Innovative Information Technology for Space Weather Research

February 3, 2003

Proposal Summary

Solar activity is closely related to the near earth environment – summarized descriptively as space weather. Changes in space weather have adverse effect on many aspects of life and systems on earth and in space, such as safety of spacecrafts and astronauts, interruption of communication and navigation systems, damage to power grids and trans-continental pipelines due to grounding electric currents caused by geomagnetic storms, and hazardous conditions to polar routed flights. Real-time, high-quality data and data processing would be a key element to forecast space weather promptly and accurately. We propose to use the innovative computation and information technologies (IT) for real time space weather monitoring and forecasting.

(1) We will use the artificial intelligence for pattern recognition, such as segmentation, Support Vector Machines (SVMs), and neural network to detect and characterize three important solar activities in real-time: filament eruptions, flares, and emerging flux regions (EFRs). Such detection methods will be initially applied to data obtained by our 5-station full-disk Global Hα Network which monitors solar activity continuously with a cadence of 1 minute and a pixel resolution of 1 arcsec. Full disk magnetograms and other ground-based and space data will be added as real time access to these data will be improved. Combining the real time detection with the recent statistical study on the relationship among filament eruptions, flares, EFRs, coronal mass ejections (CMEs), and geomagnetic storms, we will establish real time report of solar events and automatic forecasting of earth directed CMEs and subsequent geomagnetic storms.

(2) We combine state-of-art parallel computing techniques with phase diversity speckle imaging techniques, to yield near real-time diffraction limited images with a cadence of approximately 10 sec. For the 65cm telescope at Big Bear Solar Observatory (BBSO), the diffraction limit is about $0.15''$ at 5000Å. The parallel computer cluster will include 64 high speed Pentium processors. We will utilize the multiplicity of parallel paradigms to optimize the calculation of phase diverse speckle imaging to improve calculation speed. With such data, we will monitor flare producing active regions continuously and carry out targeted studies of the evolution and flows in flare producing active regions. Observations will be made in the photospheric continuum, as well as in the G-band (around 4300Å). High resolution magetograms will be obtained by speckle inversion. Our primary scientific objectives is to understand energy storage and release processes in extremely small scales. This includes: (1) understanding the complicated structure and flows in flux emergence, and their role in triggering flares; (2)detecting and characterizing the possible motion of magnetic footpoints in regions involved in different scales of energy release. The real time monitoring will be integrated into our space weather forecasting system.

The real-time phase diversity speckle imaging will be complement and supplement to the Adaptive Optics (AO) systems currently being developed at BBSO and National Solar Observatory (NSO), under NSF support. The hardware and data processing software of the parallel cluster will have direct application to the 4-meter Advanced Technology Solar Telescope (ATST) and the planned 1.6-m New Solar Telescope (NST) at BBSO.

(3) We will develop Web based software tools to post our processed data, events and forecasting in real time, and to be integrated with current solar activity and space weather prediction Web pages at BBSO. This will also be a part of Virtual Solar Observatory (VSO) being developed by the solar physics community. We will also develop a high speed server and advanced user interface and data visualization, so the real-time data and forecasting can be available to the community efficiently.

Finally, let us address two criteria required for an NSF proposal:

(1) Intellectual merit: Inplementing IT in space weather research will be a truly multi-discipline project involving faculty members in solar physics, imaging technology and parallel computing technology from 4 institutions in 3 countries. Research team members are well known in their respective research fields. Space weather, artificial intelligence and parallel computing are three areas standing in the frontier of science and technology.

(2) Broad Impact: the proposed work will effectively integrate research and education. Three Ph.D. students will recieve training and finish their Ph.D. theses in this project. We also anticipate

that 5 to 8 undergraduate students to be involved in the project. Several new courses will be developed during the tenure of the project, and annual workshop will be held involving students and researchers. The technology to be developed, will not only be useful for solar physics, but also will have impacts on medical and military applications. All our developed codes will be freely available to the community. Of course, as we stated earlier, space weather forecasting is having huge impact on life and systems on earth and space under this era of modern technology.

