

High Dynamic Range Image Sensors

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Motivation

- Some scenes contain very wide range of illumination with intensities varying over 100dB range or more
- Biological vision systems and silver halide film can image such *high dynamic range* scenes with little loss of contrast information
- Dynamic range of solid-state image sensors varies over wide range:

high end CCDs	> 78dB
consumer grade CCDs	66dB
consumer grade CMOS imagers	54dB
- So, except for high end CCDs, image sensor dynamic range is not high enough to capture high dynamic range scenes

Imaging High Dynamic Range Scene – The problem

HDR Scene



Short Exposure-time Image



Medium Exposure-time Image



Long Exposure-time Image



Extending Sensor Dynamic Range

- Several techniques and architectures have been proposed for extending image sensor dynamic range – **many questions**:
- What exactly is sensor dynamic range, what does it depend on, and how should it be quantified (100dB, 12 bits, ...)?
- In what sense do these techniques extend dynamic range?
- How well do they work (e.g., accuracy of capturing scene information and/ or image quality)?
- How should their performance be compared?
 - Are all 100dB sensors equivalent?
 - Is a 120dB sensor better than a 100dB one?

Tutorial Objectives

- To provide quantitative understanding of sensor DR and SNR and their dependencies on key sensor parameters
- To describe some of the popular techniques for extending image sensor dynamic range
- To provide a framework for comparing the performance of these techniques:
 - Quantitatively based on DR and SNR
 - Qualitatively based on other criteria, e.g., linearity, complexity . . .

Outline

- **Background**
 - Introduction to Image Sensors
 - Image Sensor Model
 - Sensor Dynamic Range (DR) and SNR
- **Description/ Analysis of HDR Schemes**
- **Other HDR Image Sensors**
- **Conclusion**
- **References**

Image Sensors

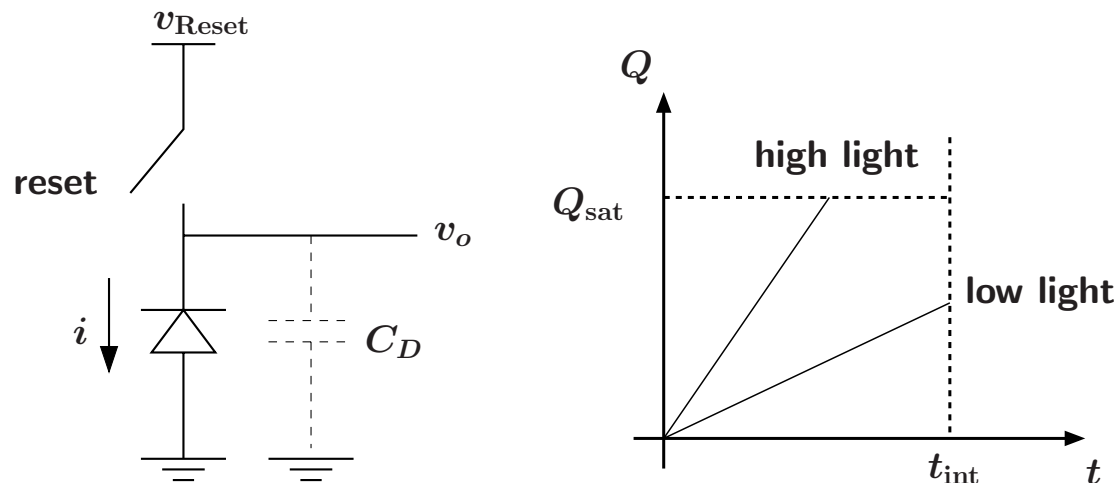
- Area image sensor consists of:
 - 2-D array of pixels, each containing a photodetector that converts light into photocurrent and readout devices
 - Circuits at periphery for readout, ...
- Since photocurrent is very small (10s – 100s of fA), it is difficult to read out directly
- Conventional sensors (CCDs, CMOS APS) operate in *direct integration* – photocurrent is integrated during exposure into charge, read out as voltage
- In some high dynamic range sensors photocurrent is directly converted to output voltage

Signal Path for Single Pixel



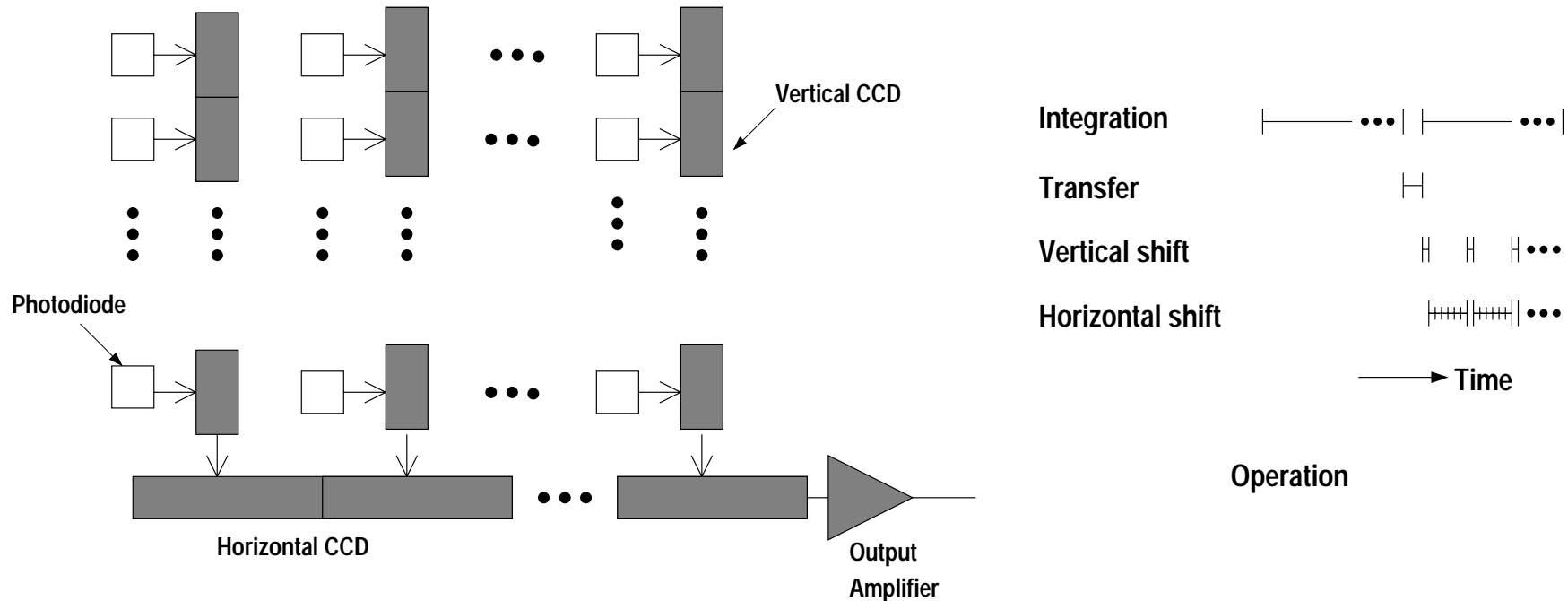
- Photon flux conversion to photocurrent is *linear* (for fixed irradiance spectral distribution) – governed by *quantum efficiency*
- Photocurrent is integrated into charge during exposure
- In most sensors, charge to voltage conversion is performed using linear amplifier(s)

Direct Integration



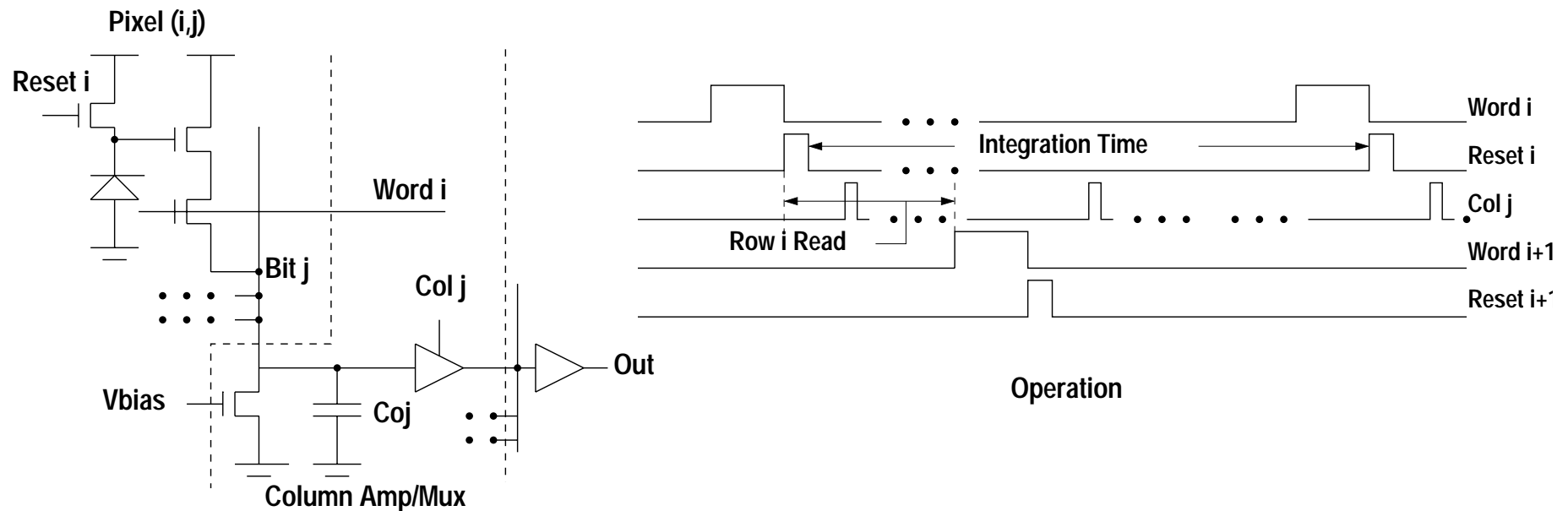
- Direct integration:
 - The photodetector is **reset** to v_{Reset}
 - Photocurrent discharges C_D during **integration time** or exposure time, t_{int}
 - At the end of integration, the accumulated (negative) charge $Q(t_{int})$ (or voltage $v_o(t_{int})$) is read out
- Saturation charge Q_{sat} is called **well capacity**

Interline Transfer CCD Image Sensor



- Collected charge is *simultaneously* transferred to the vertical CCDs at the end of integration time (a new integration period can begin right after the transfer) and then shifted out
- Charge transfer to vertical CCDs simultaneously *resets* the photodiodes – shuttering done electronically (see [2])

