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# Charge-coupled devices combined with centroid algorithm for laser beam deviation measurements compared to position sensitive device

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**Abstract.** A position sensitive device (PSD) is frequently used in laser beam deviation measurement. However, it lacks the capability to retrieve the power distribution information of a laser beam. A charge-coupled device (CCD) gives much more information of a laser beam than a PSD. The requirement of a multifunctional sensor makes the replacement of a PSD with a CCD in measuring laser beam deviation to be a reasonable topic. In this paper a performance comparison between a PSD and a CCD combined with a centroid algorithm are discussed with special attention paid to the CCD-based system. According to the operating principle of the CCD-based system, several experiments were carried out to evaluate five factors of the CCD-based system: image window size, number of processed images, threshold, binning, and saturation. By applying the optimized parameters, several experiments were made to compare the CCD-based system with the state-of-the-art PSD-based system in terms of two performance indicators, namely resolution and speed. It is shown that, by applying the optimized parameters, the performance of a CCD-based system is comparable to that of a PSD-based system in measuring laser beam deviation. © 2011 Society of Photo-Optical Instrumentation Engineers (SPIE). [DOI: 10.1117/1.3554379]

Subject terms: charge-coupled device; position sensitive device; centroid algorithm; beam deviation measurement.

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## 1 Introduction

Since laser technology has been developed for years, it has been widely used in different applications, one of which is to measure physical parameters by detecting the laser beam deviation.<sup>1,2</sup> In this framework, a position sensitive detector (PSD) is an optical sensor that can measure a light spot location in one or two dimensions on a sensor surface. In 1957, Wallmark<sup>3</sup> first introduced the lateral-effect photodiode PSD which has been extensively developed, including in performance analysis,<sup>4</sup> signal processing methods,<sup>5,6</sup> and various applications. As an analogue device, a PSD provides high sensitivity, short response time and independence from spot light size, shape and intensity. Due to these features, a PSD has been used for various laser beam deviation measurement systems. However, the PSD analogue output signal makes it hard to benefit from modern post-processing techniques. In 1969, the charge-coupled device (CCD) was invented by Boyle and Smith, recording illumination in a pixel-based image. With the development of image post-processing techniques, the CCD becomes a way to measure laser spot deviations. Compared to analogue PSD, the pixel-based CCD does not directly provide information on position, but rather on laser spot shape and intensity. The position information can then be retrieved by different post-processing algorithms. This feature makes the pixel-based image sensor extremely flexible for laser beam deviation detection, with more capacity to extract additional useful information. Our previous

work involved developing a refractometer to measure the salinity of seawater based on measuring the laser beam deviation with a one-dimensional(1D) PSD.<sup>7</sup> The resolution of measuring salinity reaches 0.002 g/kg with the measurement range from 0 to 40 g/kg. Besides the salinity, other quantities of seawater, for example, the turbidity, are very important for the oceanology. This information, which is highly associated with the power distribution of laser spot, cannot be retrieved from neither 1D PSD nor two-dimensional(2D) PSD, for example, the quadrant photodiode.<sup>8</sup> Because of this, the CCD, which is sensitive to the power distribution of light, is considered to be a replacement of the PSD. To achieve this, it is necessary to have a performance comparison between a CCD-based system and a PSD-based system, and prove that a CCD-based system could at least obtain the same resolution in laser beam deviation measurement.

To retrieve the position information from the images captured by a CCD, a localization method is needed to be applied to the images. Several previous researches involved different localization algorithms. Canabal et al.<sup>2</sup> compared three localization algorithms: centroid, Gaussian fitting, and Fourier transform. Welch<sup>9</sup> worked on the effects of the window size and the shape on the centroid algorithm. Bobroff's article<sup>10</sup> describes the theoretical limits on the ability to locate a signal position. The comparison between a quadrant diode-based system and a CMOS-based system was studied by Scott et al.<sup>8</sup> Other researches on the CCD-based laser beam deviation measurement has focused on the comparison among several post-processing techniques<sup>11</sup> and estimated those algorithm accuracies,<sup>12,13</sup> including system error and

84 noise, to improve accuracy.<sup>14-17</sup> Because a PSD actually  
 85 gives the gravity center of a laser spot, in this paper, the  
 86 centroid algorithm, which is also calculating the gravity center,  
 87 is combined with a CCD to compare with the state-of-  
 88 the-art PSD-based system.

89 A 1D-PSD transfers the laser beam illumination into two  
 90 photocurrents, which implies the position of the laser beam.  
 91 This limits the post-processing methods of the PSD-based  
 92 system, although it provides a very fast speed. Another draw-  
 93 back of PSD-based systems is that the high resolution of such  
 94 systems relies on the assumption that the two analogue pho-  
 95 tocurrents should be amplified with two identical amplifiers,  
 96 which is difficult to be achieved at a low cost. On the other  
 97 hand, the CCD stores the intensity of the laser beam into an  
 98 array of pixels. Many smart post-processing algorithms can  
 99 then be applied to compute the laser beam position, including  
 100 centroid, squared-centroid, fitting, Fourier, edge detection,  
 101 etc. One of the issues with the CCD-based system is its low  
 102 speed, caused not only by the longer hardware response time,  
 103 but also the post-processing algorithm complexity. However,  
 104 the flexibility of CCD-based systems provides greater free-  
 105 dom to balance performance (e.g., the image window size,  
 106 laser beam intensity, and threshold, etc.).

107 This paper first compares the principles of both methods.  
 108 Based on these principles, two key performance indicators,  
 109 resolution and speed, are analyzed with particular attention  
 110 paid to the issue of sensor saturation, which is a key fea-  
 111 ture that may result in unexpected errors, as illustrated at the  
 112 end of Sec. 3. During the discussion, various performance  
 113 improvements are proposed for both systems. According to  
 114 these improvements, experiments have been performed to as-  
 115 sess the performance with different parameters compared to  
 116 the state-of-the-art PSD-based system. Experimental results  
 117 and analysis are presented in Secs. 5 and 6.

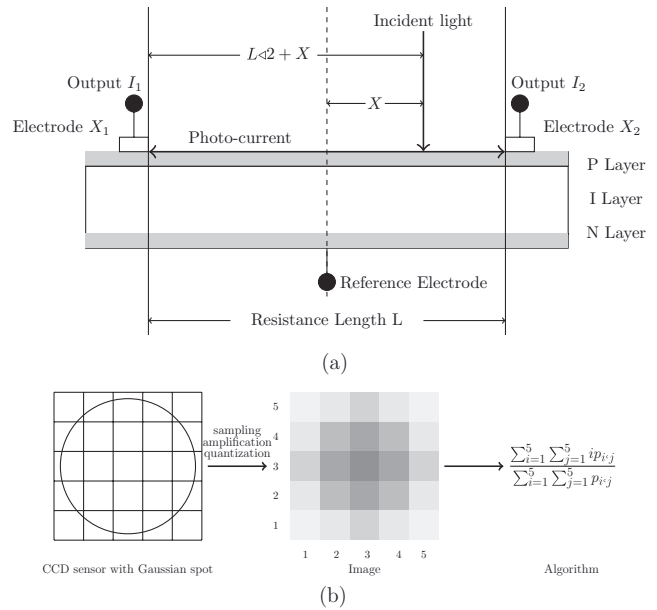
118 **2 Principle**

119 **2.1 PSD-Based Laser Beam Displacement**  
 120 **Measurement**

121 The principle of a 1D PSD is shown in Fig. 1(a). The PSD has  
 122 a single active area formed by a P-N junction. The two parts  
 123 that originated from the laser spot to the two electrodes form  
 124 two lateral resistances for the photocurrents running toward  
 125 the electrodes. The photocurrents are collected through the  
 126 resistances by the output electrodes, which are inversely pro-  
 127 portional to the distance between the electrode and the center  
 128 of the incoming light beam. This relationship is expressed as  
 129 follows:<sup>18</sup>

$$x = \frac{L}{2} \frac{I_2 - I_1}{I_2 + I_1}, \tag{1}$$

130 where  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  are the electrode photocurrents,  $L$  is the  
 131 length of the PSD active area and  $x$  stands for the laser spot  
 132 position. According to the principle, the center given by a  
 133 1D PSD is the gravity center of incident light. The post-  
 134 processing process, which is typically implemented by the  
 135 external processing circuit, first amplifies each of the pho-  
 136 tocurrents, transfers them into voltages, and then calculates  
 137 the subtraction, addition, and division operations in Eq. (1).