A. Background

The sun is the source of space weather – the disturbances whose radiative, field and particle energy directly impacts earth. Solar activity changes the radiative and particle output of the sun, producing corresponding changes in the near-earth space environment, as well as at the earth's surface. The most dramatic events on the sun, insofar as space weather effects are concerned, are solar flares and coronal mass ejections (CMEs).

A flare is defined as a sudden, rapid, and intense variation in brightness. A solar flare occurs when magnetic energy that has built up in the solar atmosphere is suddenly released. Radiation is emitted across virtually the entire electromagnetic spectrum, from radio waves at the long wavelength end, through optical emission to X-rays and gamma rays at the short wavelength end. The amount of energy released is the equivalent of millions of 100-megaton hydrogen bombs exploding at the same time! Flares are often associated with CMEs.

A CME is due to a large scale rearrangement of the solar magnetic field which can induce a geoeffective solar wind structure. Each CME may carry away a mass of up to 10^{13} kg and release up to 10^{25} J of energy from coronal magnetic fields (Harrison, 1994, 1995). Following their discovery, CMEs were soon found to be correlated with the occurrence of geomagnetic storms. CMEs are easily observed at the solar limb, where they are seen against a dark background. However, the earth-directed, disk CMEs are much harder to detect – although they are the ones that have the most important geomagnetic effects. Therefore, detecting the early manifestation of CMEs on the solar disk is essential to understanding earth-directed CMEs themselves. Establishing the correlation among the occurrence of CMEs and some other solar surface phenomena, such as filament eruptions and flares, is a long-standing problem in solar physics. After firm relationships are established, the correlated solar surface phenomena can provide an early warning of the occurrence of earth-directed CMEs and geo-effectivness of CMEs. A key challenge to move this research area forward is to have real-time, automatic and accurate detection and characterization of solar events, and to use the results for real time space weather forecasts.

Space weather forecast faces another challenge: obtaining and utilizing real-time diffraction limited images. An important goal in ground-based astronomy is to improve the angular resolution that can be achieved. The angular resolution is nearly always limited by phase aberrations introduced by atmospheric turbulence. For the special case of ground-based solar astronomy, the spatial resolution is typically limited to about $0.5''$ for short-exposure images ($\leq$20 ms) and to about $1.0''$ for long-exposure images (about 1 s). $1''$ is about 730 km on the sun. Many basic processes on the Sun, however, take place at scales below $1.0''$. The photon mean free path in the lower photosphere corresponds to about $0.1''$ at disk center. Magnetic structures may occur on even smaller scales. For example, magnetic elements outside of sunspots have typical diameters smaller than $0.2''$ (Keller, 1995). Despite their small size, these small structures are believed to play an important role in large-scale phenomena such as the solar magnetic dynamo or triggering of solar flares and CMEs. To understand a variety of solar phenomena, it is, therefore, indispensable to reach a spatial resolution well below the seeing limit and possibly approaching the diffraction limit of existing and future large solar telescopes. A number of sophisticated techniques have been conceived to combat the deleterious effects of atmospheric turbulence in astronomical imaging in general. Among these are speckle imaging, phase-diversity and phase-diverse speckle imaging. Phase-diversity speckle imaging techniques are particularly attractive for solar astronomy because (1) they require relatively simple and inexpensive instrumentation, (2) they perform well with relatively few images in high-signal regimes, (3) they lead to a joint estimation of the object and the wavefront, and (4) they obviate the need for complicated calibration.

Speckle imaging and phase diverse speckle imaging apply complex numerical algorithms for data analysis. Usually, only a few data sets are analyzed per year, and only at the end of this process does one discover whether something really interesting has been captured. This is due to the long computation time, so raw images have to be saved to be processed off-line, and a hard disk is filled up very quickly. The time-lag between the observation and the data analysis is far too long for any sort of rapid response, such as would be needed for space weather warnings and flare forecasting. Furthermore, the time lag renders the whole scientific enterprise less efficient than it needs to be considering today's computer technologies. The power of parallel computing has just started to be exploited in solar physics. Supercomputers have been used for numerical calculations in astrophysics, however they cannot be used for real-time data processing because the observational data cannot be transferred to the supercomputer centers in real-time.

