

TPF Coronagraph Instrument Design

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Introduction

For the past 2 years, NASA has invested substantial resources to study the design and performance of the Terrestrial Planet Finder Coronagraph (TPF-C). The work, led by the Jet Propulsion Laboratory with collaboration from Goddard Space Flight Center and several university and commercial entities, encompasses observatory design, performance modeling, materials characterization, primary mirror studies, and a significant technology development effort including a high-contrast imaging testbed that has achieved $1e-9$ contrast in a laboratory experiment (Trauger, 2005). TPF-C papers covering the full range of these topics appear in the proceedings of the 2005 SPIE meeting (conferences 5905, 5867, and 5895) and are too numerous to list in this brief manuscript.

Requirements

A group of U.S.-based scientists is presently preparing the high-level science requirements. The notional requirements call for the capability to detect ~ 30 terrestrial planets in the habitable zone (HZ) assuming all stars have one such planet (and likewise, ~ 3 planets if the probability of occurrence of a terrestrial planet around any star is 10%). The definition of terrestrial planets is itself under review, but for purposes of defining performance requirements we assume terrestrial planets are Earth-like planets. The HZ extends over ~ 0.75 – 1.8 AU for a solar type star. TPF-C shall also measure the spectra of detected planets over a spectral range spanning at least 500–800 nm with a spectral resolution $R=70$. In addition to studying terrestrial planets, TPF-C shall also be capable of observing and characterizing a significant number of Jovian planets as well as proto-planetary disks. Astrophysics requirements are defined but will not be discussed here.

The science requirements lead to a challenging set of performance requirements. The reflected visible/NIR light from a half-illuminated earth-like planet at 1 AU from a solar-type star is $\sim 10^{10}$ times fainter than the starlight. For a star at a distance of 10 pc, the planet would appear 100 mas from the star. Studies of observing completeness (Brown 2003, 2005) and our own mission completeness studies find that to meet the science requirements for terrestrial planet detection, TPF-C should achieve the performance requirements listed in Table 1.

“Contrast” refers to the level of light scattered by the instrument, relative the incident star light. The contrast stability is the parameter that determines the limiting signal-to-noise ratio (SNR). At a level of 2×10^{-11} , a planet having contrast 10^{-10} ($\Delta\text{mag} = 25$) can be detected with an instrument-limited $\text{SNR} = 5$. The inner working angle (IWA) is the closest point to the star where a planet can be detected. Extensive modeling (e.g. Green & Shaklan, 2003) has shown that for a Lyot coronagraph, it is impractical to work within 3 – $4 \lambda/D$ (\sim the third Airy ring) because as one removes diffraction at smaller working angles, the Lyot aperture is reduced while aberration sensitivity increases. Our inner working angle of $4 \lambda/D$ represents a compromise between the required resolution (~ 60 mas), the largest aperture that can fit in an existing launch shroud, and the engineering requirements at the IWA. The outer working angle (OWA) is fundamentally limited by the number of actuators in the deformable mirror (DM). An OWA of 1.5 arcsec is achieved by spanning the short axis of the primary mirror with 96 actuators.

Instrument Design

1. Apertures

The aforementioned models show that monolithic apertures are far superior to segmented apertures in a high-contrast coronagraph. Segments lead to significant throughput losses at the segment edges, but more importantly relative piston motions of the segments scatters light across the coronagraph ‘dark hole’ and must be controlled to picometer levels.

Monolithic apertures are required but are limited in their dimension by the launch vehicle shroud. Engineers at Ball Aerospace developed the concept of an elliptical aperture coronagraph (2001). The long axis delivers the required resolution while the total area provides adequate sensitivity. We have recently evolved this approach from its original elliptical shape to a nearly rectangular aperture (it has the shape of a common bandage), as shown in Fig. 1

The advantages of the ‘band aid’ aperture are two-fold. First, in the presence of a linear occulter mask, the rectangular shape improves Lyot stop efficiency. For the case shown, it improves from 34% (elliptical) to 44% (rectangular). Second, the shape allows one to employ a so-called ‘barcode’ shaped-pupil mask (Vanderbei, 2004). These masks are straightforward to build and model, and can be made broad-band and polarization-independent.