**Fig. 1** The operating principles of both 1D PSD and CCD. (a) The operating principle of 1D PSD. (b) The operating principle of CCD-based system, a Gaussian beam (shown as the circle) shoot on a 5×5 pixels CCD. After sampling, amplification and quantization, the image records the power distribution of the Gaussian spot. An algorithm is then utilized to retrieve the position of the spot from the image.

138 **2.2 CCD-Based Laser Beam Displacement**  
 139 **Measurement**

140 Figure 1(b) shows the operating principle of a CCD-based  
 141 system. The image-capture process of a CCD-based system  
 142 contains sampling, amplification, and quantization. It  
 143 first samples the optical intensity and then converts the sam-  
 144 ple into a signal charge, which is transformed into voltage  
 145 through a common output. After voltage quantization, all sig-  
 146 nals are processed by the post-processing algorithm to calcu-  
 147 late the position. As mentioned in Sec. 1, many algorithms  
 148 can be used for laser beam position calculation. Algorithm  
 149 selection is based on the definition of the laser beam posi-  
 150 tion, which highly depends on the applications. To compare  
 151 with a PSD, the definition of the laser beam position should  
 152 be defined as the same as the PSD-based system, which is  
 153 the gravity center of the laser spot. Therefore, the centroid  
 154 algorithm has been used here to calculate the gravity center  
 155 due to its simplicity.

156 To analyze the resolution of the CCD-based system, a  
 157 laser beam distribution model should first be introduced. A  
 158 Gaussian beam is commonly used as a laser intensity model.  
 159 A Gaussian beam  $g(x, y)$  with peak intensity  $I_0$  and beam  
 160 waist  $r_0$  is expressed as:

$$g(x, y) = I_0 e^{-x^2+y^2/2r_0^2}. \tag{2}$$

161 After sampling by the pixels of the CCD, we can get the  
 162 sampled signal:

$$p(x, y) = g(x, y)s(x, y) = \sum_{j_1=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{j_2=-\infty}^{\infty} g(j_1 \Delta x, j_2 \Delta y) \sigma(x - j_1 \Delta x, y - j_2 \Delta y), \tag{3}$$

163 where  $p(x, y)$  is the sampled signal, and  $s(x, y)$  is the sam-  
 164 pling function. Here  $\sigma$  stands for the dirac function. After

165 sampling, the signal is quantized using different methods. To  
 166 simplify, we leave this point aside in this paper. According to  
 167 the centroid algorithm, the 1D center of the laser spot could  
 168 be expressed as:

$$x = \frac{\sum_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} i p_{i,j}}{\sum_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} p_{i,j}}. \quad (4)$$

169 From Eq. (3), the sums in Eq. (4) can then be replaced by  
 170 the integral, and the centroid of the function  $p(x, y)$  can be  
 171 represented as follows:

$$x = \frac{\int_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} i p(x, y) dx dy}{\int_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} p(x, y) dx dy}, \quad (5)$$

172 which results in the following formula by Fourier  
 173 transformation:<sup>19</sup>

$$x = -\frac{P'_u(0, 0)}{2\pi j P(0, 0)}, \quad (6)$$

174 where  $P_u(x, y)$  is the Fourier transform of  $p(x, y)$ , and  
 175  $P'_u(x, y)$  is the derivative of  $P_u$ .

### 176 3 Performance Analysis

#### 177 3.1 Resolution

178 The resolution of a CCD-based laser beam deviation mea-  
 179 surement system depends on three aspects: systematic error  
 180 caused by sampling, quantization and centroid algorithm,  
 181 systematic error due to noise, and their corresponding uncer-  
 182 tainties. We assume here that the laser spot moves a distance  
 183  $d$  from position  $X_0$  to position  $X_d$  along the x axis. Let  $e_c$   
 184 be the systematic error caused by the sampling, quantization,  
 185 and centroid method. The following relationship exists:

$$x_d = \bar{x}_0 + d + e_c. \quad (7)$$

186 The systematic error  $e_c$  caused by the sampling, quantization,  
 187 and centroid algorithm could be calculated by substituting  
 188 Eqs. (6) and (7) and used for correcting the resolution in  
 189 the post-processing phase. The resolution of the centroid  
 190 algorithm is also determined by the noise of the image sensor,  
 191 which includes three types of noises: the readout noise  $N_r$ , the  
 192 signal photon noise  $N_p$ , and the background noise  $N_b$ . The  
 193 background noise and the readout noise impinge all the pixels  
 194 in the image window; in contrast, the signal photon noise just  
 195 impacts the pixels illuminated by the laser spot. Since the  
 196 centroid algorithm processes all the pixels of the image, the  
 197 centers of both the laser spot and noises are calculated. If the  
 198 laser spot moves a distance  $d$  from  $x_0$ , the calculated center  
 199  $x_d'$  is:

$$x_d' = \frac{x_r M_{rn} + x_b M_{bn} + x_p M_{pn} + (x_0 + d + e_c) M_s}{M_{rn} + M_{bn} + M_{pn} + M_s}, \quad (8)$$

200 where  $x_r$ ,  $x_b$ , and  $x_p$  are the centers of readout noise, back-  
 201 ground noise, and light photon noise, respectively, while  $M_{rn}$ ,  
 202  $M_{bn}$ ,  $M_{pn}$ , and  $M_s$  respectively represent the mass of readout  
 203 noise, background noise, light photon noise, and laser spot.  
 204 As a reference, in a noisy environment, the equation that  
 205 expresses the original position  $x_0'$  is listed below:

$$x_0' = \frac{x_{r_0} M_{rn} + x_{b_0} M_{bn} + x_{p_0} M_{pn} + x_0 M_s}{M_{rn} + M_{bn} + M_{pn} + M_s}, \quad (9)$$

206 in which  $x_{r_0}$ ,  $x_{b_0}$ , and  $x_{p_0}$  are the original centers of read-  
 207 out noise, background noise, and light photo noise. The  
 208

background noise and the readout noise follow the Poisson 209  
 distribution which can be approximately considered as a 210  
 Gaussian distribution. Since these two noises impact all 211  
 the image pixels, the center of noises is independent of 212  
 the laser spot. That is to say, the following relationship 213  
 holds:  $x_{r_0} = x_r$  and  $x_{b_0} = x_b$ . On the other hand, the signal 214  
 photon noise is related to the laser spot intensity, thus the 215  
 assumption could be made that the moved distance of light 216  
 photon noise approximately equals the moved distance of 217  
 the laser spot  $d$  or  $x_p = x_{p_0} + d$ . By substituting Eqs. (8) 218  
 and (9), the systematic error  $e$  is shown as: 219

$$e = \frac{e_c M_s - d(M_{rn} + M_{bn})}{M_{rn} + M_{bn} + M_{pn} + M_s}. \quad (10)$$