Parallel processing of solar data will literally provide a new window through which we can observe the Sun in exquisite detail and study the evolution of granulation and sunspots in the active regions leading to major flares. The underlying data processing algorithms are understood, but the complexity is such that only parallel computing enables us to visualize and interpret large data sets effectively. This is an excellent chance for scientists and engineers to do cutting-edge, interdisciplinary work. The development of multithreaded numerical algorithms for high spatial resolution imaging becomes even more important in the context of proposed, next generation, 4 meter-class solar telescopes (Advanced Technology Solar Telescope). All the work proposed here will be beneficial in exploiting the capabilities of such an advanced telescope. Scalable numerical algorithms and computer architectures ensure that we will be in step with the demands for higher spatial, spectral, and temporal resolution and larger fields-of-view observations. In addition, Big Bear Solar Observatory (BBSO) is planning an intermediate size telescope: 1.6-meter New Solar Telescope, which will be operational in 2005/2006, a number of years before ATST. Therefore, we will utilize the proposed techniques and tools in the near future.

B. Automatic Detection and Real-Time Monitoring of Solar Activity

B.1 Introduction and Current Status

In the last few years, we have gained significant experience in the detection of sudden disappearance of solar filaments. This was the center part of the Ph.D. thesis of J. Gao (2002). He combined thresholding and region growing methods which were based on segmentation principle (Beveridge, 1989) in the detection. A sample result of the detection is shown in Figure 1, where the raw data are displayed in the top row and detected filaments are in the bottom row. The positions and sizes of all the filaments are generated automatically. A large filament labeled "A" in Figure 1, disappeared on May 21, 1999, and was detected by the program. In this figure, one can see, by detailed inspection, that the disappearance/appearance of even small filaments are detected, demonstrating the sensitivity of the program. This program is running daily at BBSO, providing real time detection of filaments and statistical properties of filaments in various sizes.

B.2 Objectives

We propose to advance our studies in the following two areas:

(1) We will develop new detection methods to detect filament eruptions, flares and New Flux Emergences (EFRs), and compare the effectiveness of different methods.

These three kinds of features have different morphologies in solar chromosphere. Filaments are elongated dark features, flares are rapid brightenings and EFRs have dark fibril structure in the center of the growing region (arch filaments) and bright patches at footpoints. These three activities have different time scales: impulsive flares occur in on time scales of minutes; filament eruptions may be associated with flares, and the process lasts between minutes and hours; an EFR may take hours to a day to be fully developed. We will develop pattern recognition methods to detect all three kinds of dynamic phenomenon. Examples of existing solar feature include statistical pattern recognition method developed by Turmon et al. (2002) to label faculae and sunspots; neural network detection of flares by Fernandez Borda et al. (2002); and Machine Learning systems reviewed by Mjolsness and Decoste (2001). However, we found that detection of dynamic solar activities is still far from being mature.

