.

In front of the filter wheel is a 2.5-inch-aperture Compur self-cocking electronic shutter. The control box for the shutter is attached to the dewar mount; it is controlled by a shutter timer in the electronics rack. The observer can time exposures from 0.01 seconds to 99.9 minutes by adjusting front-panel switches, or he can manually control the shutter's operation. This is a great improvement over the prototype system, which normally required a second observer to operate the camera shutter mechanism manually at the telescope. In addition, the shutter incorporates a continuously-adjustable iris diaphragm, which is useful as a light baffle when scattered light in the telescope tube is a problem.

Between the mounting ring and the shutter, a large (4" x 6") 45° mirror is fixed in place; an oval portion of the mirror, large enough to pass the image beam, is cut out and mounted to a motor, allowing the cutout to be moved into or out of the beam path. A movable eyepiece is mounted above the mirror, cofocal with the tube target, to allow viewing of the object for focusing when the center

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mirror is up, or offset guiding for long exposures.

In operation, the procedure is as follows: the desired filter is placed in the beam path, and the exposure is determined from trial and error or previous pictures; the correct exposure will give a video signal of five volts peak-peak on the oscilloscope. The scan converter is used to check placement, guiding, and focus. The tube is then erased and the shutter timer started. When the exposure is finished (monitored by a panel light), the tube target is read out simultaneously to the scan converter and to the A/D convertter and magnetic tape drive. The tube is erased, and a dark field is immediately recorded to correct for preamplifier bias as mentioned above. This is the sequence for each picture.

In order to correct for variable sensitivity across the tube target, it is necessary to record a uniform or "flat" field. It has been found that the best way to do this is to look at a portion of the daytime sky with the vidicon mounted normally on the telescope. In addition to providing a very uniform illumination across the field, this method has the advantage of using the same optical system as the data pictures, allowing such problems as dirt or scratches on the filter, et cetera, to be eliminated. In practice, flat fields are taken of the bright sky in the evening and/or morning of each observing night through each filter used.

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Chapter III -- Data Reduction

Compared to standard photoelectric photometry, the vidicon photometer produces a very large amount of data. Each picture consists of 256 lines of 256 pixels each. Each pixel is represented by an eight-bit character on the magnetic tape. As was noted above, it is not difficult to take over one hundred pictures per night; one thousand per telescope run is not uncommon. Data reduction is done on the M.I.T. Laboratory for Nuclear Science IBM 360/65 computer, which, with less than 40,000 words of memory, puts many restrictions upon the software. A method had to be developed which provided a good compromise between efficiency and flexibility of operation.

The software system developed for this project combines the use of magnetic tapes as long-term storage, with disk packs for online use. Each disk holds approximately ninety frames of data, and all software which operates on the pictures uses data from the disk. The system incorporates functions which have been found to be necessary for standard processing, as well as special functions for odd-format or incorrectly-taken pictures. Also, any frame can be processed by a procedure written for a specific purpose, merely by including it as part of the input.

An example of raw data as it is read off the vidicon tube is shown in fig. 5. The mask on the vidicon can be seen fairly clearly, illuminated by the lunar scene being imaged. The structure along the edge of the picture is due to the "ringing" of the horizontal

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Figure 6 Dark Field

deflection coil immediately after flyback; the scan is adjusted to move the masked area out of the zone of the ringing effect. The horizontal lines are due to the stopping of the scan every sixteen lines while the tape recorder, which is clocking the scan electronics, is writing a record gap to separate data blocks. The circular structure evident in the picture is due to electrons scattered from the ring holding the target in place in the tube. It has been subsequently determined that this effect can be largely eliminated by lowering the electron beam current. The small dark spot within the mask is a bright crater which caused the video level to go above 5 V. However, as long as the peak-peak voltage in the picture does not exceed 5 V the information can be recovered.

Fig. 6 is a dark field taken immediately after the tube was erased of the preceding picture. This picture is at approximately the same bias level in the preamplifier, so that it can be subtracted from the data to yield a standard picture as described in Chapter II. This result is shown in fig. 7. At this time, the portion of the field outside the mask is set to 0.