The ratio between the calculated distance  $d'$  and the moved 220  
 distance of the laser spot could be expressed as follows: 221

$$\frac{d'}{d} = 1 + \frac{e}{d} = \frac{M_{pn} + M_s + \frac{e_c}{d} M_s}{M_{rn} + M_{bn} + M_{pn} + M_s}. \quad (11)$$

The systematic error caused by noise can be eliminated or at 222  
 least reduced in both the capture and post-processing phases. 223  
 Applying a threshold in the post-processing algorithm can 224  
 efficiently eliminate the readout noise and background 225  
 noise. Another post-processing way to reduce noise is to 226  
 average it using multiple images. If  $N$  images are used for 227  
 the calculation, the noise variance will be dropped to  $2/\sqrt{N}$ . 228  
 Temperature also has a very close relationship with the 229  
 noise. Typically, the CCD temperature should be reduced 230  
 as much as possible. In the laser deviation measurement 231  
 system, the temperature increase caused by the laser also 232  
 increases the noise. In the capture phase, the use of a pulsed 233  
 laser and synchronized exposure can solve this problem. 234  
 In Secs. 4 and 5, experiments applying these methods to 235  
 improve the resolution are described. 236

For a PSD-based system, the systematic error is mainly 237  
 due to the amplifier asymmetry for the two current signals  $I_1$  238  
 and  $I_2$ , ambient light, physical construction of the detector 239  
 head, and y-axis displacement.<sup>20</sup> Noise is also a key factor 240  
 that may impact the resolution, including thermal noise cur- 241  
 rent, shot noise, and amplifier noise. To improve the PSD 242  
 resolution, we can increase interelectrode resistance, which 243  
 results in a reduction of both amplifier and shot noise. An- 244  
 other way to improve the resolution is to use symmetric and 245  
 low noise operational amplifiers, but it results in quite an ex- 246  
 pensive external processing circuit. The error caused by the 247  
 background light can be eliminated using pulse amplitude 248  
 modulation, shown in Ref. 6. 249

#### 250 3.2 Speed

Speed is another important feature for the deviation posi- 251  
 tion measurement. One of the indices to judge PSD speed is 252  
 response time, defined as the time during which the output 253  
 signal rises from 10% to 90% of its peak value. The PSD 254  
 response time depends mainly on the physical features of 255  
 the PSD, for example its interelectrode resistance and termi- 256  
 nal capacitance. Reverse voltage and wavelength of incident 257  
 light also affect the response time. For most advanced PSDs, 258  
 the response time can reach  $3 \mu s$ . In practice, the PSD out- 259  
 put signal will be sampled and digitalized for calculation. To 260  
 reduce the error caused by noise, the average of more than 261  
 one sample should be calculated. In general, the time cost 262



for a PSD-based system mainly depends on the sum of the digitalized time and the computing time.

Compared to a PSD, the CCD image sensor cannot output a continuous signal: instead, it generates a series of frames, which is a snapshot of the laser beam spot. The overall processing time  $t$  of a separate frame can be approximately calculated as:

$$t = t_e + t_r + t_s + t_l + t_p, \tag{12}$$

in which  $t_e$  is the exposure time,  $t_r$  is the readout time,  $t_s$  is the time used for storing the image,  $t_l$  is the image load time, and  $t_p$  stands for the algorithm processing time. The readout time includes the time in which all the rows shift into serial register, the time in which the pixels move to the AD converter under clock control, and the time spent by AD conversion and digitization. Exposure time must be long enough for the image sensor capture. The readout time depends critically on the clock frequency, window size, and window position. After the image is generated, the centroid of the algorithm will take time to process the image. Image size, algorithm used, and processor frequency are the main factors impacting the processing time. For an image with  $M \times N$  pixels, the time complexity of the centroid algorithm is  $O(MN)$ .

Several techniques are available to reduce the processing time of image sensors. The CCD with dual serial registers and two amplifiers can speed up the readout time. A laser with larger intensity could shorten the exposure time. The CCD with region of interest and binning features could output fewer pixels, which can also improve the post-processing speed with the cost of lowering the resolution. Implementing the algorithm in hardware is another efficient way to improve the speed of CCD-based systems.

### 3.3 Saturation

Usually, for optical sensors, saturation results in a large error and should definitely be avoided. In practice, the PSD output current follows a good linearity with respect to the laser spot position. If the incident light power is too high and therefore the saturation occurs, the output current is no longer linear with the laser spot position. Hence, the centroid information cannot be retrieved as expected. The parameter “photocurrent saturation” is defined as the total output current when the whole active area of a PSD is illuminated, and is considered to express the saturation performance of the PSD. This value depends on the interelectrode resistance of the PSD and the reverse voltage.<sup>21</sup> A direct way to avoid saturation is to reduce incident light intensity. A PSD with small interelectrode resistance and high reverse voltage can prevent saturation from occurring.

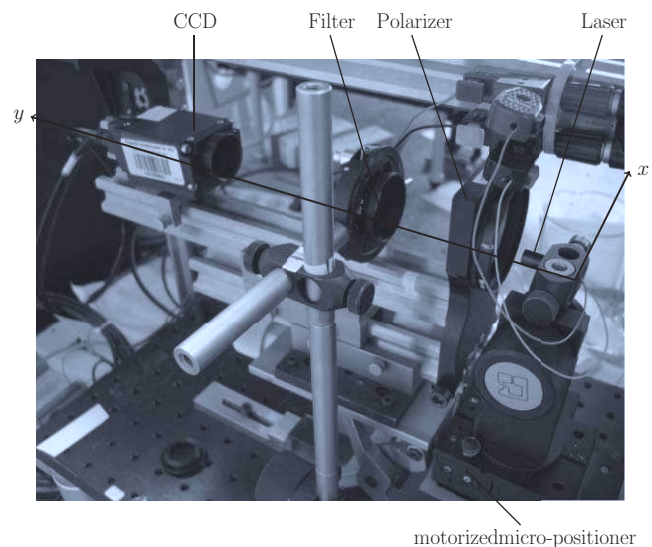
The saturation of the CCD is defined as the maximum amount of charges that the image sensor pixel can collect. This amount of charge a pixel can hold in routine operation is called its full well capacity.<sup>22</sup> One effect of saturation is that the linearity relationship between the number of collected charges and the received light intensity will not stand near the full well capacity, which causes the output signal to generate unexpected distortion. One possible solution to this problem is to adjust the camera gain control so that the full bit depth of the ADC does not span the linear full well capacity of the camera. This makes the image show saturation before real saturation occurs.<sup>23</sup> Another influence is blooming. When the image pixel full well capacity is reached, the more

generated charges or the charges that cannot be transferred will pollute the adjacent image areas. A typical phenomenon of blooming is the appearance of a white streak or an erroneous pixel signal value near the high intensity pixels. With respect to measuring the displacement of the laser beams, blooming leads to unexpected and nonrecoverable results, so it should be avoided at all cost. If the camera gain is carefully adjusted to limit the ADC work in the linear full well capacity, blooming will not occur when saturation is just observed. For the application discussed in this paper, the gravity center of a given laser spot is highly related to laser spot intensity, hence, saturation should be avoided in the measurement.