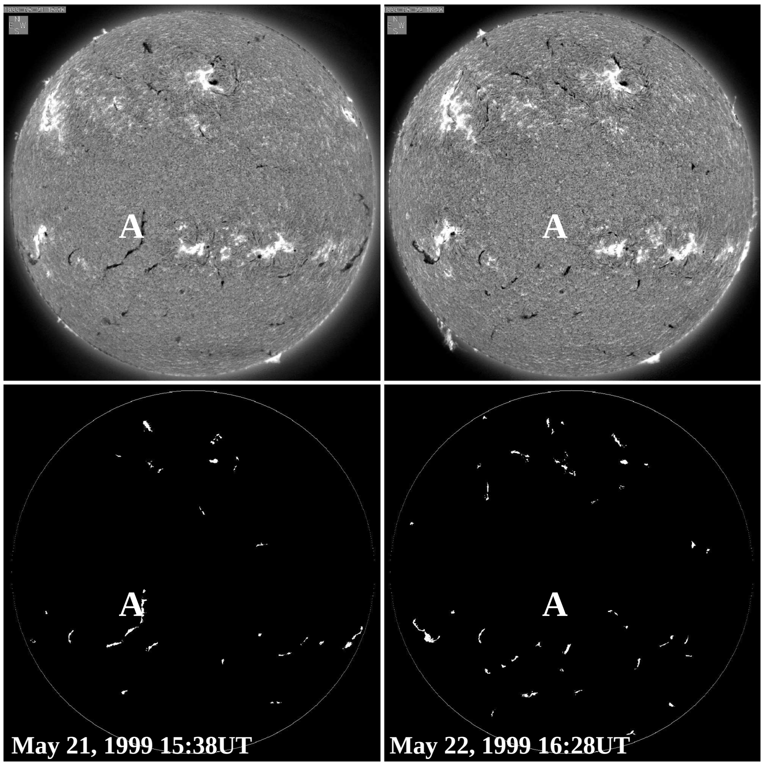

Figure 1: Images that demonstrate our detection of a filament disappearance: The top row shows two Hα images obtained on May 21 and 22, 1999, respectively; the bottom row shows filaments detected by our program. A big filament marked by “A” clearly disappeared, and was just as clearly detected by our program.

(2) We will characterize the detected solar features. There are many properties of solar feature worthy monitoring and we can not include t all. We will concentrate on the following features which are most relevant to the space weather research:

(a) We will record the orientation of filaments, in-conjunction with the magnetic polarity detection from full disk magnetograms to establish the orientation of magnetic clouds associated with the filament eruptions and CMEs (Yurchyshyn et al. 2001, 2003). We have reported on the relationship between the projection speed of CMEs, measured at $20R_\odot$ from SOHO/LASCO images, and the hourly averaged magnitude of the southwardly directed magnetic field, B_z, in interplanetary ejecta, as measured by the Advanced Composition Explorer (ACE) magnetometer. We found that intensity of the B_z is an exponential function of the CME's speeds. We also present data which support earlier conclusions on correlation of B_z and the Dst index. We have developed a method to predict the intensity of geomagnetic storms, which is based on the above mentioned correlations and the fact that the orientation and chirality of the erupted solar filaments correspond to the orientation and chirality of interplanetary ejecta. Such a method will be used in real-time, if we can detect the filament eruption in real time. This will give a 24 to 48 hours advanced warning of arrival of geomagnetic storms. Based on about 20 cases studied so far (not in real time), our prediction is remarkably accurate. The objective of the proposed study is to have automatic real-time predictions of earth-directed CMEs which have potential to produce geo-magnetic storms.

(b) We will automatically calculate the eruption speed of erupting filaments by tracking the front of filaments as a function of time. This will aid us to calculate the speed of CMEs.

(c) We will find the morphology of solar flares: in particular, if they are two-ribbon or compact flares. From one of our on-going studies, statistically, two ribbon flares may be more closely associated with CMEs.

(d) We will characterize the growth and separation speed of EFRs. EFRs are closely associated with the triggering of flare and CMEs (e.g. Nitta and Hudson, 2001; Feynman and Martin, 1995). In addition, the magnetic orientation of EFRs will be detected in real-time, as the regions that do not follow the Hale-Nicholson law would be more likely to produce solar flares.

B.3 Utilizing State-of-Art Pattern Recognition Methods

In this section, we discuss several methods that we intend to use for pattern recognition based on solar observations. The scientific goal is to develop new automatic procedures to detect disappearing filaments, flares and EFRs. The tasks of segmentation and classification are challenging since it is very difficult to take into account the complexity involved in the human classification process. The initial data to be used will be from the full disk Global Hα Network. The five stations in the network are at BBSO, Kanzelhöhe Solar Observatory (KSO) in Austria, Catania Astrophysical Observatory (CAO) in Italy, Yunnan Astronomical Observatory (YNAO) and Huairou Solar Observing Station (HSOS) in China. Nominally, each station obtains Hα image every minute with 1 arcsec pixel resolution. For the detection of EFRs, complementary real-time full disk magnetograms are very useful. BBSO can obtain such data set from Big Bear station of Global Oscillation Network Group (GONG). Of course, our techniques are applicable to other ground-based and space data sets, when they are available in real-time.

Features Extraction Using Image Segmentation Techniques

We have conducted the preliminary experiments of filament detection using local thresholding and morphological operators. The method consists of an advanced local thresholding preprocessing stage, separating dark features from a solar disk image, followed by a series of directional morphological filtering which extracts different shapes. Although, the method has been favorably compared against the existing technique (Gao et al., 2002), the step of local thresholding presents somewhat heuristic and consumes more time.

