UFYS2010: Radio astronomy instrumentation and interferometry

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Some of the figures are from Wilson, Rohlfs, Hüttemeister: 'Tools of Radio astronomy'

Outline

Recap from lecture 2

Antennas and aperture efficiency

Antenna temperature

Antenna types

Aperture-beam Fourier transform relationship

Antenna mounts

Antenna Performance Parameters

Radiometer sensitivity

Receiver internals

Recap: opacity

If medium is isothermal, the observed brightness temperature $T_b(s)$ with medium thickness s is

$$T_b(s) = T_b(0)e^{-\tau_{\nu}(s)} + T(1 - e^{-\tau_{\nu}(s)}).$$
 (1)

If opacity is very small, the absorbation and radiation of the medium has no effet. However, if it is very large, the observed brightness temperature is the *physical temperature of the medium*.

Recap: flux density

$$S = \int \frac{2kT_b}{\lambda^2} d\Omega = \frac{2k}{\lambda^2} \int T_b d\Omega$$
 (2)

For point source (fills the beam):

$$S = \frac{2kT_b}{\lambda^2} \tag{3}$$

Flux density is fundamental quantity in radio astronomy. Two 'shorthands':

1 Jy (Jansky) =
$$10^{-26} \left[\frac{\mathrm{W}}{\mathrm{m}^2 \ \mathrm{Hz}} \right]$$

1 sfu (solar flux unit) = $10^{-22} \left[\frac{\mathrm{W}}{\mathrm{m}^2 \ \mathrm{Hz}} \right]$

Relation to optical magnitudes (V-band):

$$m_V = 0 \Leftrightarrow S = 3.83610^{-23} \left[\frac{W}{m^2 \text{ Hz}} \right] = 3836 \text{ Jy}$$
 (4)

Antennas and aperture efficiency

The task of the antenna is to scoop radio photons that land on its aperture. Therefore the most important paramter of an antenna is the ideal *effective aperture* A_e in square meters.



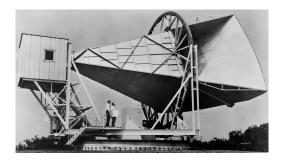
Real antennas are less effective and this is described by aperture efficiency η_e which is usually $0.5\dots0.9$. All losses from structure, deformations and surface material are included in η_e

Image: Meerkat, South Africa

Aperture antennas

For aperture antennas (e.g. paraboloid- and horn antennas) the effective aperture can be calculated from the physical aperture and aperture efficiency:

$$A_{e} = \eta_{e} A \quad [m^{2}] \tag{5}$$



Paraboloid-horn antenna that was used by Arno Penzias and Robert Wilson when they discovered the 3 K CMB (Bell Labs).

Antenna temperature

Power generated by an antenna looking at a brightness B_{ν} :

$$P = \frac{1}{2} A_{\rm e} \int_{\nu}^{\nu + \Delta \nu} \int_{\Omega} B_{\nu} \, \mathrm{d}\Omega \, \mathrm{d}\nu, \tag{6}$$

where A_e is the effective aperture of the antenna and $\frac{1}{2}$ comes from a fact that an antenna is sensitive only to one polarization component.

Noise power generated by a resistor at a temperature of T (Nyqvist):

$$P = kT\Delta\nu \tag{7}$$

and

$$S = \int B(\nu) \, \mathrm{d}\Omega \left[\frac{\mathrm{W}}{\mathrm{m}^2 \mathrm{Hz}} \right] \tag{8}$$

Antenna temperature due to a flux density

Finally we get,

$$S = \frac{2kT_a}{A_e} \left[\frac{W}{m^2 Hz} \right]$$
 (9)

where T_a is the antenna temperature, i.e. the increase of the temperature of a 'resistor' due to the source flux density. A convenient measure of antenna performance is the DPFU (Degrees Per Flux Unit) figure:

$$DPFU = \frac{A_e}{2k} 10^{-26} \left[\frac{K}{Jy} \right]$$
 (10)

e.g.