## 4 Experiment Setup

In Secs. 2 and 3, the factors that might impact the resolution and speed of a CCD-based system, have been described, including the laser beam power, the number of frames used to calculate the position, the image window size, binning, and threshold. To assess the impact of these parameters on system performance, different experiments have been carried out. Since the resolution and speed of PSD-based systems highly depend on the equipment and device themselves, a commercial PSD [Hamamatsu S3932 (Ref. 24)] and external processing circuits [Hamamatsu C3683-01(Ref. 25)] were used in the following experiments for comparing to CCD-based systems.

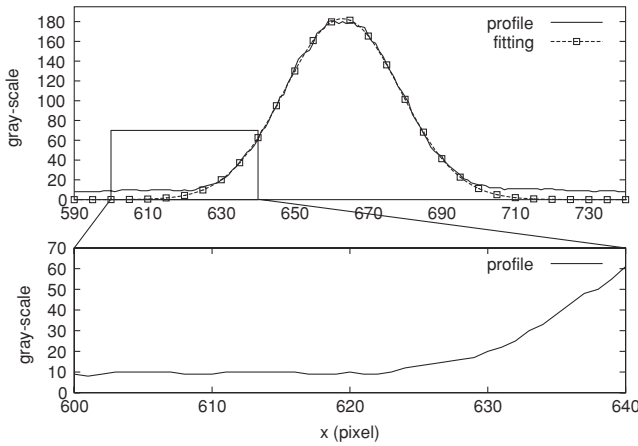
A diode laser at a wavelength of 635 nm was mounted on a motorized three-dimension micro-positioner with a minimum step size of  $0.1 \mu\text{m}$ , which moved along the  $x$  axis of the image under the control of a computer. The laser was directly pointed at a PSD or a DALSA camera,<sup>26</sup> which offers a  $1280 \times 960$  resolution and a small  $3.75 \times 3.75 \mu\text{m}$  pixel size. In order to control the power of the laser, a polarizer and a filter were set up between the laser and the camera. This setup is shown in Fig. 2. The CCD is removable and can be replaced by a PSD.



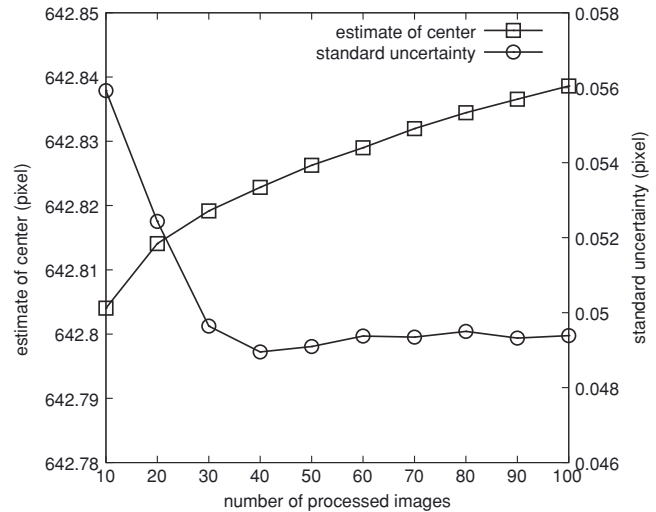
**Fig. 2** The experiment setup. The laser is mounted on a motorized micro-positioner, which can move along the  $x$  direction of the image. The laser is directly pointed at the CCD, which is removable and can be replaced by a PSD.

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**Fig. 3** The upper diagram plots the profile and Gaussian fitting of a laser beam; the lower diagram is the zoom view of the profile between 600 and 640 pixels.



**Fig. 4** The estimate of the center and the standard uncertainty of the systematic error against the number of processed images. The curve with squares is the estimate of the calculated center; the curve with circles is the standard uncertainty of the systematic error. The systematic error is assessed by comparing the estimate of the calculated center with the reference center (663.69 pixels). The original point of coordinate is the left bottom corner of the image.

### 5 Evaluation of parameters

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Before comparing the CCD- and PSD-based systems, the factors mentioned in Secs. 2 and 3, should be first considered. An experiment was carried out to analyze these factors. During the experiment, the laser was moved to a specific position and 100 full size images were taken in 4 s. This experiment was repeated 50 times to avoid accidental error. According to these 50 groups of images, different numbers of images were selected in each group and processed with different image window sizes and thresholds. The resolution of the system is assessed from two aspects: systematic error and its uncertainty. For assessing systematic error and its uncertainty, the average of the calculated centers (the estimate of position<sup>27</sup>) and standard deviations (the standard uncertainty<sup>27</sup>) of all the groups were plotted. The power of the laser beam was adjusted to avoid saturation and blooming, as shown in Fig. 3. From the bottom chart in Fig. 3, the gray-scale of the sum of background noise and readout noise reaches about nine. Since the center of the ideal Gaussian spot equals the gravity center of the Gaussian spot, a Gaussian fitting was used to obtain the reference position and the laser beam waist. The average Gaussian center of the images calculated by a Gaussian fitting algorithm in the 50 experiments is 663.69 pixels and the average waist of the laser spot is 15.574 pixels. With different parameters, the estimate of the laser spot position and standard uncertainty were calculated. The systematic error of the CCD-based system was assessed by comparing the estimate of the calculated center with the reference center, whereas the uncertainty was evaluated by the standard deviation of calculated centers. A smaller distance between calculated center and reference center gives a smaller systematic error, and a smaller standard uncertainty is obtained by a smaller standard deviation.

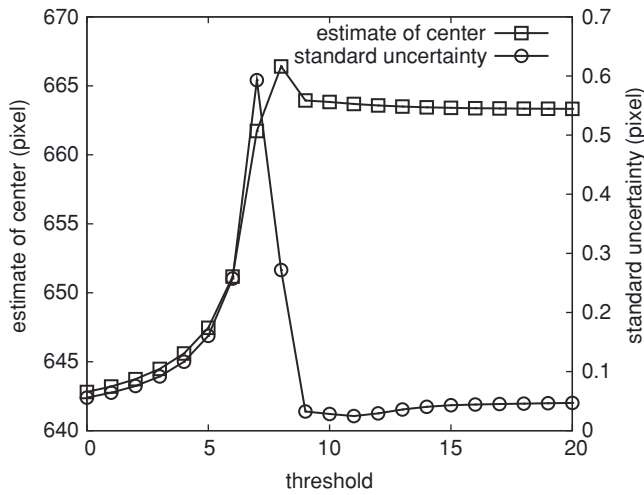
#### 5.1 Number of Processed Images

With the 50 groups of images, different numbers of images were selected in each group, and the center of each image was calculated with no threshold and full image size. The estimate of the calculated center and standard uncertainty are depicted in Fig. 4. Both the estimate of center and standard uncertainty in this chart show a trend to stabilize as more images were used. This stability could be attributed to the fact that more

images give more noise samples, making the center of noise more stable. The standard uncertainty remains at a level of less than 0.056 pixels, which gives a high level of precision. However, the center given by the experiment is less than 642.9 pixels, which has a large deviation from the reference center 663.69 pixels. According to Eq. (11), the large systematic error is caused by the noises that will lead to the measured distance being much less than the actual distance. Although the result shows a large systematic error, the variance of both estimate of center and standard uncertainty caused by the variance of the processed image number is quite small. That is to say, the resolution of CCD-based systems do not highly depend on the number of processed images. It is a good way to improve speed without greatly reducing resolution.