With additional work on filament registration, we propose the following steps. The initial preprocessing involves brightness normalization and limb darkening removal. We approximate the limb darkening by a mathematical function for adjustment. We also perform the equal-area normalization. Using the disk center and radius, the disk is transformed to achieve uniform area of solar features throughout the disk. After the preprocessing, we perform a global thresholding and employ morphological closing operations with multi-directional linear structuring elements to extract elongated shapes in the image. After logical union of directional filtering results, remaining noises are removed from the final outcome using morphological dilation and erosion with a circular structuring element.

We will extensively test the performance of the new procedures on serial solar images. The experiences in the segmentation of filaments will be transformed into the detection of other solar features, such as flares and EFRs.

Features Classification Using Neural Network Approaches

A neural network is an information-processing system that has certain performance characteristics in common with biological neural networks. Such a technique has been used to detect solar flares (Fernandez Borda et al., 2002). Neural networks have been developed as generalizations of mathematical models of human cognition or neural biology. A neural network is characterized by (1) its pattern of connections between the neurons, (2) its method of determining the weights on the connections, and (3) its activation function. The architecture consists of an input layer, a number of hidden layers, and an output layer. The processing ability of the network is stored in the inter-unit connection weights, obtained by a process of learning from a set of training patterns.

We have conducted research on an Adaptive-Resonance-Theory (ART) based neural architecture for pattern recognition and image enhancement without prior knowledge (Shih and Chang, 1992). In order to build the training set for the neural network, the solar features are selected from the BBSO database. We are currently using the following image features: (1) mean brightness of the image frame, (2) standard deviation of the brightness, (3) the brightness of the pixel of maximum brightness derivative between consecutive images, (4) radial position of that pixel, (5) variation of mean brightness between consecutive images, and (6) contrast between the point with maximum brightness derivative and the minimum of 5 by 5 neighborhood. The multilayer back-propagation neural network (Rumelhart et al., 1986) will be adopted for the solar features classification. The approach in our preliminary study looks promising. We will explore more image features statistically or structurely to classify different types of solar features.

RBF and SVM Approches

The focus of solar phenomena detection is the development of efficient feature-based classifiers. Two advanced techniques other than back-propagation neural networks are proposed: RBF classifiers and SVM classifiers. Radial Basis Function (RBF) network is a two-layer, hybrid feed forward learning network. It is a fully connected network and generally used as a classification tool. It was introduced by Broomhead and Lowe (1988). In a RBF model, the first layer from input nodes to hidden neurons is an unsupervised layer and the second layer from hidden neurons to output nodes is a supervised layer. Each hidden neuron has a radially symmetric basis function as its activation function. The characteristic feature of the basis function is that its response decreases (or increases) monotonically with distance from the center of the basis function. The centers, the distance scale, and the figure of the basis function are the parameters of the model. Typically, Gaussian-like and direct or inverse multiquadric-like radial basis functions are mostly used as activation functions. The purpose of the hidden neurons is to cluster the input data and reduce the dimensionality.

The transformation between the input nodes and hidden neurons is non-linear. It means that the first layer connecting the input nodes and the hidden neurons has unit weight and does not have to be trained. However, the transformation of the second layer is linear. The objective of the RBF network is by training data to minimize the sum of square errors and find the optimal weights between hidden neurons and output nodes. These optimal weights can classify effectively the test