CMOS Active Pixel Sensor (APS)



- Pixel voltage is read out one row at a time to column storage capacitors, then read out using the column decoder and multiplexer
- Row integration times are *staggered* by row/column readout time

Image Sensor Non-idealities

- Temporal noise
- Fixed pattern noise (FPN)
- Dark current
- Spatial sampling and low pass filtering

Temporal Noise

- Caused by photodetector and MOS transistor thermal, shot, and $1/f$ noise
- Can be lumped into three additive components:
 - Integration noise (due to photodetector shot noise)
 - Reset noise
 - Readout noise
- Noise increases with signal, but so does the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR)
- Noise under dark conditions presents a fundamental limit on sensor dynamic range (DR)

Fixed Pattern Noise (FPN)

- FPN is the spatial variation in pixel outputs under uniform illumination due to device and interconnect mismatches over the sensor
- Two FPN components: offset and gain
- Most visible at low illumination (offset FPN more important than gain FPN)
- Worse for CMOS image sensors than for CCDs due to multiple levels of amplification
 - **FPN due to column amplifier mismatches major problem**
- Offset FPN can be reduced using *correlated double sampling* (CDS)

Dark current

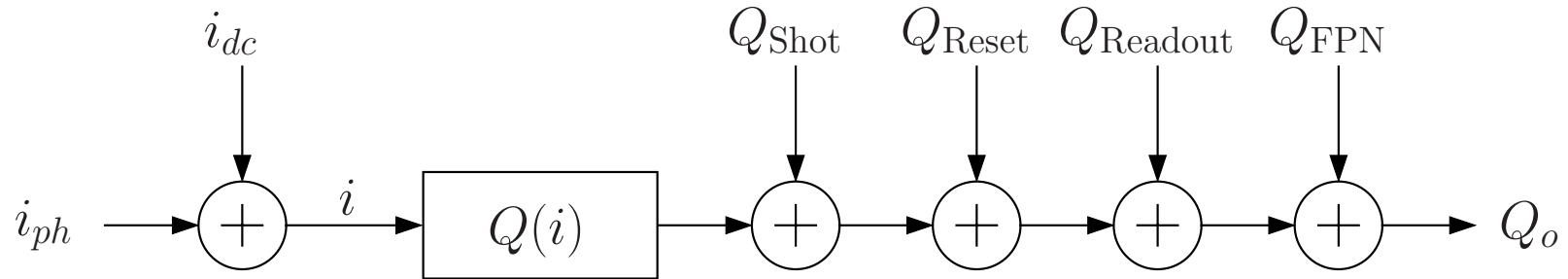
- Dark current is the leakage current at the integration node, *i.e.*, current not induced by photogeneration, due to junction (and transistor) leakages
- It limits the image sensor dynamic range by
 - introducing dark integration noise (due to shot noise)
 - varying widely across the image sensor array causing fixed pattern noise (FPN) that cannot be easily removed
 - reducing signal swing

Sampling and Low Pass Filtering

- The image sensor is a spatial (as well as temporal) sampling device — frequency components above the Nyquist frequency cause aliasing
- It is not a point sampling device — signal low pass filtered before sampling by
 - spatial integration (of current density over photodetector area)
 - crosstalk between pixels
- Resolution below the Nyquist frequency measured by Modulation Transfer Function (MTF)
- Imaging optics also limit spatial resolution (due to diffraction)

Image Sensor Model

- Photocurrent to output charge model:



- $Q(i)$ is the **sensor transfer function** and is given by:

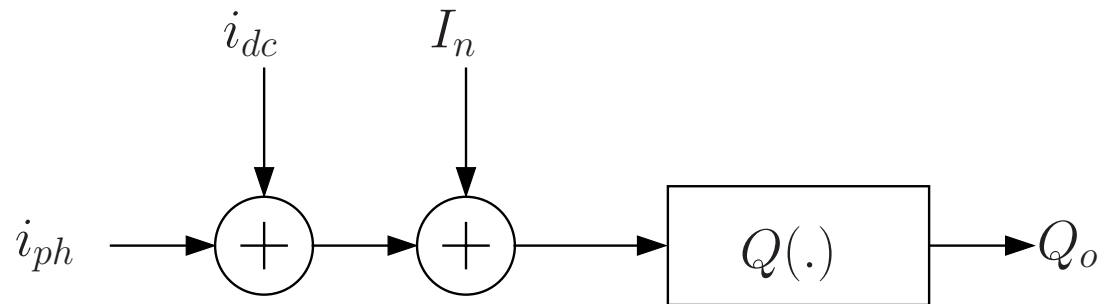
$$Q(i) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{q}(it_{int}) \text{ electrons} & \text{for } 0 < i < \frac{qQ_{sat}}{t_{int}} \\ Q_{sat} & \text{for } i \geq \frac{qQ_{sat}}{t_{int}} \end{cases}$$

- Q_{Shot} is the noise charge due to integration (shot noise) and has average power $\frac{1}{q}(i_{ph} + i_{dc})t_{int}$ electrons²
- Q_{Reset} is the reset noise (*KTC* noise)
- $Q_{Readout}$ is the readout circuit noise
- Q_{FPN} is the offset FPN (we ignore gain FPN)

- All noise components are independent

Input Referred Noise Power

- To calculate SNR and dynamic range we use the model with equivalent input referred noise current



- Since $Q(\cdot)$ is linear we can readily find the average power of the equivalent input referred noise r.v. I_n , *i.e.*, average input referred noise power, to be

$$\sigma_{I_n}^2 = \frac{q^2}{t_{int}^2} \left(\frac{1}{q} (i_{ph} + i_{dc}) t_{int} + \sigma_r^2 \right) A^2,$$

where

$$\sigma_r^2 = \sigma_{Reset}^2 + \sigma_{Readout}^2 + \sigma_{FPN}^2 \text{ electron}^2,$$

is the *read noise* power

Correlated Double Sampling (CDS)

- The output of the sensor is sampled twice; once right after reset and the second time with the signal present

– Sample without signal:

$$Q_o^{\text{Reset}} = Q'_{\text{Reset}} + Q'_{\text{Readout}} + Q_{\text{FPN}}$$

– Sample with signal:

$$Q_o = \frac{1}{q}(i_{ph} + i_{dc})t_{\text{int}} + Q_{\text{Shot}} + Q_{\text{Reset}} + Q_{\text{Readout}} + Q_{\text{FPN}}$$

– The difference is:

$$Q_o - Q_o^{\text{Reset}} = \frac{1}{q}(i_{ph} + i_{dc})t_{\text{int}} + Q_{\text{Shot}} + (Q - Q')_{\text{Reset}} + (Q - Q')_{\text{Readout}}$$

offset FPN is eliminated, readout noise power is doubled, and reset noise is either eliminated (CCDs, photogate APS) or doubled (photodiode APS)

- WARNING: If sensor transfer function $Q(\cdot)$ is not linear, **CDS DOES NOT WORK**

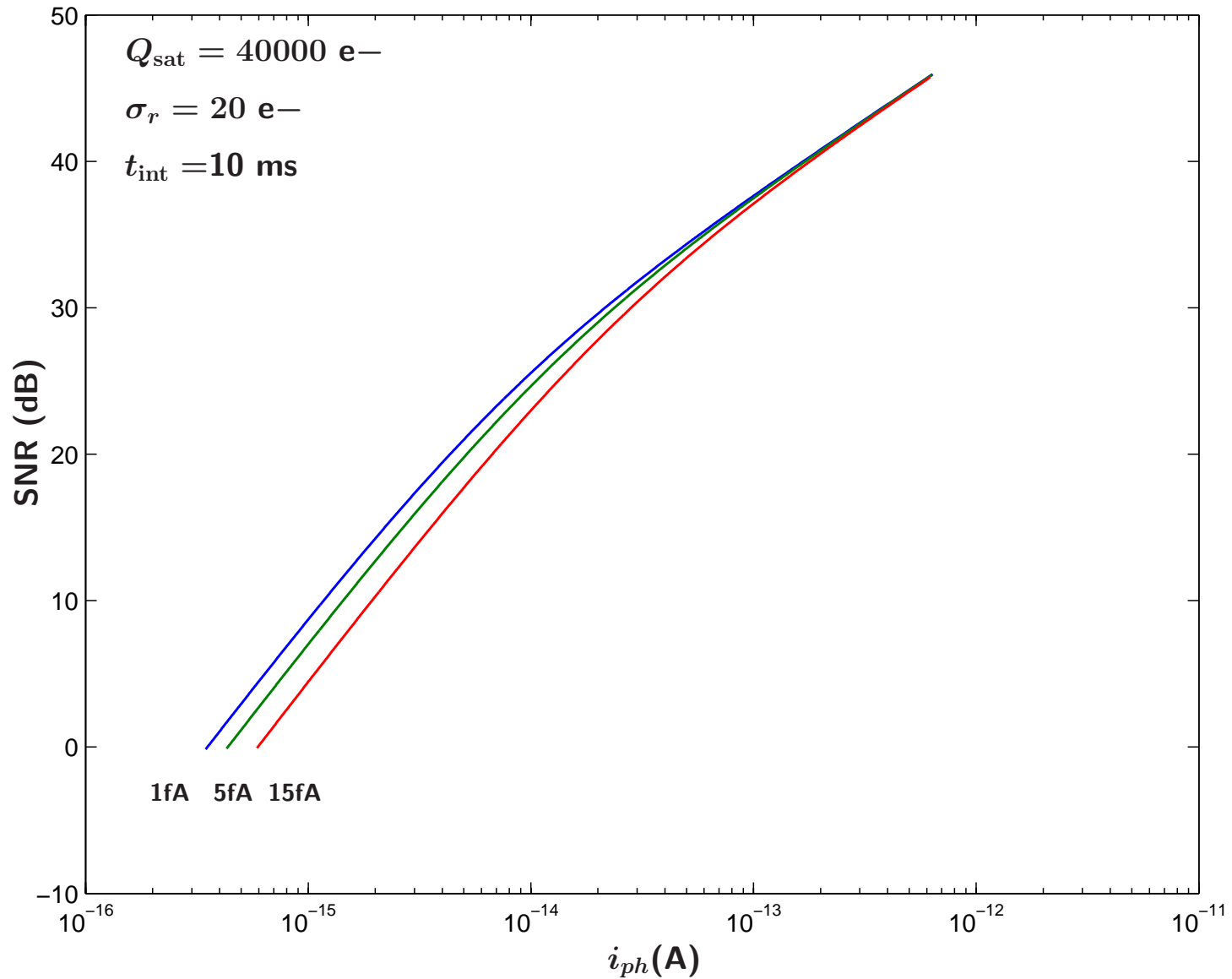
Signal to Noise Ratio (SNR)