#### 5.2 Threshold

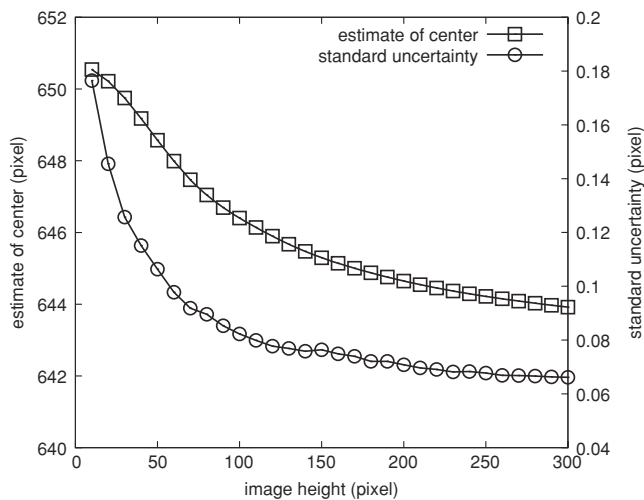
As the number of processed images will not dramatically affect the resolution of a CCD-based system, 10 images were selected for the calculation in the later experiment. As illustrated in Sec. 5.1., larger noise results in a larger systematic error. Applying a threshold is a common method to eliminate the effect of noises. With different thresholds applied to the full-size images, the estimate of center and standard uncertainty are plotted in Fig. 5. The behavior of estimate and standard uncertainty is quite different between applying a threshold less than the level of noise and applying a threshold larger than the level of noises. When the threshold is less than the level of noise, the systematic error decreased but the standard uncertainty increased as the threshold gets closer to the level of noise. Once the threshold is beyond the level of noise, both the estimate of center and standard uncertainty remain steady and the system reaches high resolution (with estimate of calculated center 663.33 pixels and standard uncertainty 0.045 pixels).



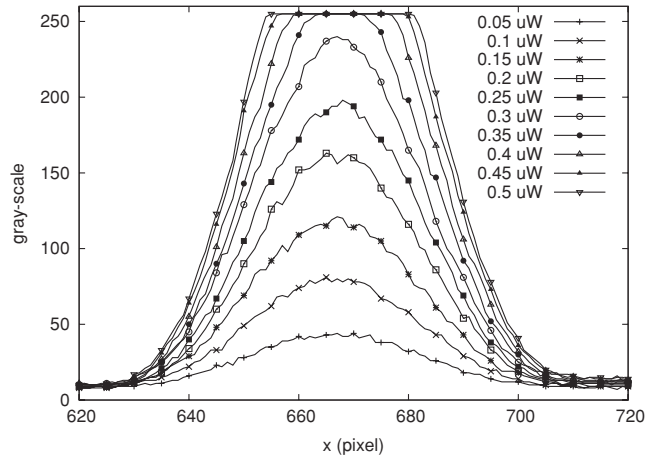
**Fig. 5** The estimate of the center and the standard uncertainty of a systematic error against the threshold. The curve with squares is the estimate of the calculated center; the curve with circles indicates the standard uncertainty of a systematic error. The systematic error is assessed by comparing the estimate of the calculated center with the reference center (663.69 pixels). When the threshold is larger than the level of noise 9, both the systematic error and the standard uncertainty are very small. The original point of coordinate is the left bottom corner of the image.

432 **5.3 Optimum Image Window Size**

433 Figure 6 describes how image window size affects resolution.  
 434 The results are calculated with no threshold and 10 images.  
 435 It is obvious that both the systematic error and uncertainty  
 436 are sensitive to image window size. As the image window  
 437 size increased, a smaller uncertainty was obtained, while  
 438 the systematic error increased. One important reason that  
 439 might lead to the larger systematic error is the fact that the  
 440 mass of noises increased as the image window got larger.  
 441 The effect of the image window size mainly applies to the  
 442 standard uncertainty, which rises exponentially as the image



**Fig. 6** The estimate of the center and the standard uncertainty of a systematic error against the height of image. The curve with a square is the estimate of the calculated center; the curve with a circle indicates the standard uncertainty of a systematic error. The systematic error is assessed by comparing the estimate of a calculated center with the reference center (663.69 pixels). The original point of the coordinate is the left bottom corner of the image.

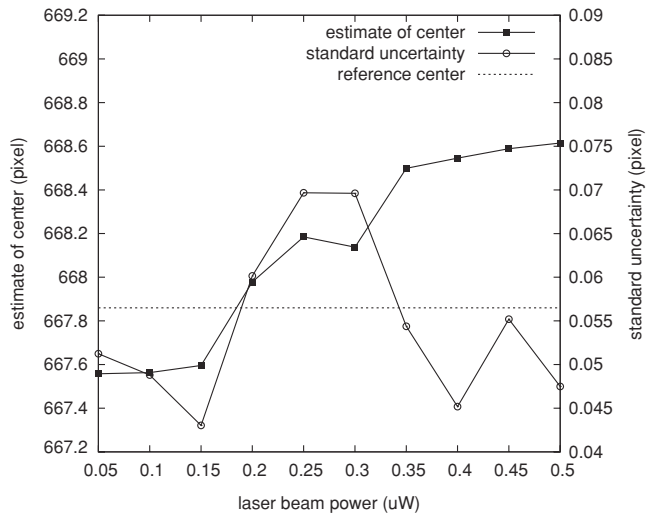


**Fig. 7** Profiles of images with different laser beam powers.

443 window decreases linearly. To improve speed by using a  
 444 smaller image window, the size of the image window should  
 445 be carefully adjusted according to the performance required  
 446 from the application.

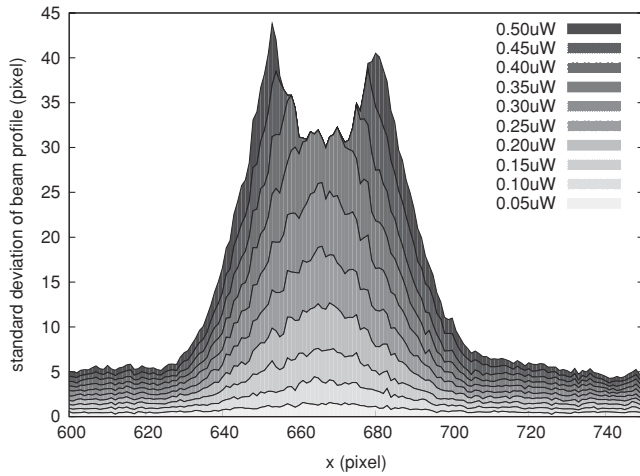
447 **5.4 Laser Beam Power and Saturation**

448 The power of the laser beam is related to the signal photon  
 449 noises, which overlay the Gaussian spot. An extremely high  
 450 laser beam power will lead to saturation or even blooming.  
 451 All the signal photon noises, saturation, and blooming will  
 452 interfere with the systematic error and its uncertainty of a  
 453 CCD-based system. To figure out the systematic error and  
 454 uncertainty according to different laser beam powers, an exper-  
 455 iment was designed and implemented. Figure 7 shows the  
 456 profiles of images with different laser beam powers, and the  
 457 estimate of centers and standard uncertainty are plotted in  
 458 Fig. 8. The curve of the estimate of centers calculated with a



**Fig. 8** The estimate of the center and the standard uncertainty of a systematic error against the power of the laser beam. The curve with squares is the estimate of the calculated center; the curve with circles is the standard uncertainty of a systematic error. The systematic error is assessed by comparing the estimate of a calculated center with the reference center. The dashed line indicates the reference center calculated by Gaussian fitting. The original point of coordinate is the left bottom corner of the image.