2. Coronagraphs

Several coronagraph forms have been considered, including band-limited Lyot coronagraphs (Kuchner & Traub, 2002), shaped pupils (Kasdin, 2003), remapped pupils (Guyon, 2003), a visible nulling instrument (Mennesson, 2003), and a vortex-mask coronagraph (Palacios, 2005). Four-quadrant phase masks are not considered because their 2nd-order dependence on wave front tilt does not sufficiently suppress starlight. Vortex masks appear to have good aberration rejection and high throughput but have not been modeled to the same level of detail as band-limited masks. The baseline design includes accommodation for Lyot coronagraphs and shaped-pupils. Both can be implemented using a filter wheel approach to select different masks for different purposes (e.g. improved discovery space vs. deeper contrast over a restricted space).

Table 2 outlines the trade-offs between the various concepts. PIAA (pupil remapping) is the most promising but least mature concept. PIAA offers 100% throughput and 100% discovery space for planets outside the 2nd Airy ring. However fabrication of components and potential diffraction limitations (Vanderbei, 2005) must be solved before this approach is deemed viable. Laboratory tests in a high-dynamic range coronagraph are underway..

The baseline Lyot coronagraph is a linear 8th-order mask (Kuchner, Crepp, & Ge 2005, Shaklan & Green 2005). The 8th-order null is effective at filtering low-order aberrations that will result when the primary mirror sees thermal gradients and when the secondary mirror moves relative to the primary. Compared to a 4th-order null (e.g. the visible nuller), the 8th-order mask is 1 – 2 orders of magnitude less sensitive to changes in aberration content at the IWA. It also offers excellent discovery space – a planet can be detected with nearly equal efficiency beyond the IWA except for a central strip running orthogonal to the mask oscillations. The mask will likely be fabricated in HEBS glass (Trauger, 2005) as this continuous-tone approach is the least polarization sensitive. We are currently addressing achromatization of the mask densification process. Binary mask implementations (e.g. notch-filter masks, Kuchner & Spergel 2004) have severe polarization and chromaticity issues (Lay et al, 2005).

The bar-code shaped-pupil mask shares low aberration sensitivity and large discovery space with the 8th-order mask. It has comparable throughput at the IWA but worse throughput for planets at $>\sim 6 \lambda/D$. It is the simplest form of coronagraph to implement.

3. Wave Front Control (WFC)

Our WFC system employs two high-performance Xinetics DMs (Trauger, 2004) arranged in a Michelson interferometer configuration. This allows independent control of both phase and amplitude over the dark hole, but the wave front correction has wavelength dependence that does preclude full correction of reflectivity and phase-induced amplitude errors over a broad spectral band. We are also considering ways to implement sequential DMs to help conjugate far-from-pupil optics. This approach may also eliminate the need for the Michelson beamsplitter and wedges which are likely to introduce additional chromatic and polarization issues. The DM format is 96 x 96 actuators on a 1 mm pitch. Thermal stabilization of the DMs is crucial – sub-Angstrom wave front stability is required during the extent of our ‘set-and-forget’ observing scenario (Shaklan et al, 2005)

4) Other Aspects

The optical design includes an afocal cylindrical telescope that reimages the short axis of the telescope across the full width of the DM (thus forming a square image of the primary aperture on the DM). This increases the outer working angle, significantly expanding the detection space of detection of Jovian planets.

The design also includes two orthogonal polarization channels. This was originally implemented for three reasons. First, the slightly different aberration content of each polarization leaked around the 4th order mask resulting in unacceptable static contrast. Second, binary masks are not simultaneously effective in both polarizations. These issues are remedied through the use of 8th order masks and by employing HEBS masks rather than binary ones. Third, the secondary channel offers full redundancy in case of DM or detector failure. We are currently considering eliminating the second channel and readdressing the redundancy issues.

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