6.		
Telescope	diameter [m]	DPFU [mK/Jy]
Tuorla solar telescope	2	0.6
Metsähovi	13.7	26.7
Effelsberg	100	1580





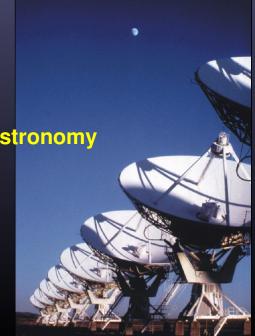








Peter Napier



Ninth Synthesis Imaging Summer School Socorro, June 15-22, 2004

General Antenna Types

Wavelength > 1 m (approx)

Wire Antennas

Dipole

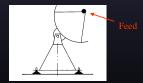
Yagi Helix



Wavelength < 1 m (approx)

Reflector antennas

or arrays of these



Wavelength = 1 m (approx) Hybrid antennas (wire reflectors or feeds)









Importance of the Antenna Elements

- Antenna amplitude pattern causes amplitude to vary across the source.
- the source.Polarization properties of the antenna modify the apparent

Antenna phase pattern causes phase to vary across

- polarization of the source.
- Antenna pointing errors can cause time varying amplitude and phase errors.
- Variation in noise pickup from the ground can cause time variable amplitude errors.
- Deformations of the antenna surface can cause amplitude and phase errors, especially at short wavelengths.







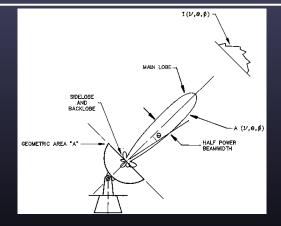


Basic Antenna Formulas

Effective collecting area $A(v,\theta,\phi)$ m²

On-axis response $A_0 = \eta A$ $\eta = aperture efficiency$

Normalized pattern (primary beam) $\mathbf{A}(v,\theta,\phi) = \mathbf{A}(v,\theta,\phi)/\mathbf{A}_0$



Beam solid angle $\Omega_{A} = \iint \mathbf{A}(v, \theta, \phi) d\Omega$

v = frequency $\lambda = wavelength$







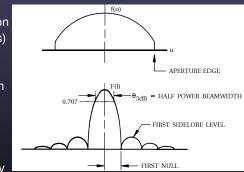


Aperture-Beam Fourier Transform Relationship

f(u,v) = complex aperture field distribution u,v = aperture coordinates (wavelengths)

F(l,m) = complex far-field voltage pattern $l = sin\theta cos\phi$, $m = sin\theta sin\phi$

 $F(l,m) = \iint_{\text{aperture}} f(u,v) \exp(2\pi i (ul+vm) dudv$ $f(u,v) = \iint_{\text{homisphere}} F(l,m) \exp(-2\pi i (ul+vm) dldm$



For VLA: $\theta_{3dB} = 1.02/D$, First null = 1.22/D, D = reflector diameter in wavelengths

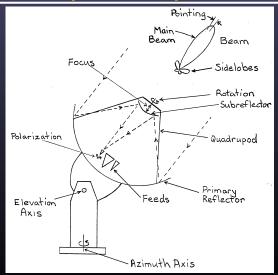








Primary Antenna Key Features

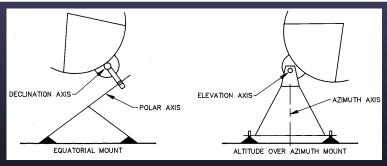








Types of Antenna Mount



- + Beam does not rotate
- + Better tracking accuracy
- Higher cost
- Poorer gravity performance
- Non-intersecting axis

- + Lower cost
- + Better gravity performance
- Beam rotates on the sky

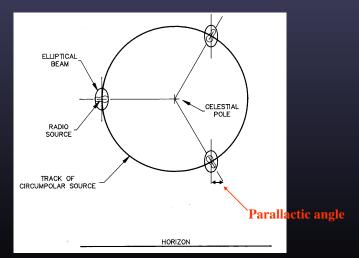








Beam Rotation on the Sky











Reflector Types

Prime focus (GMRT)