As was discussed previously, each picture is corrected for differential sensitivity across the target through the use of a flat field. This frame also has the bias removed and the borders cleared. The flat field is then scaled in such a manner as to set the intensity at the center of the field equal to 1.00. Since the data of interest in the field are relative rather than absolute, this "normalization" makes the picture easier to handle without sacrificing data. An

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Figure 7 Dark field subtracted from raw data



Figure 8 Normalized flat field

example of a normalized flat field is shown in fig. 8.

The final step in the basic processing procedure is the division of a data frame by the appropriate normalized flat field. This "corrected picture" is the basis for all further processing; each frame used is processed in the same way up to this point. The corrected example frame is shown in fig. 9. The printed numbers for a portion of this picture are followed through the processing in fig. 10.

Several additional steps suggest themselves as pieces of the basic processing system; they were not used for various reasons. Removal of low-level periodic noise through Fourier processing is a possibility; however, as has been noted, the digitization does not extend into the noise region where such a process would be useful. A system is currently being designed which will use a 12- or 14-bit A/D converter; with this system, extending the useful range of the data will be possible through the use of sophisticated noise-process-Aspect ratio correction is another possibility. Using programs. ing the mask, which is known to be square to an accuracy of better than 0.1%, it is possible to adjust scan controls in the hardware to give the correct ratio, or to measure this ratio from the appearance of the mask in the data and to correct by computer. The latter process was used to determine that the aspect ratio in the data under consideration is approximately 17:18, and it was decided that correction at this level was not significant. Finally, it should be possible to correct for geometric distortion caused by the scanning of the electron beam and other factors. This has been measured in the

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Figure 9 Example of corrected picture

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laboratory where it was determined that such distortion was small to undetectable at the current resolution. Therefore this correction, too, was unnecessary.

In order to obtain the results needed for the project, it was necessary to devise an algorithm to divide two pictures. This procedure, which is simple in theory, was complicated by the severe storage limitation in the software system which necessitated the use of only 8-bit integers for storage. Nevertheless, a routine was developed which can divide any portion of any two pictures, and enhance the ratio obtained for easier visual display of the data, if desired. In addition, the actual ratios can be written onto a tape for use in programs which are not restricted to the integer format. An example is shown in figs. 11, 12 and 13. Fig. 11 chows the corrected figure previously seen and a similar one, taken at a different wave-length. It is clear that it is necessary to translate one picture so as to move the features into registration with the same features on the second picture. This is done by determining the brightest point on both pictures and assuming that they are the images of the same point. This was done by looking at the numerical printouts in the current case, although it could be done just as easily by the computer. This method is most easily used on a picture of the type illustrated, which shows sharp contrasting details. If the details are blurred or of low contrast, the method becomes more difficult, as with some of the data presented in Chapter IV. In the extreme case, it becomes

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Figure 11a Numerator picture



Figure 11b Denominator picture

Figure 11c

Numerator frame. Contours at every 10 data number level. Higher numbers indicate brighter areas.



Figure 11d





CASS. 904



Figure 12 Ratio picture



Figure 13 Ratio picture enhanced

necessary to determine the overlay either completely by eye or through the use of very sophisticated computer programs.

Although it is easy and generally sufficient to translate a picture in order to overlay it on another one, a rotation is sometimes also necessary. This type of correction, which is conceptually trivial, gives rise to distortion when performed on the discrete matrix produced by the vidicon, if interpolation is to be avoided. In this project, rotation was a concern only in pictures taken at the Coudé focus of the telescope; for reasons discussed in Chapter IV, such rotations of the data were ignored.

Fig. 12 shows the ratio of the two pictures in fig. 11. Each pixel in the ratio picture represents the element at the same coordinates in the numerator, divided by the appropriate element in the denominator, which has been translated to match features. This result is then In processing fig. 12 and other multiplied by a scaling factor. ratios in this work, the scaling factor was determined by giving the computer an arbitrary point in the ratio picture and defining that point In the picture, a light area represents an area where the as 1.0. numerator is brighter than the denominator, relative to the point where the brightnesses are defined as being equal; a dark area, accordingly, represents the denominator brighter than the numerator. It is seen that shifting the scaling factor, either by setting the normalization point value equal to something other than 1.0, or by choosing a different point, will change only the gray level representation of the

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ratio; the features will be the same. In other words, the isophots will remain constant and only their numerical values will change.