**Fig. 9** The standard deviation of the laser beam profile in different powers, shown in different gray-scales.

different laser power turns out to be a transformation between two states. One state happens when the laser power is less than  $0.15 \mu\text{W}$ , while another occurs after a laser power larger than  $0.35 \mu\text{W}$ . Between these two states, the estimate of center increases quickly as the laser power increases. The slight decrease of  $0.3 \mu\text{W}$  is possibly caused by accidental error. The formation of the first state is due to the low noises brought by the low laser power, which can be observed in Fig. 9. The low standard uncertainty at the same phase further proves this explanation. These noises affect the systematic error in this state, which shows a difference between the reference center (obtained by Gaussian fitting to the images with different powers, 667.86 pixels) and the calculated center. With the increase in laser power, both the standard uncertainty and the estimate of center increased quickly. This trend continues until saturation occurs at the power of  $0.35 \mu\text{W}$ , as shown in Fig. 7. From Fig. 9, it is clear that the noise rises with the increase of laser power. This impacts the standard uncertainty of the systematic error so that it gives a larger uncertainty when the laser power increases. In addition to noise impacting the systematic error, another factor that affects the systematic error is the fact that the laser polarization might not be ideally uniform. This makes the Gaussian spot center move toward one direction when adjusting the power by polarizer. Compared with Figs. 7 and 8, it is obvious that the second state is due to saturation, which hides most of the signals and noises at the top of the laser spot intensity. Since the noises are hidden by saturation, the standard uncertainty reduced to the level of the first state. Both low laser power and saturation provide the system a small uncertainty and a large systematic error. To obtain a smaller systematic error, the power of the laser should be adjusted appropriately to avoid a low signal-to-noise ratio and saturation.

## 6 Comparison

To compare the two different methods, the CCD image window size was cut to be the same size of the PSD, that is  $4.8 \times 1 \text{ mm}$  ( $1280 \times 267$  pixels). The response of the two methods to various factors was taken by moving the motorized micro-positioner with a step of  $0.1 \mu\text{m}$ , which is considered to be the reference measure to compare the two methods. During each step, 10,000 samples of PSD signals and 64

**Table 1** The slopes for different zones with CCD and PSD.

	0 mm	+ 0.5 mm	+ 1 mm
CCD (pixel/ $\mu\text{m}$ )	0.2622	0.2462	0.2625
PSD (V/ $\mu\text{m}$ )	0.0019	0.0018	0.0017

images were captured in 1 second. For PSD, the laser beam position was calculated by averaging the 10,000 PSD signal samples, while the average image of 65 images was used to compute the laser beam position by the centroid algorithm with threshold 10 applied. To obtain a full-range comparison, five zones that are oriented from the center of the sensor were chosen to perform the measurement. In each zone, the micro-positioner was moved by 50 steps. To guarantee that a complete laser beam is contained in the active sensor surface, the range of the measurement is set to the range of -1 to + 1 mm according to the laser beam waist (46.6 pixels in this experiment). The laser was synchronized with the camera exposure by a National Instrument DAQ card in pulse mode. The CCD saturation is avoided by applying a polarizer to reduce the laser power and setting the exposure time to  $13 \mu\text{s}$ . All the experiments are carried out in a dark room to obtain the best performance.

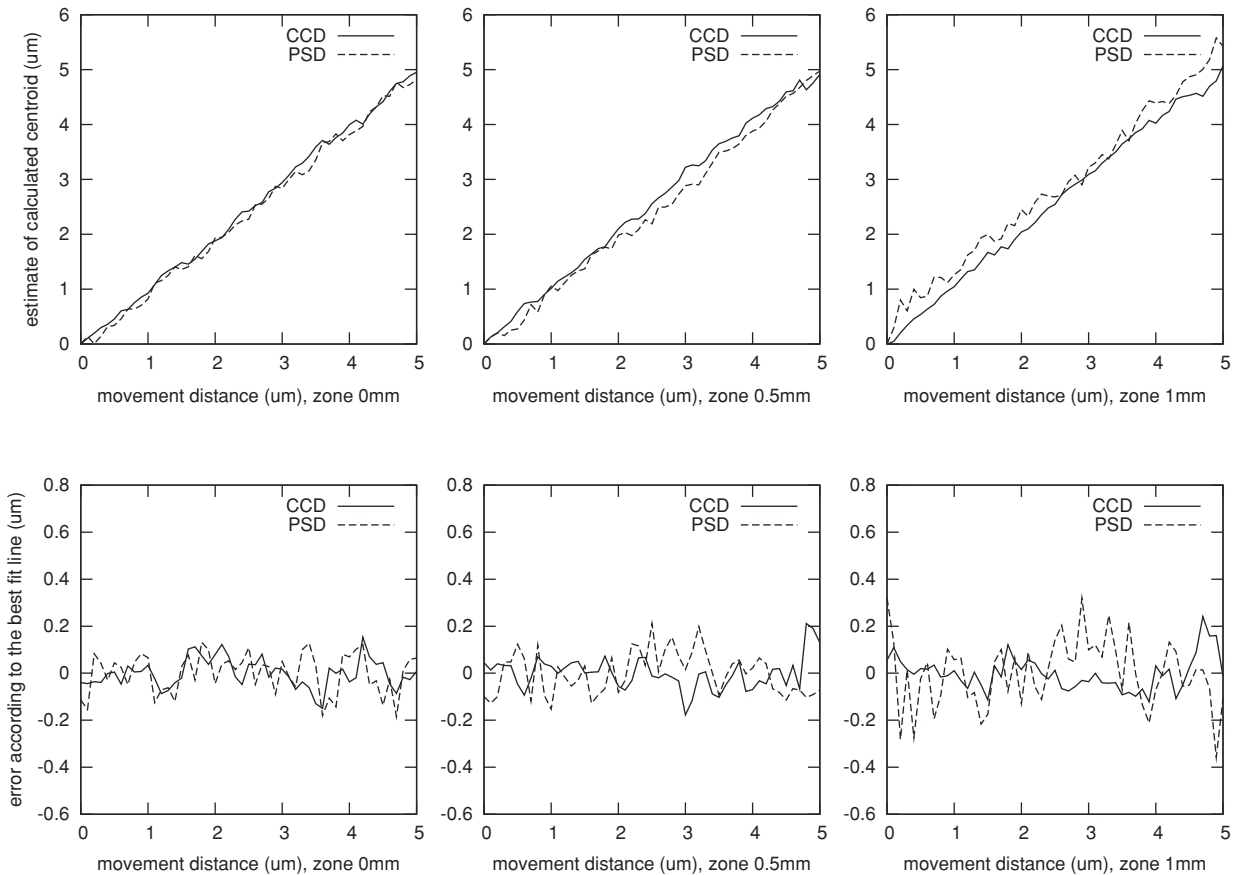
### 6.1 Resolution

For comparing the resolution of both methods, these centers for PSD, and CCD-based systems with different units were converted to distance. The slope of the best fit line indicates the ratio between the measurement unit and the distance. Thus the slopes are used to convert the measurement units to distances which are listed in Table 1. In this table, the slopes for a CCD-based system are very close to the inverse of the image pixel size ( $0.267 \text{ pixel}/\mu\text{m}$ ), which shows that the systematic error of the CCD-based system is very small according to Eq. (11). The uncertainty of the systematic error can be evaluated by the standard deviation of the error according to the best fit line. The estimate of calculated centers and the error according to the best fit line of both a CCD and a PSD in each measurement zone are depicted by Fig. 10, which shows good linearity for all the zones. The chart in the second row of Fig. 10 shows that the error of the PSD-based system is larger than that of the CCD-based system. The standard uncertainty of the errors in each zone are plotted in Fig. 11, from which we can observe that the uncertainty of the PSD-based system will gradually increase as the laser beam leaves the center. In contrast, the CCD-based system presents a good consistency in all the positions, with an average standard uncertainty  $\pm 0.068 \mu\text{m}$ . It is obvious that the uncertainty of the CCD-based system is much less than the uncertainty of the PSD-based system (average standard uncertainty  $\pm 0.1077 \mu\text{m}$ ) under the same operating conditions. And the resolution of the CCD-based system is insensitive to the laser spot position compared to the PSD-based system.