- SNR is the ratio of the input signal power to the average input referred noise power, and is typically measured in dBs
- Using the average input referred noise power expression, we get

$$\text{SNR}(i_{ph}) = 10 \log_{10} \frac{i_{ph}^2}{\frac{q^2}{t_{int}^2} \left(\frac{1}{q} (i_{ph} + i_{dc}) t_{int} + \sigma_r^2 \right)} \text{ dB}$$

- SNR increases with the input signal i_{ph} , first (for small i_{ph}) at 20dB per decade since read noise dominates, then at 10dB per decade when shot noise (due to photodetector) dominates

SNR Versus i_{ph} (for three i_{dc} values)

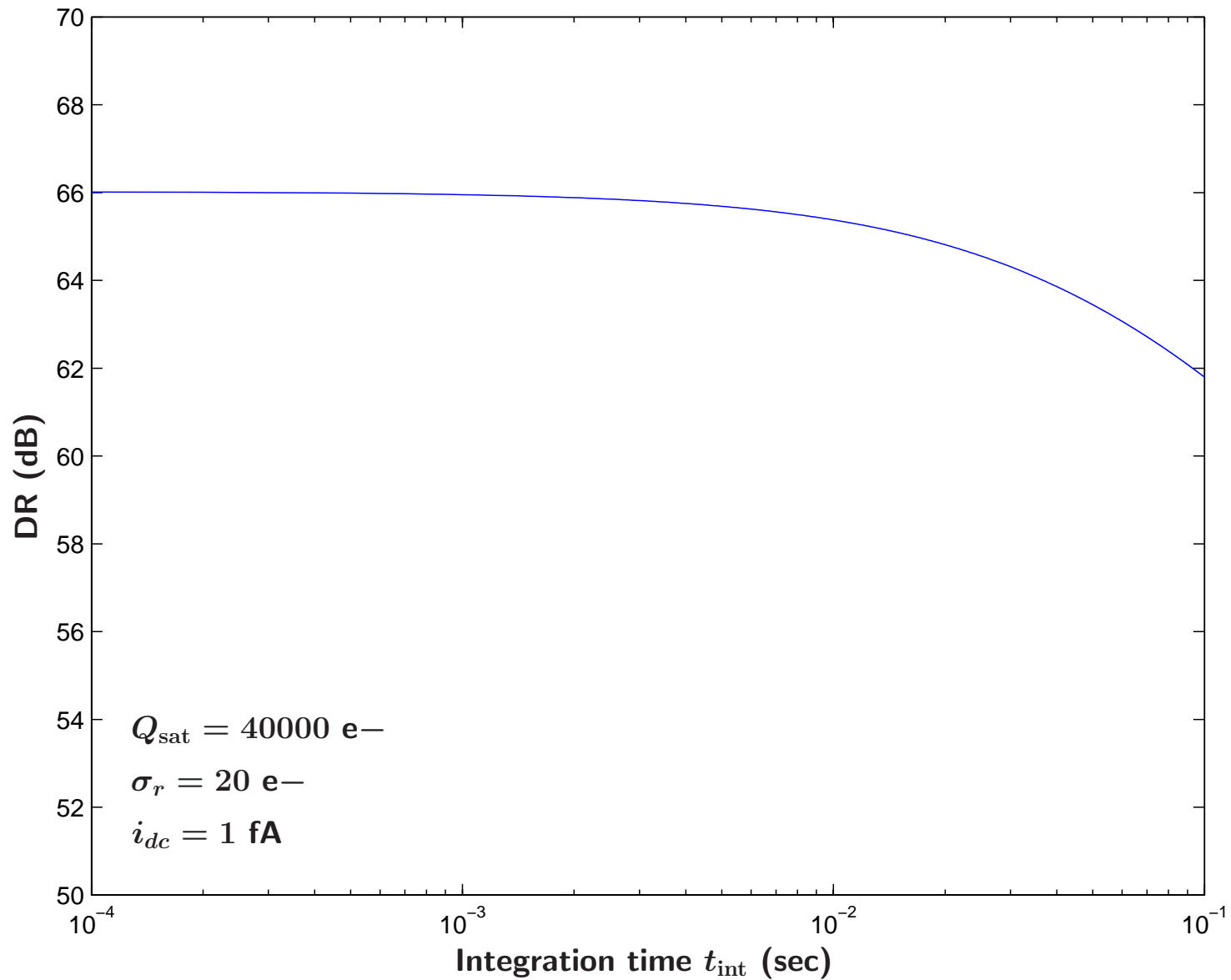


Dynamic Range

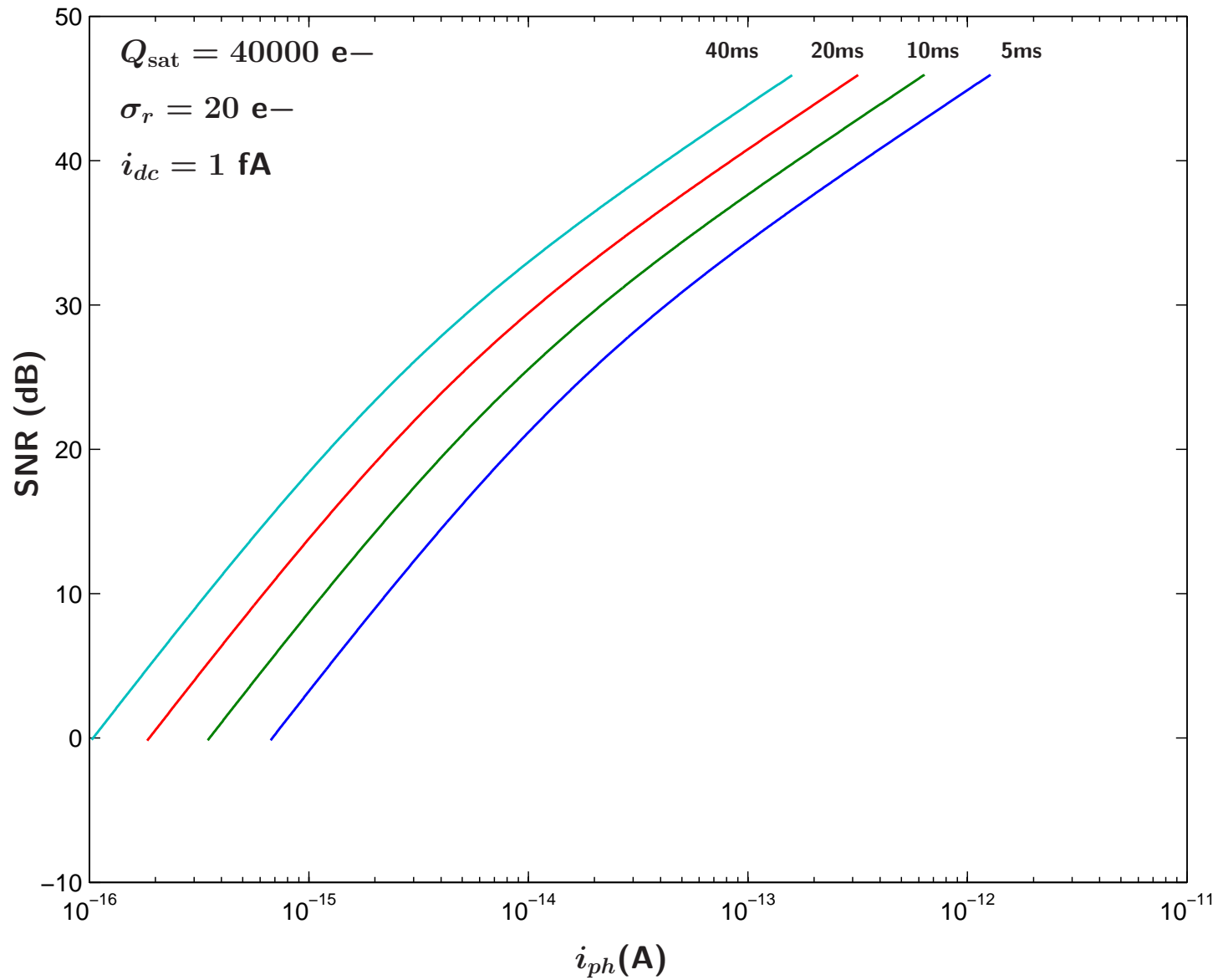
- Dynamic range quantifies the ability of a sensor to adequately image both high lights and dark shadows in a scene
- It is defined as the ratio of the largest nonsaturating input signal to the smallest detectable input signal
 - largest nonsaturating signal given by $i_{\max} = \frac{qQ_{\text{sat}}}{t_{\text{int}}} - i_{dc}$, where Q_{sat} is the well capacity
 - smallest detectable input signal defined as standard deviation of input referred noise under dark conditions $\sigma_{I_n}(0)$ (the zero here refers to $i_{ph} = 0$), which gives $i_{\min} = \frac{q}{t_{\text{int}}} \sqrt{\frac{1}{q} i_{dc} t_{\text{int}} + \sigma_r^2}$
- Thus dynamic range

$$\text{DR} = 20 \log_{10} \frac{i_{\max}}{i_{\min}} = 20 \log_{10} \frac{\frac{qQ_{\text{sat}}}{t_{\text{int}}} - i_{dc}}{\frac{q}{t_{\text{int}}} \sqrt{\frac{1}{q} i_{dc} t_{\text{int}} + \sigma_r^2}}$$

Dynamic Range Versus Integration Time



SNR vs. i_{ph} for Different Integration Times



Summary

- Presented brief tutorial on image sensor operation and nonidealities
- Described sensor signal and noise model
- Used the model to quantify sensor SNR and DR
- Discussed dependencies of SNR and DR on sensor parameters

Outline

- Background
- **Description/ Analysis of High DR Schemes**
 - Well Capacity Adjusting
 - Multiple Capture
 - Spatially Varying Exposure
 - Time to Saturation
- **Other HDR Image Sensors**
 - Logarithmic Sensor
 - Local Adaptation
- **Conclusion**
- **References**