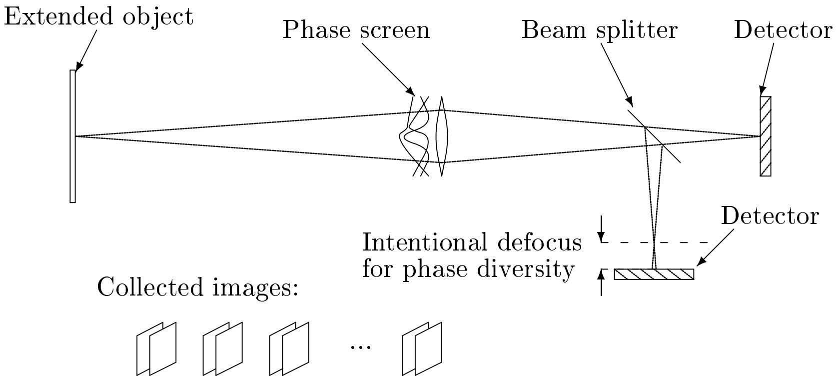

Figure 2: Typical data collection scheme, illustrating the data collection model. Only the straight through path is used for speckle interferometry. Short exposure images are collected for each of multiple atmospheric realization. For phase diversity methods, the conventional short-exposure images are supplemented with additional, simultaneous images that are intentionally defocused.

data into correct corresponding classes. There are some different training procedures like two-stage training, back-propagation training, and support-vector training that can be applied to RBF network (Schwenker et al., 2000). The applications of RBF network include the classification of 3-D visual objects, high resolution, handwritten digits (Schwenker et al., 2000), and face recognition (Er et al., 2002; Huang and Wechsler, 1999).

The basic idea of Support Vector Machine (SVM) is to separate two input pattern vectors into two classes by a hyperplane in the high dimensional space. What this means is that we always increment the dimension by one into if we fail to separate the input pattern vectors in dimension d. We do not stop the process until the dimension such that the desired property is satisfied. Hence, this dimension is called VC dimension (Vapnik, 1995).

SVM has recently been introduced as a new technique for solving a variety of learning and function estimation problems. Some applications using SVM include pharmaceutical data analysis, dynamic reconstruction of a chaotic system, and time series prediction.

C. Real-Time Image Reconstruction with Parallel Computer Cluster

C.1 Introduction – Two Different Methods

Seeing is the primary obstacle to obtaining high resolution time-series solar observations from the ground. Turbulence in the atmosphere along the line of sight randomly distorts the wavefronts. The result is blurring and geometrical distortions in the collected images.

Adaptive optics (AO) can fix some of the problem, but the high bandwidth correction needed allows only partial correction. Also AO is not so effective for large fields of view because of anisoplanatism. Large fields of view are required for space weather applications. The solution is post processing of image data in subfields smaller than the anisoplanatic angle, which for many applications is on the order of $\lesssim 5''$. The problem is to separate the object and the aberrations, two unknown quantities, in the images in the presence of noise, a third unknown. The exposure time for each frame must be short enough that the evolving atmosphere can be regarded as frozen during the exposure. The data collection model is shown in Fig. 2. Two different approaches have been developed and used for larger solar data sets: Speckle Interferometry and Phase Diversity.

Speckle imaging is a relatively mature technique for obtaining fine-resolution images in the