### 6.2 Speed

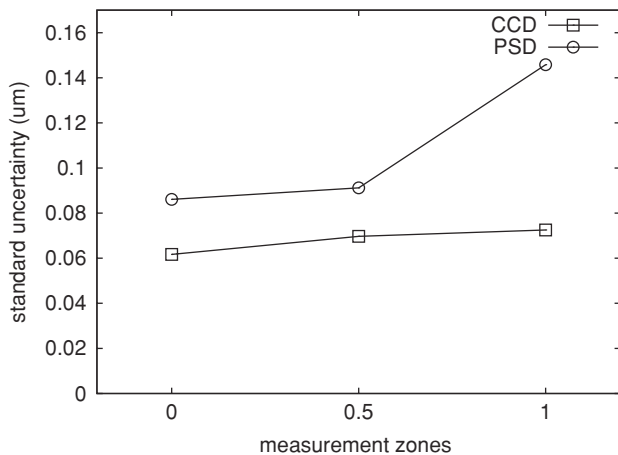
During the experiment, the duration of both capture and processing was recorded simultaneously. The program was implemented in C and was carried out in a DELL notebook LATITUDE E6500. For the PSD-based system, the duration





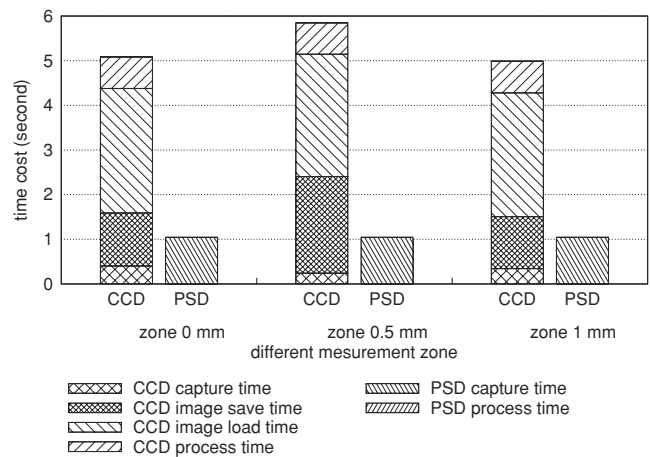
**Fig. 10** The estimate of the center and the error according to the best fit line against the distance moved. The first row shows the estimate of the calculated centroid for a CCD and a PSD. The second row shows the error for a CCD and a PSD according to the best fit line. From left to right, the position of 0 mm, the position of +0.5 mm, and the position of +1 mm.

551 contains not only the time used for capturing, sampling, and  
 552 digitalizing, but also the time elapsed for calculating the av-  
 553 erage. In addition to these, the image store and load time are  
 554 also considered for the CCD-based system. Figure 12 shows  
 555 the time cost to obtain one laser beam position for both of

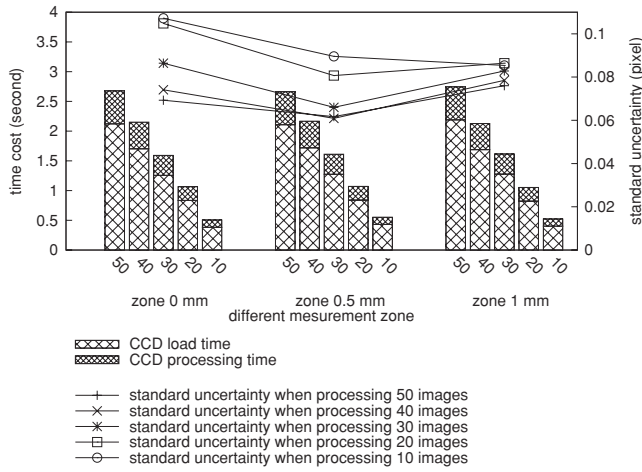


**Fig. 11** The standard uncertainty of a systematic error. The first row shows the result with a CCD, the second row shows the result of a PSD. The systematic error is assessed by comparing the estimate of the calculated center with the best fit line. From left to right, the position of 0 mm, the position of +0.5 mm, and the position of +1 mm.

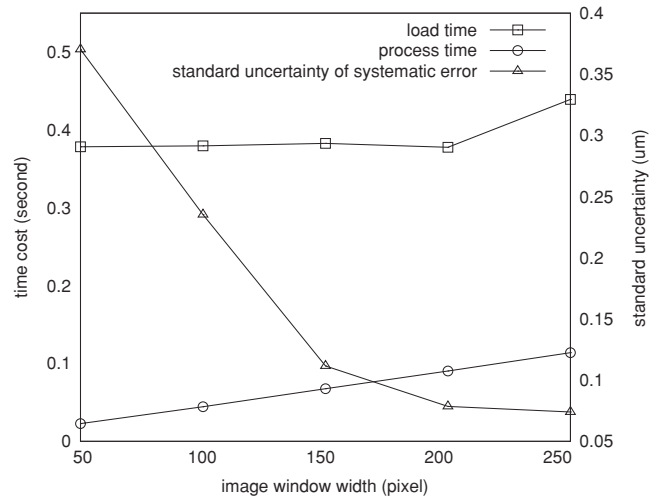
the systems. The time cost by PSD processing is very short, 556  
 with an average of 0.35 ms. The primary time cost of the 557  
 PSD-based system is capture, which highly depends on the 558  
 sample rate of the external circuit. Compared with the stability 559  
 of the time cost associated with the PSD-based system, 560  
 the time cost of the CCD-based system depends greatly on 561  
 the storage access time (store and load), which takes 80.4% 562  
 of the total time on average due to the low speed of the 563



**Fig. 12** Time cost in both a CCD-based system and a PSD-based system.



**Fig. 13** Uncertainty and time cost for processing different numbers of images. The bars in the graph indicate the time cost with different numbers of processed images in different zones. The lines present the standard uncertainty of the systematic error with different numbers of processed images in different zones.



**Fig. 14** Uncertainty and time cost for processing different image windows in position 0 mm. The curve with squares is the time cost on loading the image for different image window widths. The curve with circles represents the process time for different image window widths. The curve with triangles indicates the standard uncertainty of the systematic error according to the image window width.

564 storage device. A possible improvement is to store all the  
 565 images in memory, which is much faster than the external  
 566 storage device. Furthermore, the processing time will also be  
 567 reduced due to the fast readout speed of memory. Although  
 568 the actual processing time reaches about 0.7 s on average,  
 569 which is much longer than the PSD-based system, it only  
 570 takes 13% of the total time. The time cost on capture and  
 571 processing is 1.036 s, which nearly equals the time cost of a  
 572 PSD-based system (1.044 s). Thus, the critical time cost by  
 573 a CCD-based system is the storage access time, which needs  
 574 to be optimized in the system design and implementation.