Extending Dynamic Range

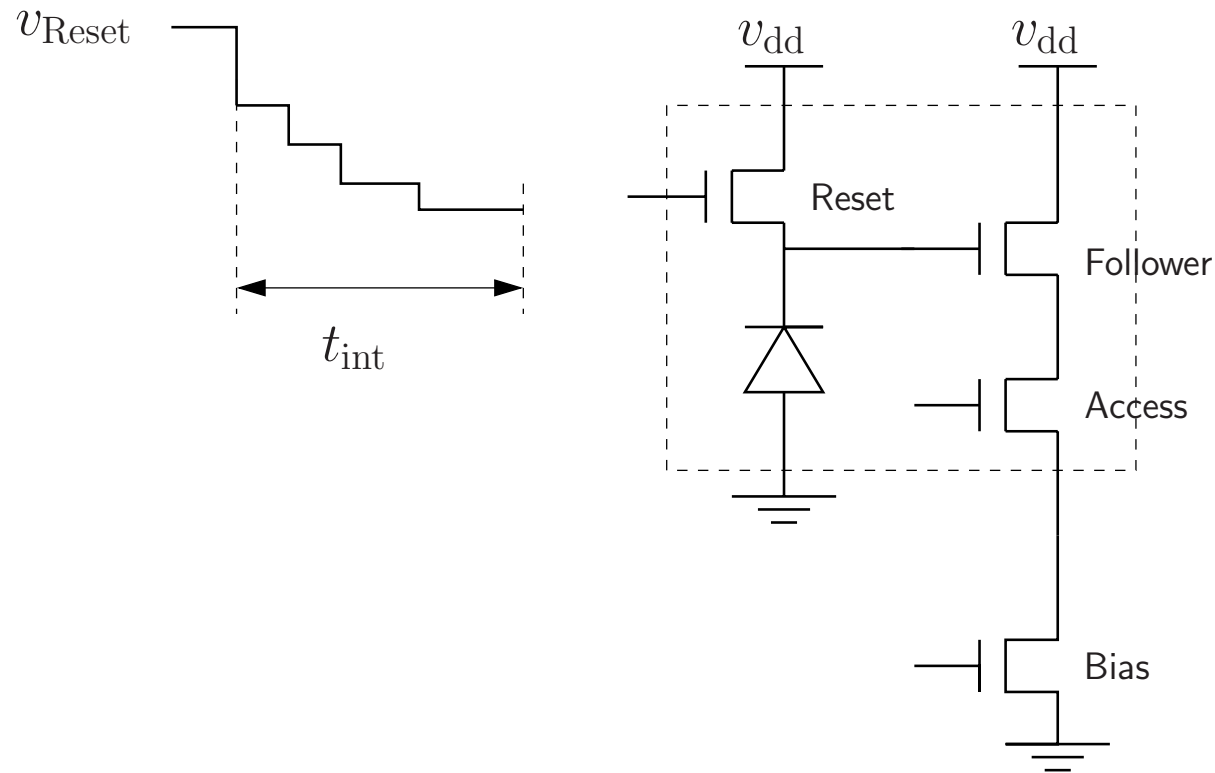
- To increase dynamic range we need to increase i_{\max} and/or decrease i_{\min}
 - $i_{\max} \approx \frac{qQ_{\text{sat}}}{t_{\text{int}}}$, **increases as integration time is decreased**
 - $i_{\min} = \sqrt{\frac{q}{t_{\text{int}}}i_{dc} + \left(\frac{q\sigma_r}{t_{\text{int}}}\right)^2}$, **decreases as integration time is increased**
- To increase dynamic range need to spatially ‘adapt’ pixel integration times to illumination
 - **short integration times for pixels with high illumination**
 - **long integration times for pixels with low illumination**
- Integration time can’t be made too long due to saturation and motion
- The HDR techniques only increase i_{\max} (for a given maximum integration time)
- Recent work [3] shows how i_{\min} can be reduced by lowering read noise and preventing motion blur

The Plan

- To describe [Well Capacity Adjusting](#) and [Multiple Capture](#)
- To analyze their SNR and show that the increase in dynamic range comes at the expense of decrease in SNR
 - **Multiple Capture achieves higher SNR than Well Capacity Adjusting for the same increase in dynamic range (see [4])**
- To describe two other techniques: [Spatially Varying Exposure](#) and [Time-to-Saturation](#)
- To briefly describe two other types of sensors that do not use direct integration: [Logarithmic Sensor](#) and [Local Adaptation](#)
- To qualitatively compare these six HDR techniques

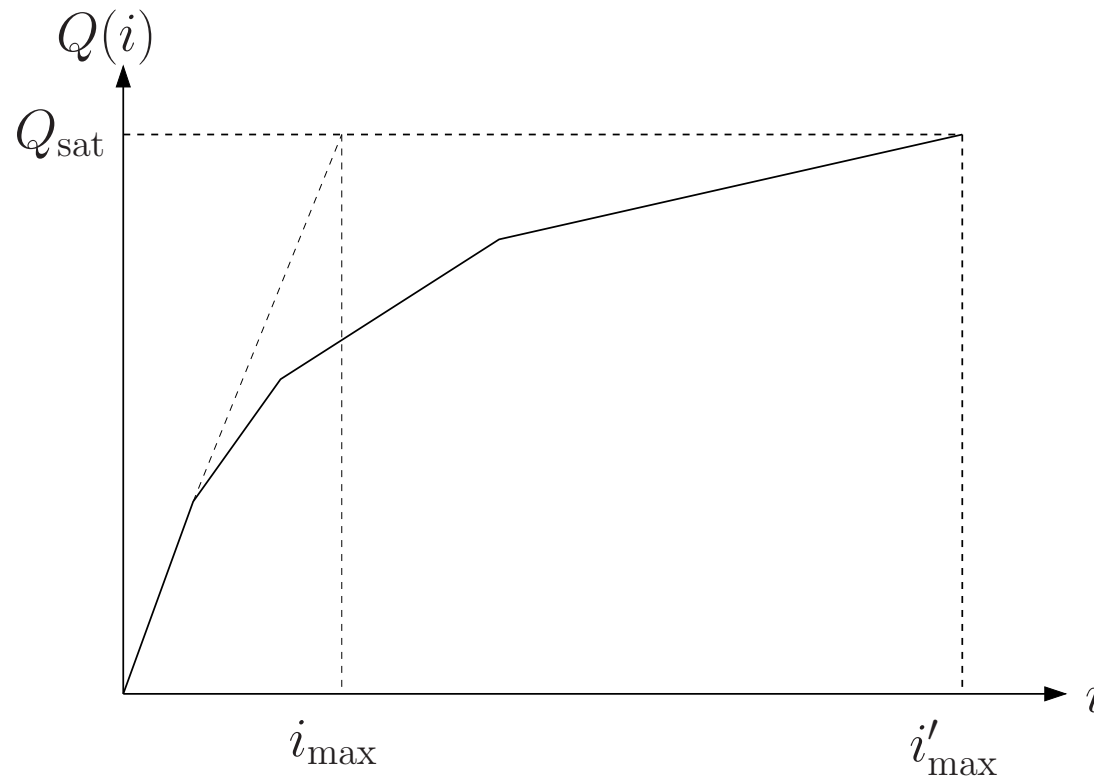
Well Capacity Adjusting

- Available well capacity is increased one or more times during integration (idea initially applied to CCDs [5,6])
- For APS this is done by adjusting the reset signal one or more times during integration [7]:



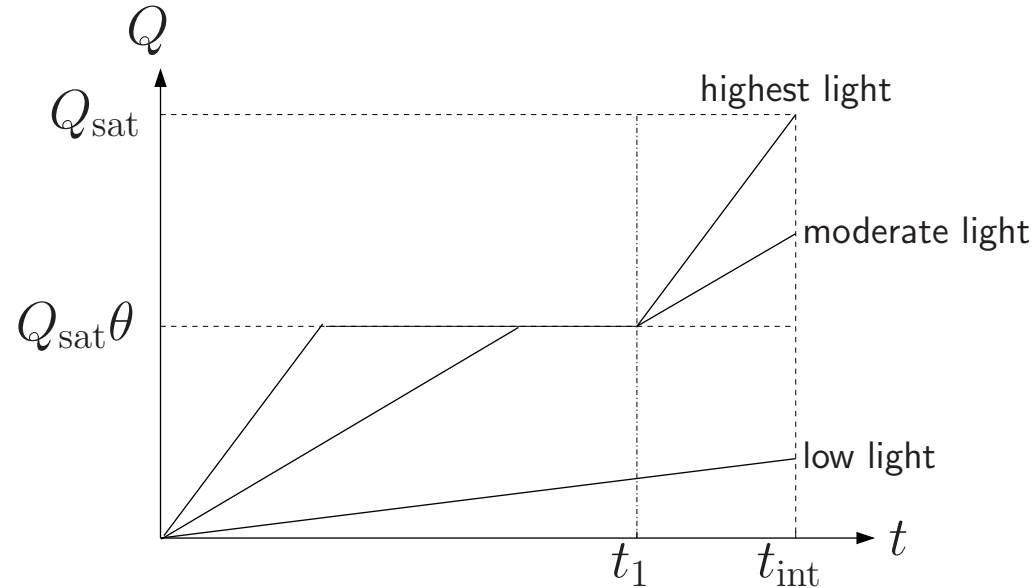
Sensor Transfer Function

- The current to charge transfer function is compressed resulting in higher maximum nonsaturating current i'_{max} :



Analysis of Well Capacity Adjusting

- Consider the case of a single well capacity adjustment:



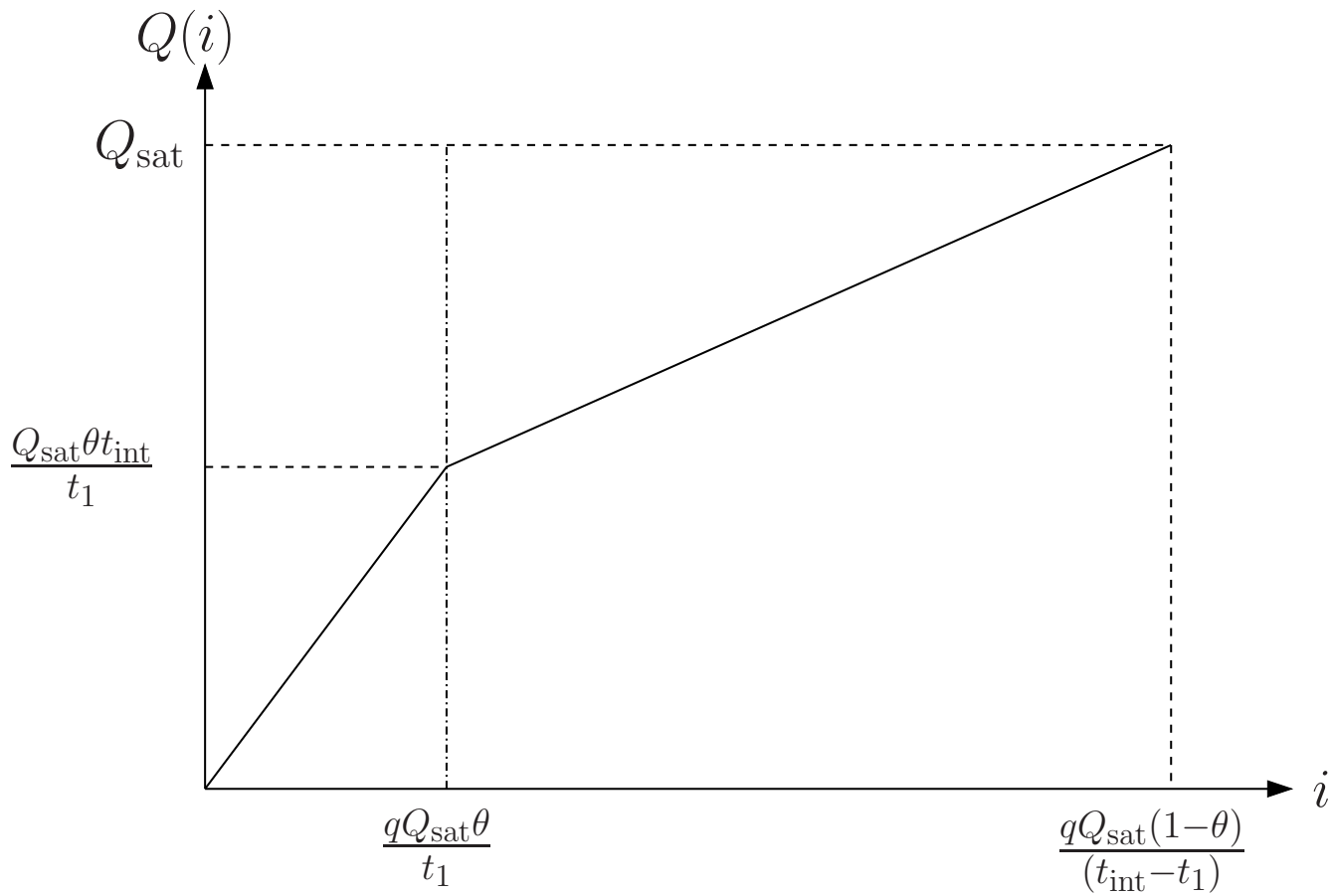
- Largest nonsaturating current is now given by

$$i_{\text{max}} = \frac{(1 - \theta)qQ_{\text{sat}}}{t_{\text{int}} - t_1} - i_{\text{dc}}$$

- Smallest detectable signal does not change, so dynamic range is increased by a factor

$$\text{DRF} \approx \frac{(1 - \theta)}{\left(1 - \frac{t_1}{t_{\text{int}}}\right)}$$

Sensor Transfer Function



Well Capacity Adjusting Example



78dB Scene



Using Well Capacity Adjusting (DRF=16)

SNR for Well Capacity Adjusting

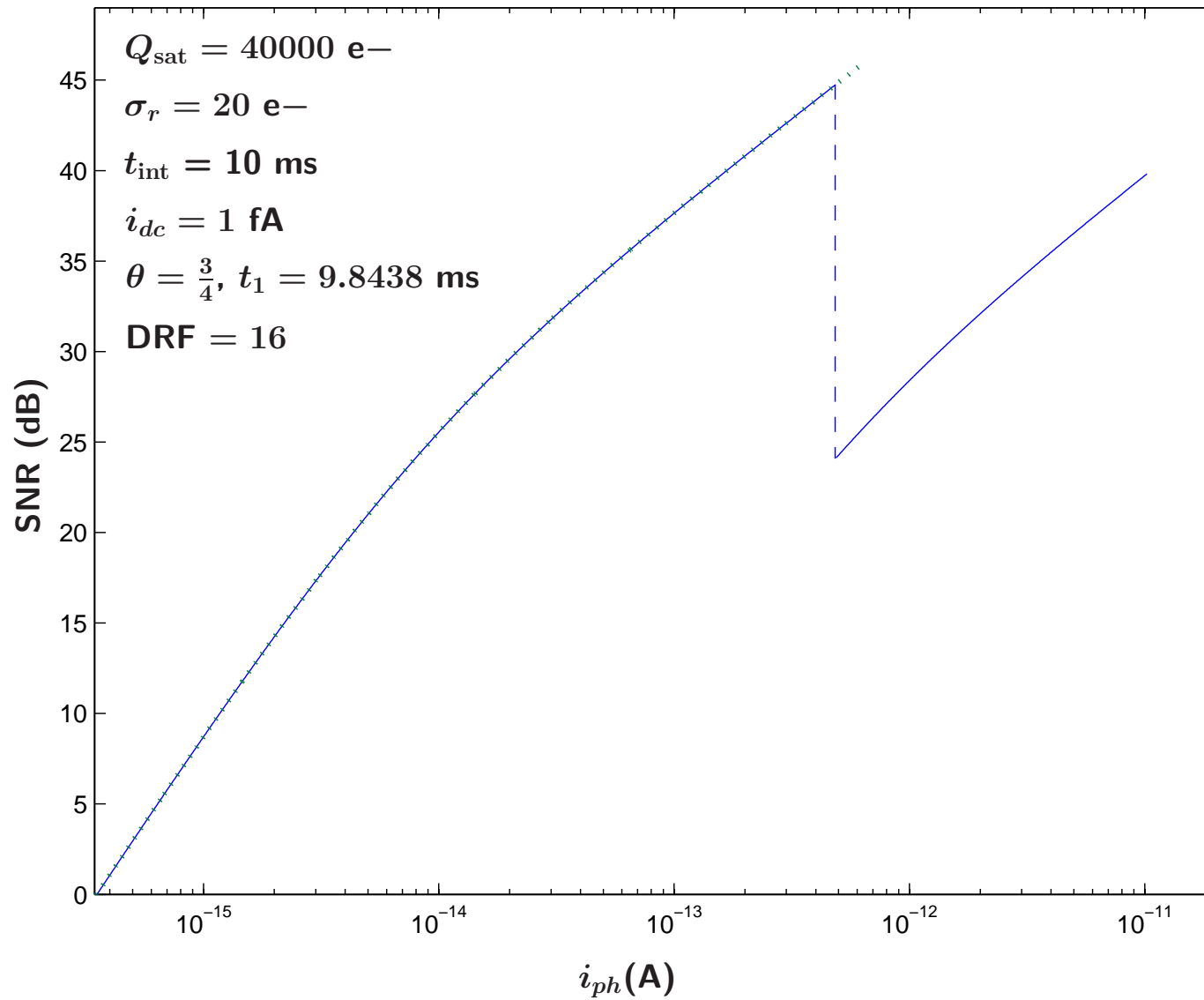
- Again consider the single well capacity adjusting case:
- For $0 \leq i_{ph} < \frac{qQ_{sat}\theta}{t_1} - i_{dc}$, the SNR is the same as for the normal sensor operation, and we get

$$\text{SNR}(i_{ph}) = 10 \log_{10} \frac{i_{ph}^2}{\frac{q^2}{t_{int}^2} \left(\frac{1}{q} (i_{ph} + i_{dc}) t_{int} + \sigma_r^2 \right)} \text{ dB}$$

- For $\frac{qQ_{sat}\theta}{t_1} - i_{dc} \leq i_{ph} < \frac{qQ_{sat}(1-\theta)}{(t_{int}-t_1)} - i_{dc}$, the variance of the noise charge is given by $\frac{1}{q} (i_{ph} + i_{dc}) (t_{int} - t_1) + \sigma_r^2$ electrons²
- So the variance of the equivalent input referred noise current is given by $\sigma_{I_n}^2 = \frac{q^2}{(t_{int}-t_1)^2} \left(\frac{1}{q} (i_{ph} + i_{dc}) (t_{int} - t_1) + \sigma_r^2 \right) \text{ A}^2$
- Thus, the signal to noise ratio

$$\text{SNR}(i_{ph}) = 10 \log_{10} \frac{i_{ph}^2}{\frac{q^2}{(t_{int}-t_1)^2} \left(\frac{1}{q} (i_{ph} + i_{dc}) (t_{int} - t_1) + \sigma_r^2 \right)} \text{ dB}$$

Example



SNR DIP

- Notice the 21dB dip in the SNR example at the transition point:

$$i_{ph} = \frac{qQ_{sat}\theta}{t_1} - i_{dc} = 487 \text{ fA}$$

- In general, the DIP is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \text{DIP} &= 10 \log_{10} \frac{t_{int}^2}{(t_{int} - t_1)^2} \frac{(Q_{sat}\theta \frac{t_{int}-t_1}{t_1} + \sigma_r^2)}{(Q_{sat}\theta \frac{t_{int}}{t_1} + \sigma_r^2)} \\ &\approx 10 \log_{10} \frac{1}{1 - \frac{t_1}{t_{int}}} \\ &= 10 \log_{10} \frac{\text{DRF}}{(1 - \theta)} \end{aligned}$$

- Thus it increases with DRF, but also as θ increases

Well-Adjusting Issues

- Increasing DR directly lowers SNR
- Implementation is straightforward – well adjusting causes more noise and FPN (not accounted for in analysis)
- Sensor response is nonlinear
 - CDS only effective at low illumination
 - Color processing ?