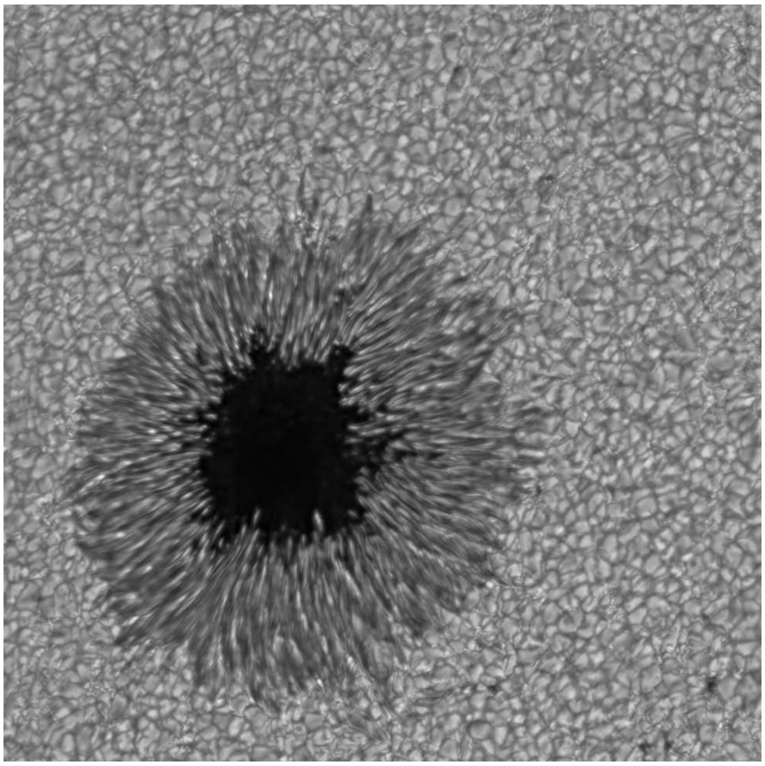

Figure 3: Speckle reconstruction of active region NOAA 8673 observed with the 1k $\times$ 1k pixel, 12-bit SMD CCD camera on 27 August 1999. The FOV is $76'' \times 76''$, the exposure time is 4 ms, and the Fried-parameter amounts to 12.6 cm.

presence of atmospheric turbulence. This technique requires the collection of many short-exposure images of a static object. Clever processing of this short-exposure time series affords the restoration of fine-resolution information that would be irretrievable if a single, long-exposure image were collected (Dainty, 1984). Speckle imaging requires the collection of 100 or more images so that the ensemble average over the class of all possible realizations may be approximated by an arithmetic average over a finite number of realizations. Speckle-imaging methods have been successfully adapted to the solar-imaging problem (Keller and von der Lühe, 1992; de Boer and Kneer, 1992; von der Lühe, 1993, 1994). The parallel operation for speckle imaging has been implemented at BBSO (Denker et al., 2001). This will not be one of the primary topics in the proposal. However, our experience in speckle imaging with parallel cluster will aid the more important component of the proposal: the phase diversity speckle imaging. Figure 3 shows an example of speckle reconstruction using 1K by 1K camera at BBSO.

Phase Diversity (PD) methods, see Section C.2, utilize a model of the image formation process to constrain the estimation of the aberrations and the common object in two image channels with a known difference in the pupil phase, usually a focus shift. An image collected in this second optical channel will contain the effects of the unknown phase aberrations but will also be influenced by the intentional defocus, which adds a known quadratic phase.

It is somewhat remarkable that estimates for the object and the unknown aberrations can be made from these two images, given the known quadratic phase diversity. However, in stressing regimes (e.g., poor seeing or weak signal levels) a single pair of phase-diversity images may not contain enough information to estimate jointly and with high fidelity the object and wavefront. Even under favorable conditions for which phase diversity is able to produce good wavefront estimates, we have observed that object information at isolated spatial frequencies may be irretrievably lost, resulting in object estimates with significant artifacts. These cases motivate a third fine-resolution imaging technique referred to as Phase-Diverse Speckle (PDS – see Paxman et al., 1992b), which requires the simultaneous collection of one conventional short-exposure image and at least one short-exposure image with phase diversity, for each of multiple atmospheric realizations. The problem with missing information at isolated frequencies can be fixed by using PD separately on each image pair in a PDS data set but then using the full set to make a single restoration of the common object (Löfdahl and Scharmer, 1994), a technique referred to as Partitioned PDS (Paxman et al., 1996). For the problem with poor seeing and weak signal, however, the solution is to jointly process the whole set (Paxman et al., 1992b; Paxman and Seldin, 1994); this method goes by the name Joint PDS (Paxman et al., 1996).

C.2 Phase Diverse Speckle Imaging

First proposed by Gonsalves and Chidlaw (1979); Gonsalves (1982), PD was not developed for solar imaging until in the nineties, when PDS (Paxman et al., 1992b) was usually incorporated. Typically, PD methods use two light channels, one in-focus and one out-of-focus image; the aberrations are then estimated and corrected by combining the information in images from the two channels. The out-of-focus channel can be conveniently arranged with a simple beam splitter and a second detector array that is translated along the optical axis as in Fig. 2 or with a combined beam splitter and mirror that puts both images on the same detector, e.g. as shown in Fig. 4.

PD methods, like Speckle methods, require short-exposure images ($\lesssim$ 10 ms) to 'freeze' the wavefront aberrations, which makes it possible to separate the object information and the information on atmospheric turbulence. Also the preprocessing is similar with the usual corrections by means of the average dark and flat field image. The image displacements within the sequence are estimated along with the other aberrations. The image formation model utilized by PD methods is only valid within the isoplanatic patch so large field of view PD restorations are typically mosaics of smaller restored subfields.