An enhanced version of the ratio is shown in fig. 13. The enhancement process multiplies numbers greater than 1.0 by a constant factor and divides numbers less than 1.0 by the same factor. The ratios are then converted to the 0-255 representation used in producing the pictorial display in such a manner that ratios which were near 1.0 are fully enhanced, at the expense of those ratios which were either The enhancement factor in fig. 13 is 1.25. very large or very small. The contrast is obviously enhanced in the areas which were close to 1.0, or halfway between black and white in the original ratio, while very bright or very dark areas are basically unchanged. Note that the horizontal structure caused by the record gaps is still somewhat If this effect is not completely removed by subtracting visible. the bias frame, then dividing two frames tends to enhance it. As the image moves within the frame from one picture to the next, it must be registered, while the horizontal lines, which are constant with respect to the sampling raster, are offset and show up in the ratio.

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Chapter IV -- Observations

As mentioned in Chapter I, many studies have shown that differences in spectral reflectivity of areas of the lunar surface in the visible and near infrared regions can indicate significant mineralogical differences. Relative reflectivities in particular are very sensitive indicators of such differences; in addition, ages of surface features can be inferred from the shapes of the relative curves (McCord, <u>et al.</u>, 1972). It is clear that accurate two-dimensional reflectivity studies can be of great importance both in obtaining data in unmeasured areas and in suggesting areas where further intensive observations would be of the greatest value.

The filter photometry in the previous works has produced accurate curves in the $0.3-1.1\mu$ range through the use of over twenty filters. Such a procedure takes a significant amount of observing time for each area measured. While the vidicon photometer can make a measurement through the same filter in less time due to its higher sensitivity, it is in fact simultaneously measuring tens of thousands To repeat this procedure for two dozen filters of discrete spots. is possible, but the amount of data that would have to be handled would be overwhelming; displaying it all simultaneously would require a four-dimensional plot or picture. Therefore, the two-dimensional data is most efficiently used to map gross differences in the reflectivity curves, leaving intensive investigation to standard photometry. Dividing two pictures taken through any two different filters is a

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simple task; by carefully choosing from the set which pair of wavelengths to ratio, a number of different effects can be investigated. One of the advantages of the vidicon photometer for this kind of work is its standard, easily-handled output format. Another is the fact that dividing two pictures taken with the same instrument eliminates many effects that must be considered when dealing with two photographs, especially if different photographic emulsions are used, as in the blue and infrared. Additionally, the vidicon is more sensitive and potentially more accurate than photographic processes.

The site chosen for observations intended to test the system was the Mare Serenitatis/Littrow area, which includes the Apollo 17 Data were taken on the nights of landing site (see figs. 14-15). April 24-28, 1972, on the 84-inch telescope at Kitt Peak. The Coude focus was used on the first night; on subsequent nights the instrument was mounted at the Cassegrain focus. The Coude plate scale is 3 arcsec/mm and the Cassegrain scale is 12 arcsec/mm; with the vidicon scan set to about 180 samples across the 1-cm mask, the resolution limit is approximately 1/6 arcsec and 2/3 arcsec, or 1/4 km and 1 km respectively on the Littrow area of the moon. This resolution is, of course, theoretical; the seeing blur is the normal limitation. On the nights these data were obtained, the seeing was approximately 2 arcsec, so that the blurring is noticeable on the low resolution pictures and severe on the high resolution pictures.