Multiple Capture

- Idea: Capture several images within normal exposure time
 - **short integration time images capture high light regions**
 - **long integration time images capture low light regions**
- Combine images into HDR image, e.g., using **Last Sample Before Saturation** algorithm:
 - **Only extends dynamic range at high illumination end**
- Implementation of 2 captures demonstrated for CCDs and CMOS APS [8]
- Implementing many captures requires very high speed non-destructive readout – 9 captures demonstrated using DPS [9]
- Recent work [3] shows that dynamic range can also be extended at the low illumination by appropriately “averaging” the captured images to reduce read noise

Multiple Capture Example

T



$2T$



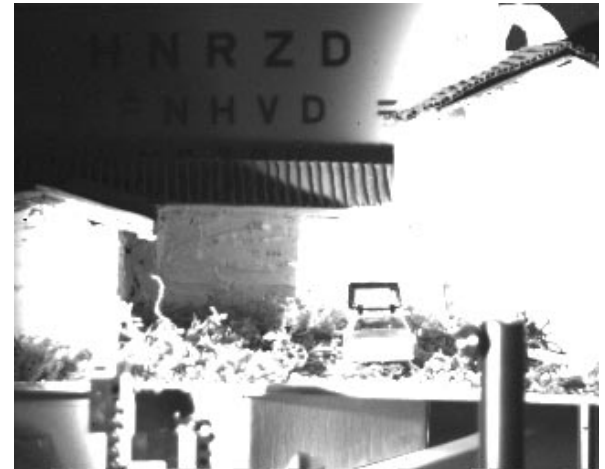
$4T$



$8T$



$16T$



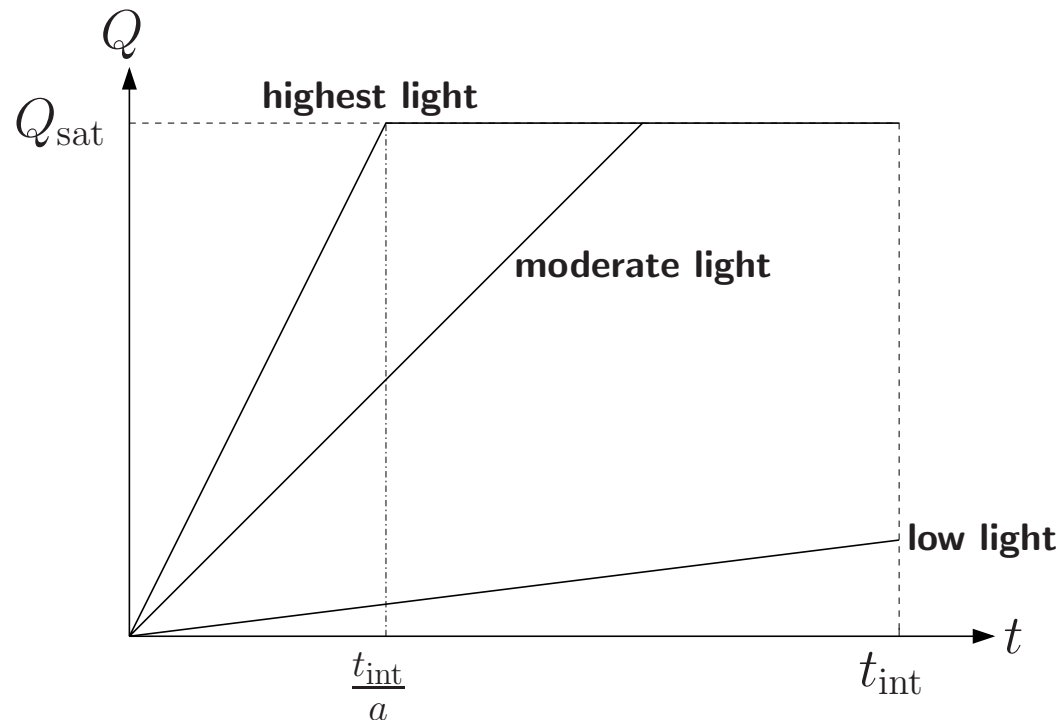
$32T$

High Dynamic Range Image



Analysis of Multiple Capture

- Consider the case of two captures:



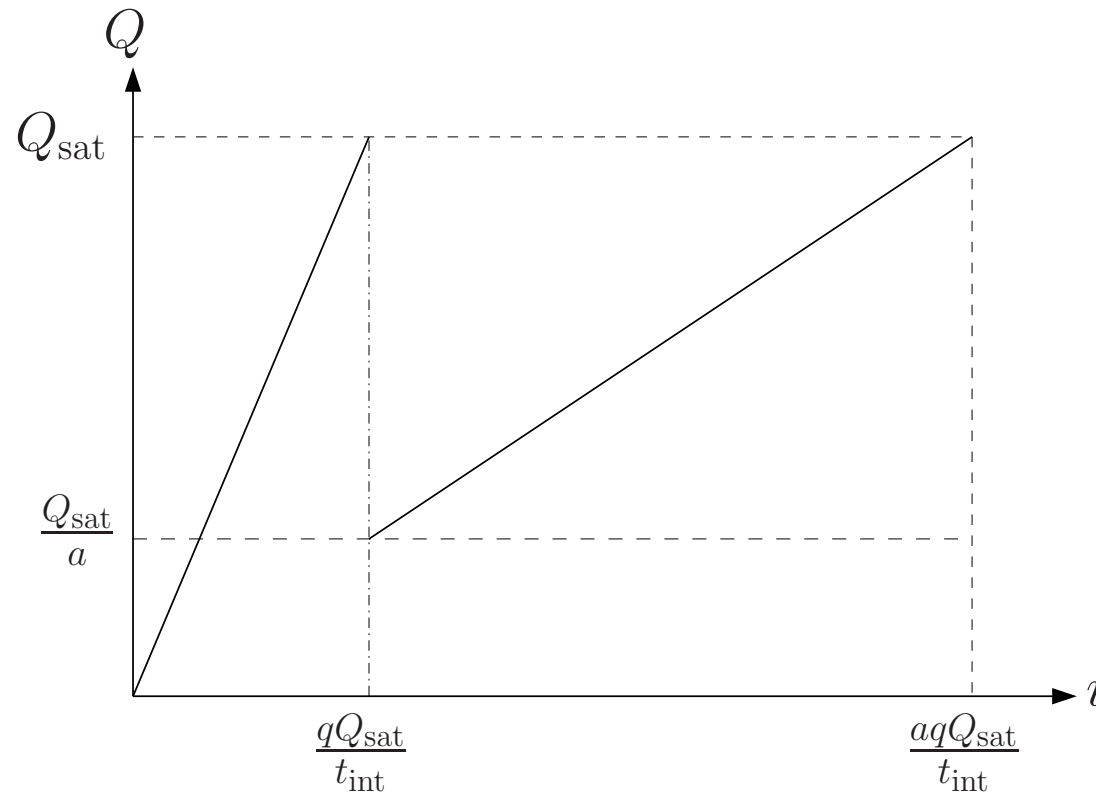
- The largest nonsaturating current is now

$$i_{\text{max}} = \frac{aqQ_{\text{sat}}}{t_{\text{int}}} - i_{\text{dc}}$$

- The smallest detectable signal does not change, so dynamic range is increased by a factor $\text{DRF} \approx a$

Sensor Transfer Function

- The current to charge response using the Last Sample Before Saturation algorithm



SNR for Multiple Capture

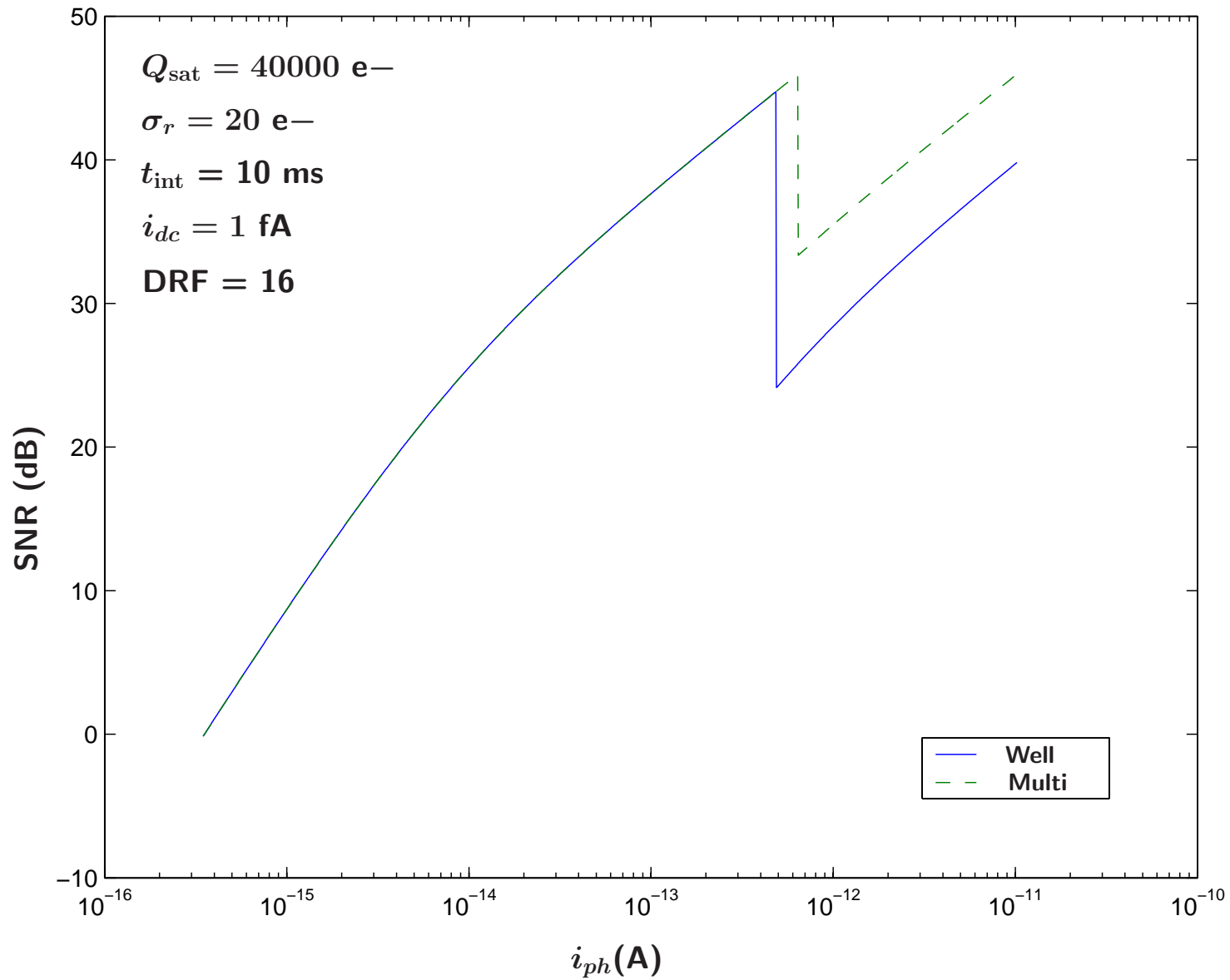
- Consider the case of two captures and the Last Sample Before Saturation algorithm
- For $0 \leq i_{ph} < \frac{qQ_{sat}}{t_{int}} - i_{dc}$, the SNR is the same as for the normal operation, and we get

$$\text{SNR}(i_{ph}) = 10 \log_{10} \frac{i_{ph}^2}{\frac{q^2}{t_{int}^2} \left(\frac{1}{q} (i_{ph} + i_{dc}) t_{int} + \sigma_r^2 \right)} \text{ dB}$$