The first uses of PD to retrieve fine-resolution solar images were reported by Löfdahl and Scharmer (1993, 1994); Seldin and Paxman (1994). Since then it's been used for large scale data processing by Löfdahl et al. (1998, 2001), for investigations of G-band bright point dynamics

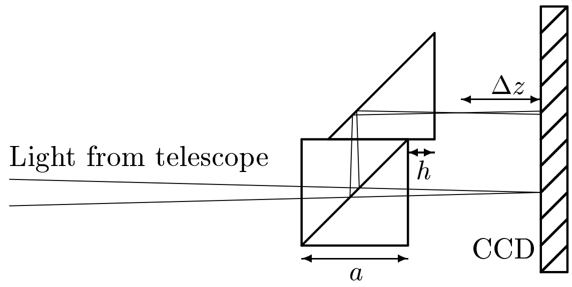

Figure 4: A simple PD detector can be made by gluing a cube beam splitter and a prism together in this configuration. Varying the size of the cube, a, and a displacement, h, between cube and prism allows some freedom for setting the amount of diversity displacement, Δz, and matching the separation of the two images to the detector size.

(Berger et al., 1998b,a; van Ballegooijen et al., 1998). Other projects include reconstruction of white-light, line-wing, and magnetogram data from a low-order AO system for demonstrating new results in the evolution of small-scale magnetic field, as well as sunspot photometry (Tritschler and Schmidt, 2002; Keller et al., 2000).

Very recently, Löfdahl (2002) developed an algorithm for Multi-Frame Blind Deconvolution (MFBD) together with a set of linear equality constraints that describe the data collection scheme. PD and JPDS are cases that can be treated with this approach, as demonstrated by Löfdahl and Scharmer (2002, see Fig. 5), who JPDS processed a long sequence of images from the new Swedish 1-m Solar Telescope for studying the fine structure of sunspot penumbrae (Scharmer et al., 2002), see images and a movie at `http://www.solarphysics.kva.se/NatureNov2002/`. The new formulation also accommodates joint processing of other kinds of data sets, e.g. several simultaneous PDS data sets in different wavelengths, see Fig. 6. The JPDS codes currently used at NSO which are developed by Paxman in the Environmental Research Institute of Michigan (known as ERIM codes) are proprietary and the source code is not available. Our proposed new method will have the greater flexibility and will be free available to science and engineering community. Dr. Löfdahl will be the main contributor to this effort.

Here follows a description of the approach of Löfdahl (2002). Unless auxiliary information is used, the Blind Deconvolution problem for a single frame is not well posed because the object and PSF information in a data frame cannot be separated. There are different ways of bringing auxiliary information to bear on the problem. MFBD uses several frames which helps somewhat, because the solutions are constrained by a requirement that the object be the same, but is often not enough to get useful results without further constraints. One class of MFBD methods constrain the solutions by requiring that the PSFs correspond to wavefronts over a certain pupil geometry, expanded in a finite basis. This is an effective approach but there is still a problem of uniqueness in that different phases can give the same PSF. Phase Diversity and the more general PDS methods are special cases of this class of MFBD, where the observations are usually arranged so that in-focus data is collected together with intentionally defocused data, where information on the object is sacrificed for more information on the aberrations. The known differences and similarities between the phases are used to get better estimates.

We first present a technique for jointly estimating the common object and the aberrations in a series of images that differ only in the aberrations. With no extra information beyond the image formation model, including aberrations from the phase in the generalized pupil transmission function, it is a Maximum-Likelihood (ML) Multi-Frame Blind Deconvolution (MFBD) (Schulz, 1993) method. Constraining the PSFs to be physical by requiring that they come from an underlying parameterization of the phase over the pupil is a powerful technique. Although such methods do work (Schulz et al., 1997; Van Kampen and Paxman, 1998), methods using more information work better (Tyler et al., 1998). Data sets used in Phase-Diverse Speckle (PDS) interferometry (Paxman