Pictures were taken using four filters -- two in the visible, centered at 0.402 μ and 0.564 μ ($\Delta \mu$ = 0.03 μ), and two in the near infrared,

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Figure 15 Picture of Apollo 17 landing site and surrounding area, taken from Apollo 15 at 0.906 μ and 0.948 μ ($\Delta\mu$ = 0.05 μ). One set each of four Coudé and four Cassegrain pictures was chosen for use in this project. In addition, two extra Cassegrain pictures were used as a check of the system, to determine the repeatability of results. Ratios were made of the following pairs of wave lengths: 0.402 μ /0.906 μ ; 0.948 μ /0.564 μ ; and 0.948 μ /0.906 μ .

The low resolution pictures are shown in figs. 16-19. The pictures encompass an area from the crater Vitruvius northeastward to the bright crater Römer L and west into Mare Serenitatis. It can be seen that although exposures are slightly different, albedo features repeat in all pictures.

Fig. 20 is the 0.402/0.906 ratio. The point which has been set to 1.0 is marked on the picture; the same point is used as the normalization, or standard, point in all the Cassegrain ratios, and the color differences shown are therefore relative to that point. Fig. 20 shows the southwestern area to be bluer by about 30%, with a steep gradient northeastward. The blue bright crater appears in the upper right, surrounded by material which is redder than the standard area by about 30%.

The 0.906/0.948 ratio is displayed in fig. 21. As expected, the raio is fairly constant across the field, to within $\pm 10\%$. The 0.948/0.564 ratio in fig. 22 again shows the crater in the northeast corner to be bluer by about 30\% than the surrounding area, by as much as 40\%, indicating a higher albedo in the green than in the infrared.

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There is, however, an area in the center where the red is brighter by up to 20%. This is seen more clearly in the enhanced picture. In all ratios, the linear horizontal structure is introduced by the vidicon scanning system, rather than by any lunar features.

The high resolution Coudé pictures are shown in figs. 23-26. Because of the much smaller areas imaged in the pictures, the effects of seeing are much more evident; a 1 1/2 arcsec seeing blur encompasses Therefore, small features on the ratios an area of over 80 pixels. Because of the drift of are not necessarily of great significance. the image in the field between the taking of the two pictures, the ratios cover a correspondingly smaller area -- only those points which There is, in addition, a appear in both pictures can be divided. motion due to rotation of the image in the Coudé focus. However. because of the large spreading of areas in the picture, and because no two pictures which were divided were taken more than fifteen minutes apart, rotation of the images before overlaying was not done.

Figs. 27-29 are the three ratios of the Coudé pictures, with an enhancement of each. Again, there is a general cancellation of albedo features. Also, several features repeat, as expected, in the blue/red and red/green pictures. The 0.402/0.906 ratio shows a range of values from about 30% bluer to 20-25% redder than the standard area. The 0.948/0.564 ratio also shows less reflection in the infrared than in the visible, except for a few areas which are 10-15% brighter in the infrared than in the green, relative to the

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Figure 16 0.402 μ , 0.22 sec exposure



Figure 16 0.564µ, 0.08 sec exposure



Figure 18 0.906 μ , 0.12 sec exposure



Figure 19 0.948µ, 0.14 sec exposure



Figure 20a 0.402/0.906 ratio



Figure 20b 0.402/0.906 ratio enhanced

Figure 20C

In this and subsequent ratio contour plots, contour levels are at 10% intensity variation levels



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Figure 21b 0.906/0.948 ratio enhanced



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Figure 21c



Figure 22a 0.948/0.564 ratio



Figure 22b 0.948/0.564 ratio enhanced





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Figure 23 $0.402_{\mu},~7~sec~exposure$



Figure 24 0.564µ, 2 sec exposure







Figure 26 0.948µ, 3.5 sec exposure

standard. The 0.906/0.948 ratio again shows a cancellation generally within $\pm 10\%$.

In order to determine the accuracy to be inferred from the data, a second pair of Cassegrain pictures was used as a check (fig. 30). The ratio of these pictures, 0.402/0.906, is shown in fig. 31. A1though the 1.0 level is offset from that in the first ratio in fig. 20, the large-scale features are visible in both. Fig. 32 is the ratio of the two 0.906µ pictures. Although most of the parts fall within a range of $\pm 10\%$, there is a great deal of scattering within In addition, while the picture is generally featureless, that range. a few areas show low-contrast features. Finally, both 0.402/0.906 In this ratio, the points ratios are themselves divided in fig. 33. are again generally scattered within a ±10% range. It is clear in all of these pictures that the agreement is not perfect, yet the features are repeatable; in particular, there seems to be little or no indication of a systematic error in the ratios.