- For $\frac{qQ_{sat}}{t_{int}} - i_{dc} \leq i_{ph} < \frac{aqQ_{sat}}{t_{int}} - i_{dc}$, the SNR is the same as normal operation with t_{int} replaced by t_{int}/a , and we get

$$\text{SNR}(i_{ph}) = 10 \log_{10} \frac{i_{ph}^2}{\frac{a^2 q^2}{t_{int}^2} \left(\frac{1}{q} (i_{ph} + i_{dc}) \frac{t_{int}}{a} + \sigma_r^2 \right)} \text{ dB}$$

SNR Example



SNR DIP

- Notice that SNR dips by 12.6 dB at the transition current

$$i_{ph} = \frac{qQ_{sat}}{t_{int}} - i_{dc} = 640 \text{ fA}$$

- In general

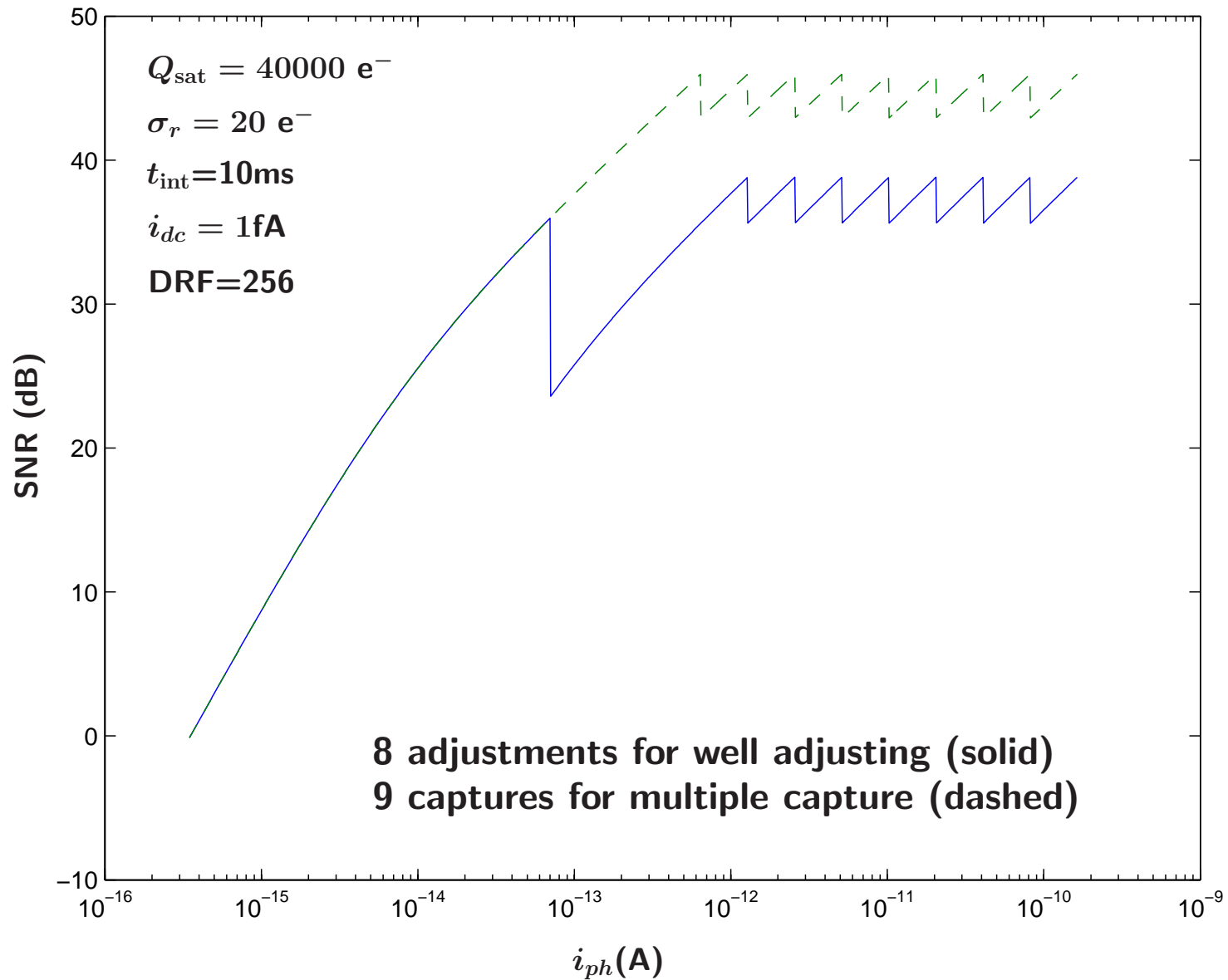
$$\text{DIP} = 10 \log_{10} \frac{a^2 \left(\frac{Q_{sat}}{a} + \sigma_r^2 \right)}{(Q_{sat} + \sigma_r^2)} \approx 10 \log_{10} \text{DRF dB}$$

- Recall that for well capacity adjusting

$$\text{DIP} \approx 10 \log_{10} \frac{\text{DRF}}{(1 - \theta)},$$

which is larger for the same DRF

Well Adjusting versus Multiple Capture

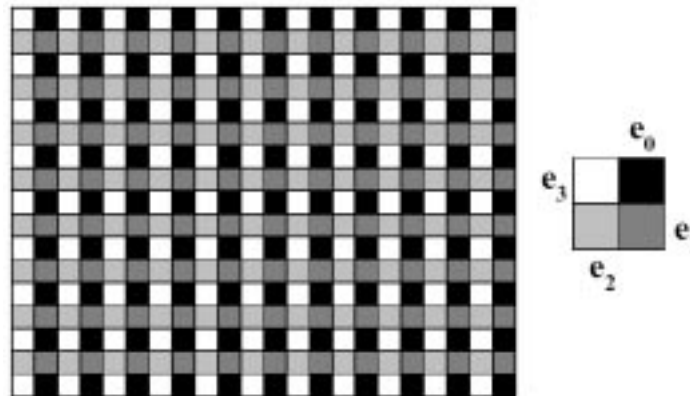


Multiple Capture Issues

- SNR for normal sensor signal range is not affected
- SNR maintained over extended dynamic range
- Response is linear – can use CDS and perform conventional color processing
- Dual capture implementation not too difficult (plenty of time between the two captures to readout the first capture)
 - High SNR dip for regions of moderate light – HDR image can look segmented
- Multiple capture implementation is quite difficult, needs
 - Very high speed non-destructive readout (see [10])
 - On-chip memory and some logic to perform reconstruction of HDR image during capture

Spatially Varying Exposure

- The spatially varying exposure technique [11] implements multiple capture using a conventional sensor by sacrificing spatial resolution
- The idea is to deposit an array of neutral density filters on the sensor so that in a single capture pixels with darker filters sample high lights while pixels with lighter filters sample low lights



- High dynamic range image synthesized using low pass filtering or more sophisticated techniques such as cubic interpolation

Spatially Varying Exposure Issues

- Very simple to implement and requires no change to the sensor itself
- Blocking light reduces sensor sensitivity and SNR
- Very high resolution sensor is needed, since spatial resolution is reduced
- DR is extended at the high illumination end only (same as multiple capture using the Last Sample Before Saturation algorithm)

Time-to-Saturation

- The idea is to measure the integration time required to saturate each pixel, the photocurrent is estimated by

$$i_{ph} = \frac{qQ_{sat}}{t_{sat}}$$

so the sensor current to time transfer function is nonlinear

- SNR is maximized for each pixel and is equal to

$$SNR = 20 \log_{10} \frac{Q_{sat}}{\sqrt{Q_{sat} + \sigma_r^2}} \approx 10 \log_{10} Q_{sat}$$

- Minimum detectable current is limited by maximum allowable integration time (not zero !)

$$i_{min} \geq \frac{qQ_{sat}}{t_{int}}$$

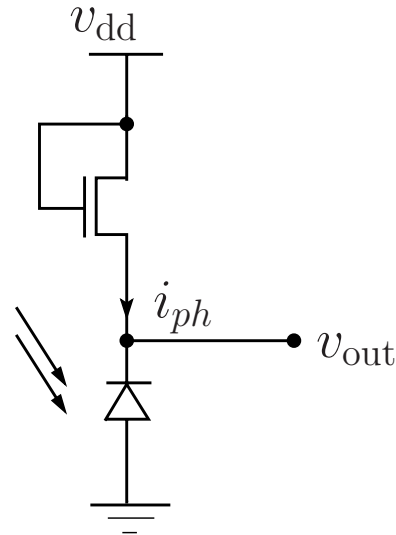
and the maximum detectable current is limited by circuit mismatches, readout speed, and FPN (it is not infinity !) [12,13,14]

Time-to-Saturation Issues

- Implementation is quite difficult – need a way to detect saturation for each pixel, then record the time
 - If global circuits are used [13], contention can severely limit performance
 - If done at the pixel level [14], pixel size may become unacceptably large
- i_{\min} can be unacceptably large ($=213\text{fA}$ for $Q_{\text{sat}} = 40000e^-$ and $t_{\text{int}} = 30\text{ms}$) unless sensor is read out at t_{int}
- No CDS support

Logarithmic Sensor

- In logarithmic sensors, photocurrent is directly converted to voltage for readout [15]