575 **6.3 Performance Trade-Off of CCD-Based System**

576 **6.3.1 Number of images processed**

577 As discussed in Sec. 3.2, the time complexity of processing  
 578 K images with the size of  $M \times N$  is  $O(KMN)$ . The time cost  
 579 by image processing is related to both the number of im-  
 580 ages and the image size. In previous experiments, 65 images  
 581 were used to calculate the center of a laser beam. With the  
 582 same image set, different numbers of images were selected  
 583 and used to calculate the center. The standard uncertainty  
 584 of systematic errors and time costs for this processing are  
 585 shown in Fig. 13. Time cost is a position-insensitive quantity,  
 586 which decreases linearly as the number of processed images  
 587 is reduced. With the decrease of processed images, the cal-  
 588 culated centers indicate a tendency toward growth. When 10  
 589 images were used for the centroid calculation, the time cost  
 590 by loading and processing images decreased to 0.53 s on aver-  
 591 age and the standard uncertainty of error rise to  $\pm 0.094 \mu\text{m}$ ,  
 592 which increased by 36.2% compared with the standard un-  
 593 certainty of error of processing 50 images (average standard  
 594 uncertainty of error is  $0.069 \mu\text{m}$ ). However, this uncertainty  
 595 is still smaller than the uncertainty of the PSD-based system  
 596 mentioned in Sec. block block. Although fewer images are  
 597 processed, the uncertainty of the systematic error will in-  
 598 crease, and the number of processed images will not greatly  
 599 reduce the resolution. In practical applications, reducing the  
 600 number of images is a good way to improve speed without  
 601 losing much resolution.

Q8

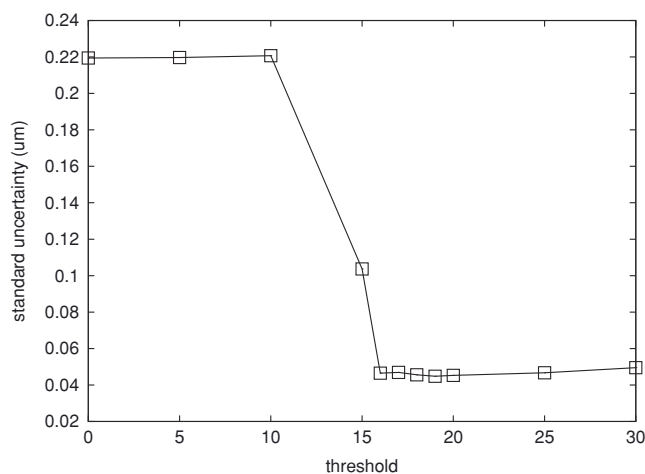
602 **6.3.2 Image window**

603 Another way to reduce the processing time is to diminish the  
 604 image size. To maintain the measurement range, the length  
 605 of the image window remained at 4.6 mm (1280 pixels)  
 606 and the width of the image window was diminished from  
 607 267 pixels to 250, 200, 150, 100, and 50 pixels. The same  
 608 image set was used but preprocessed by an image window  
 609 algorithm, which generates the desired image size. Accord-  
 610 ing to the Sec. 6.3.1, 10 images were used for calculating the  
 611 position of the laser beam to obtain the worst resolution. The  
 612 uncertainty of the systematic error and time cost are depicted  
 613 in Fig. 14. As the image width decreased, the uncertainty  
 614 of the systematic error rose very quickly, from  $0.074 \mu\text{m}$   
 615 to  $0.37 \mu\text{m}$ . Compared with the speed improvement gained by  
 616 reducing the number of processed images, a smaller image  
 617 window did not improve the speed remarkably. There is only  
 618 a benefit of 0.152 s in speed (load time and processing time),  
 619 with an increase of  $0.3 \mu\text{m}$  standard uncertainty. As the image  
 620 width decreases, the time cost decreases linearly, while the  
 621 uncertainty of the systematic error increases exponentially.  
 622 This shows a clear constraint for a CCD-based system: the  
 623 image window width should be larger than the size of the laser  
 624 spot; otherwise, the resolution will decrease exponentially as  
 625 the image window width decreases.

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626 **6.3.3 Binning**

627 Binning is the process of combining charges from adjacent  
 628 pixels in a CCD during the readout phase. It will improve the  
 629 readout speed at the expense of reducing the image dimen-  
 630 sion in pixels (number of image pixels). Since the charge of  
 631 adjacent pixels will be read out at the same time, the read  
 632 out noise of the CCD working in binning mode will decrease  
 633 compared to the CCD working in non-binning mode. How-  
 634 ever, the background noise will increase due to a larger expo-  
 635 sure area per pixel unit. An experiment of binning was carried  
 636 out under the same environment as the previous experiments.  
 637 A  $2 \times 2$  binning was applied for the measurement, thus image  
 638 dimension reduced to  $640 \times 133$  pixels. To verify the effect



**Fig. 15** Standard uncertainty of the systematic error for different thresholds. Binning will cause the level of noise increase when the background illumination is high. Applying a higher threshold can improve the resolution when using the binning technique.

of the noise, different thresholds were applied to 10 images for each position. The standard uncertainty of the systematic error are plotted in Fig. 15. The threshold 10, which was applied for the previous experiments, is not effective enough in the case of  $2 \times 2$  binning. The standard uncertainty of the systematic error ( $\pm 0.2423 \mu\text{m}$ ) for applying threshold 10 is nearly the same as the one without applying the threshold ( $\pm 0.2469 \mu\text{m}$ ). However, with a threshold of 19, the standard uncertainty reduced to the minimum value  $\pm 0.0448 \mu\text{m}$ , after which the standard uncertainty of the systematic error increased slightly as the threshold increased. Until applying the threshold of 85, the standard uncertainty remained at a level of less than  $0.1 \mu\text{m}$ . The average load time and process time reduced to 0.3 and 0.1 s separately. Binning will lead to a fast system speed with more noise when the background illumination is high. Under a high illumination situation, the binning technique should be used with a higher threshold to maintain high resolution.

## 7 Conclusion

Both the PSD and the CCD provide the capability of measuring laser beam deviations. As an analogue device, the PSD simply outputs two photocurrents to represent incident light position. The CCD utilizes a series of pixels which form a 2D image window to record the incident light intensity distribution. This 2D image window provides more information for post-processing. A narrow image window loses a lot of information, while a wide image window brings more noise and computation load. The optimal image window can be decided by the performance requirement of the application. In this paper, measurement achieved in a clear medium in a lab environment shows that the average resolution of a CCD-based system is nearly 1.5 times the average resolution of a PSD-based system. Furthermore, the resolution of a CCD-based system is independent of the incident laser beam position, while the PSD-based system obtains worse resolution as the laser beam position gets farther from the center of the PSD.

The performance of a CCD-based system could be adjusted by adjusting different parameters. A small image

window size is useful not only for increasing the resolution but also for improving the speed with the limitation that the laser spot should be entirely contained in the image. Applying a threshold to the noise level could efficiently reduce the systematic error. To improve the speed, binning is an alternative means, but the noise level should be reconsidered to choose a proper threshold. Saturation hides a lot of the laser spot information and thus should be definitely avoided. According to the analysis and experiment results provided in this paper, a CCD-based system can obtain better resolution than a PSD-based system with a comparable speed to a PSD-based system by adjusting these parameters. This makes the CCD a better alternative to the PSD in beam deviation measurement applications. Furthermore, the CCD records all the power distribution information of the laser spot, thus giving the capability of measuring the power distribution sensitive quantities, such as the turbidity of seawater.

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766	Biographies and photographs of the other authors not available.	775



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