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Figure 27a 0.402/0.906 ratio



Figure 27b 0.402/0.906 ratio enhanced



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Figure 28a 0.948/0.564 ratio



Figure 28b 0.948/0.564 ratio enhanced



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Figure 29a 0.906/0.948 ratio



Figure 29b 0.906/0.948 ratio enhanced

Figure 29c

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Figure 30a 0.402 μ , 0.22 sec exposure



Figure 30b 0.906µ, 0.12 sec exposure



Figure 31a 0.402/0.906 ratio



Figure 31b 0.402/0.906 ratio enhanced

Figure 31c

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Figure 32c



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Figure 33a (0.402/0.906)/(0.402/0.906) ratio



Figure 33b (0.402/0.906)/(0.402/0.906) ratio enhanced



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Chapter V -- Conclusions

The pictures displayed in Chapter IV provide an example of the type of results that can be obtained with the vidicon photometer. The developments made in the hardware and software for this project have enabled a complete, if small, observing program to be carried out and run through the system. From the results thus obtained, further improvements can be made, and more data processed. This sequence can be continued indefinitely, but at some point the system should It is clear that this vidicon system start to produce useful data. is capable of doing so, although not at the precision ultimately at-Nevertheless, the technique presented here works well tainable. enough to make useful contributions to lunar spectral reflectivity work, as well as many other investigations.

Based primarily upon the data presented in this project, modifications to the hardware and observing procedures can be and are being made. Although the full explanation for the failure of pictures to repeat exactly is unknown, several problems have been diagnosed. The major problem in this data appears to be due to the incomplete erasure of the vidicon tube target before exposing the next image. Since the first scan of the target, which is recorded as the data frame, replaces only about 70-80% of the charge across the diodes, several more scans are necessary to ensure that the diodes are completely recharged prior to exposure. However, subsequent scans have less effect on the target charge than would be expected; the effect

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is also variable across the target and does not correlate well with any observed function. This is undoubtedly the major cause of the occasional large discrepancies in pictures that should match; additionally, it could cause smaller differences across a larger area. Since these data were taken, it has been found that priming the target by completely discharging the diodes before erasing results in a much more uniform erasure. Thus this effect, which in some cases is 10-15%, should be eliminated in future data. This would result in much better repeatability of results, and would bring the quantitative color differences obtained by this project closer to agreement with known data.

A second problem that has been observed is instability in the hardware. The problem with the preamplifier bias drift has been discussed, along with its temporary solution; a new design is expected to provide a more permanent cure. A more subtle effect is due primarily to the manner in which the tube is cooled. The dry ice is necessary to reduce the target temperature below the point where dark current is significant; at the same time, however, the focus and deflection coils, which physically surround the tube, carry constant and varying currents. Thus the coils tend to heat the cold box, and ice must be replaced considerably more often than is normal with a photomultiplier tube. This thermal instability, coupled with a longer-term instability in the high-power deflection amplifiers in the electronics rack, gives rise to a variation in the sampling raster itself. That is, the sampel in the data at a given set of matrix

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coordinates does not always correspond to the same physical point on the tube target, and therefore on the focal plane. Such raster shifts are nonlinear and can give rise to "ghost" images when two pictures of the same image are divided. This instability can be greatly reduced by a more careful control of the temperature; a better cold box is currently being designed.

The problems discussed above indicate that the vidicon photometry system is still very much in the developmental stage. Nevertheless, usable data is obtainable and the technique seems to be sound. Using the knowledge and experience gained from this project, further improvements have been made on the system. The major causes for the large discrepancies in the data have been found and are being corrected; more flexible data processing procedures are being developed; observing techniques are $b \in ing$ made more efficient. The result should be a very powerful tool for accurate two-dimensional photoelectronic imagery.

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