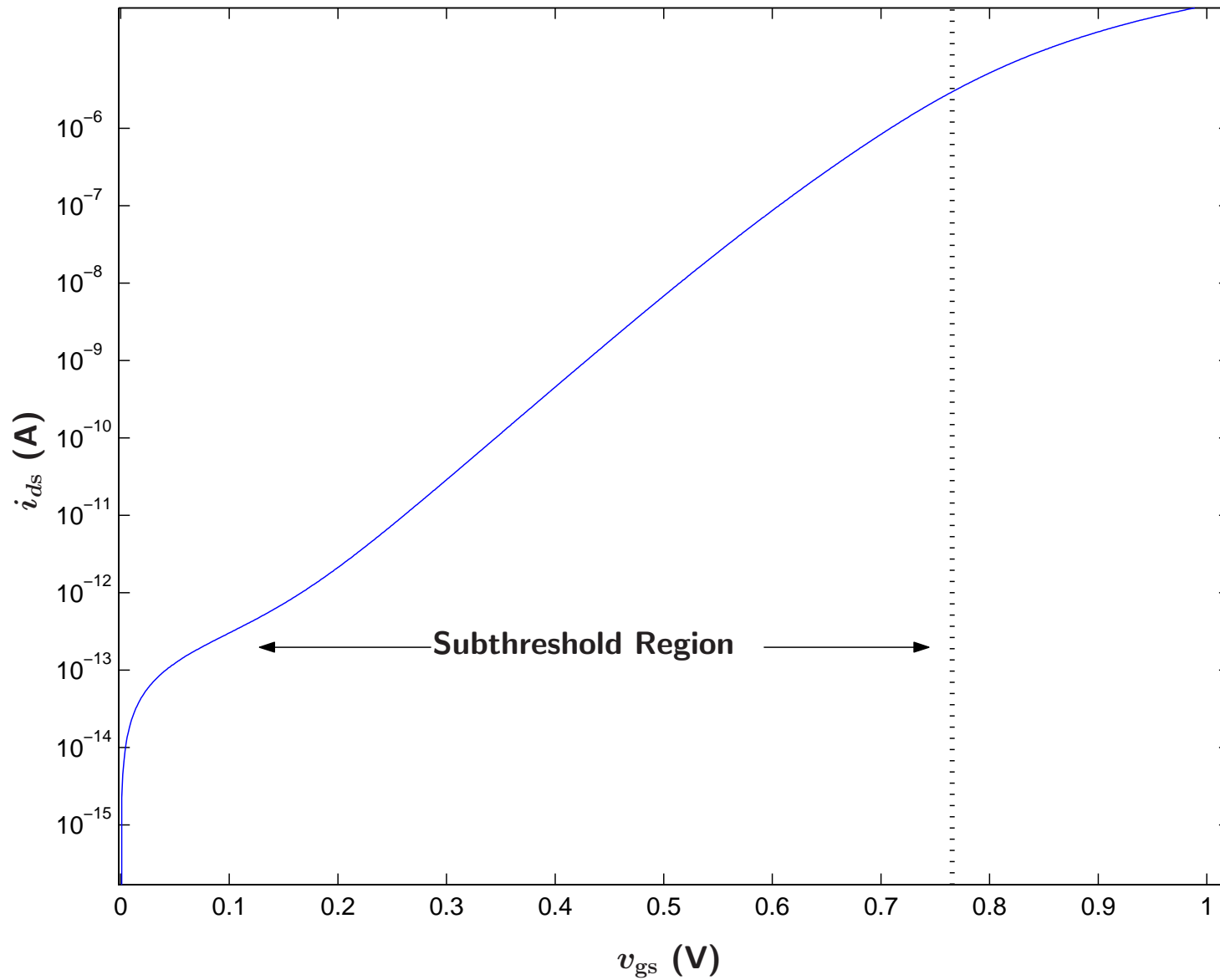


- High dynamic range achieved via *logarithmic compression* during conversion (to voltage), using exponential I–V curve of MOS transistor in subthreshold

$$v_{out} = k \ln \frac{i_{ph}}{I_o}$$

- Up to 5–6 decades of dynamic range compressed into 0.5V range (depending on v_T and the number of series transistors)

MOSFET Subthreshold I-V Characteristic



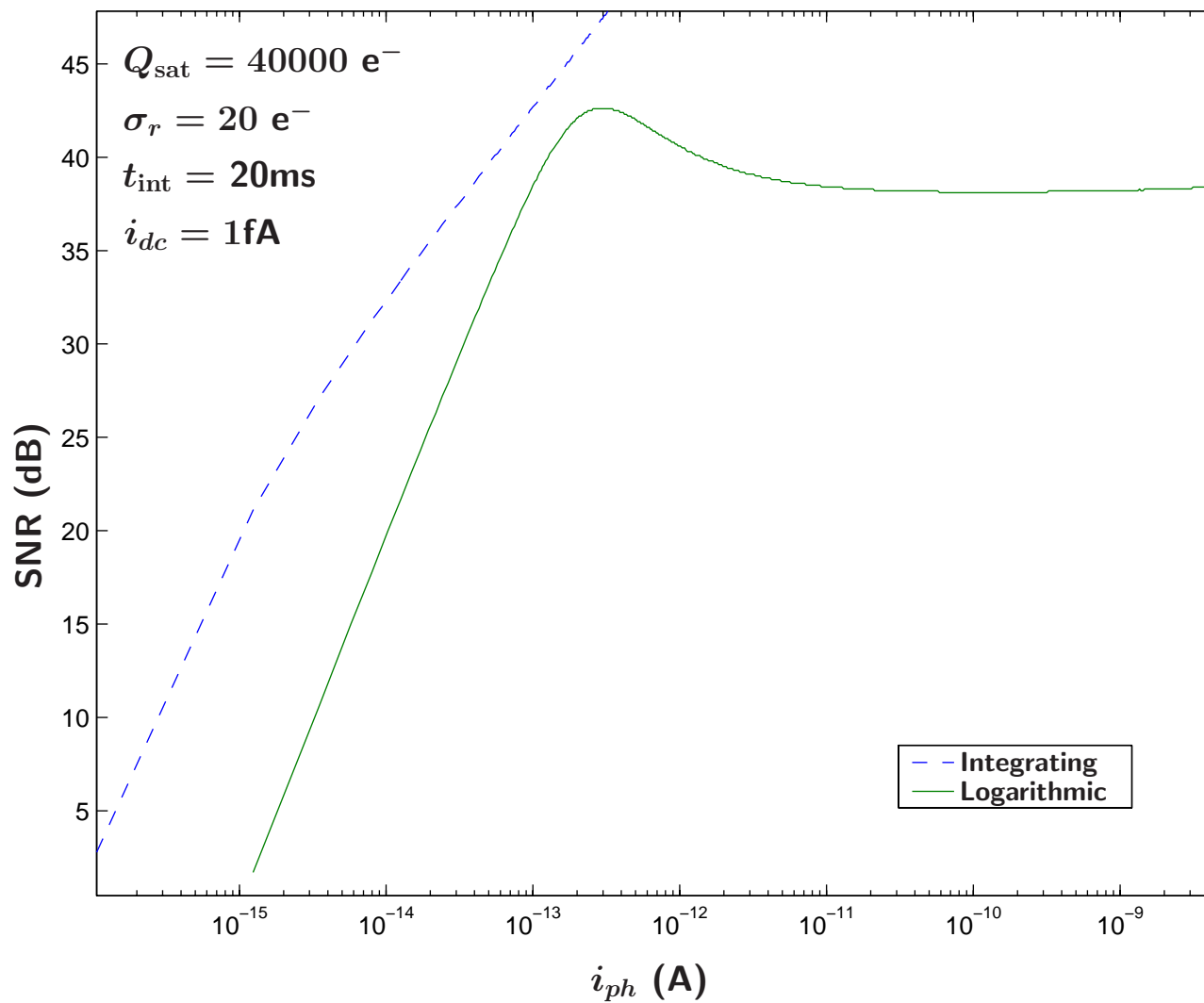
Logarithmic Compression Issues

- Large variation in subthreshold MOSFET characteristics and threshold voltage cause high FPN
 - Offset FPN as high as 10-40% of swing reported
 - Since CDS cannot be used, FPN can only be corrected by storing the offsets or other techniques, which increase complexity [15]
- Succeeding circuitry must be extremely precise to make use of the dynamic range afforded by the compressed output voltage
- Non-integrating nature limits achievable SNR even for high illumination due to exponential transconductance relationship

$$\text{SNR}(i_{ph}) = 10 \log_{10} \frac{i_{ph}^2 kTC_D}{q^2 (i_{ph} + i_{dc})^2} \approx 10 \log_{10} \frac{kTC_D}{q^2}$$

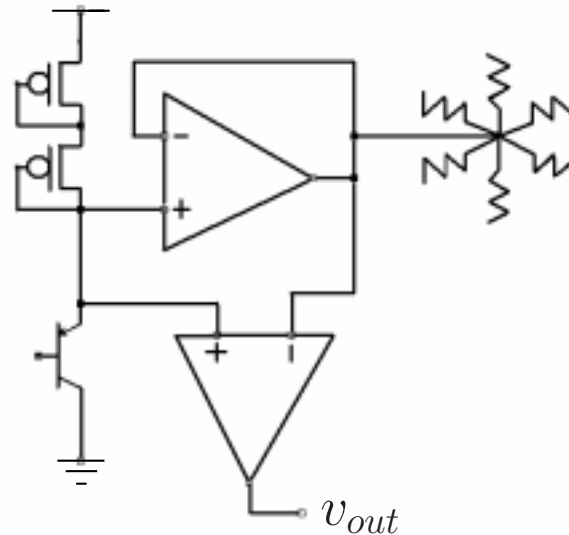
Note: Here we neglected read noise (which would make SNR even worse)

SNR for Logarithmic vs. Integrating Sensor



Local Adapation (Artificial Retina)

- The idea is to mimic biological vision systems where local averages are subtracted off each receptor value in order to increase the contrast while maintaining wide dynamic range [16,17]
- Hexagonal *resistive network* is used to weight closer pixels exponentially higher than distant ones, thereby approximating *Gaussian smoothing*



Comparison Between HDR Schemes

	Well-Adjust	Multi-Capture	Spatial	Saturation	Log	Adapt
DR:						
i_{\max}	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑
i_{\min}	Same	Same/ ↓	↑	↑	↑	↑
Linearity	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No
CDS	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No
SNR	—	+	—	—	—	—
Complexity:						
Pixel	Low	Med-High	Low	High	Med	High
External	Low	Low-Med	High	High	Low	Low

Conclusion

- Defined image sensor DR and SNR and discussed their dependencies on sensor parameters
- Described six techniques for extending DR:
 - Well Adjusting
 - Multiple Capture
 - Spatially Varying Exposure
 - Time to saturation
 - Logarithmic
 - Local adaptation (artificial retina)
- All techniques only increase i_{\max} (Multiple Capture can also decrease i_{\min} by weighted averaging)
- SNR can be used to compare different HDR sensors
- Multiple Capture with weighted averaging is the most effective method but requires high speed non-destructive readout sensor and DSP hardware to implement

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