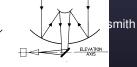
RA A



Cassegrain focus (AT)

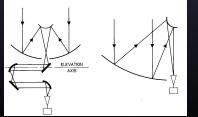
Offset Cassegrain (VLA)





(OVRO)

Beam Waveguide (NRO)

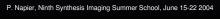


Dual Offset (ATA)











Reflector Types

Prime focus (GMRT)





Cassegrain focus (AT)

Offset Cassegrain (VLA)





(OVRO)

Beam Waveguide (NRO)





Dual Offset (ATA)

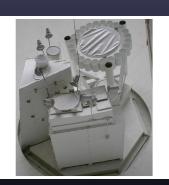








VLA and EVLA Feed System Design















Aperture Efficiency

$$A_0 = \eta A$$
, $\eta = \eta_{sf} \times \eta_{bl} \times \eta_s \times \eta_t \times \eta_{misc}$

 η_{sf} = reflector surface efficiency

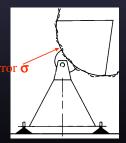
$$\eta_{bl}$$
 = blockage efficiency

$$\eta_s$$
 = feed spillover efficiency

$$\eta_t$$
 = feed illumination efficiency

 η_{misc} = diffraction, phase, match, loss $_{rms}$ error σ

$$\begin{split} &\eta_{sf} = exp(-(4\pi\sigma/\lambda)^2) \\ &e.g., \ \sigma = \lambda/16 \ , \, \eta_{sf} = 0.5 \end{split}$$

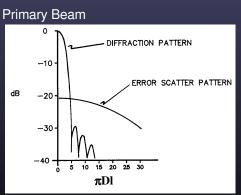






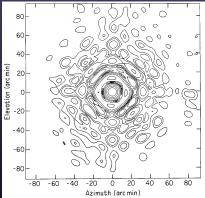






 $l=sin(\theta), D=$ antenna diameter in wavelengths $dB=10log(power\ ratio)=20log(voltage\ ratio)$

For VLA: $\theta_{3dB} = 1.02/D$, First null = 1.22/D



contours:-3,-6,-10,-15,-20,-25, -30,-35,-40 dB



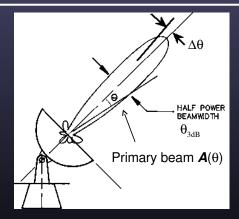






Pointing Accuracy $\Delta\theta$ = rms pointing error

Often $\Delta\theta < \theta_{\rm 3dB}$ /10 acceptable Because ${\it A}(\theta_{\rm 3dB}$ /10) ~ 0.97 BUT, at half power point in beam ${\it A}(\theta_{\rm 3dB}$ /2 \pm $\theta_{\rm 3dB}$ /10)/ ${\it A}(\theta_{\rm 3dB}$ /2) = ± 0.3



For best VLA pointing use Reference Pointing. $\Delta\theta = 3$ arcsec = θ_{3dB} /17 @ 50 GHz









Antenna Pointing Design

Reflector structure

Subreflector mount

Quadrupod

El encoder

Alidade structure

Rail flatness



Foundation













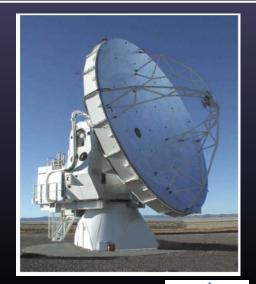
ALMA 12m Antenna Design

Surface: $\sigma = 25 \mu m$

Pointing: $\Delta\theta = 0.6$ arcsec

Carbon fiber and invar reflector structure

Pointing metrology structure inside alidade







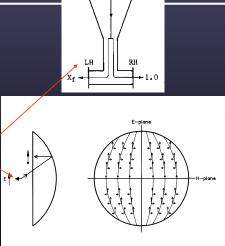




Polarization

Antenna can modify the apparent polarization properties of the source:

- Symmetry of the optics
- Quality of feed polarization splitter
- Circularity of feed radiation patterns
- Reflections in the optics
- Curvature of the reflectors





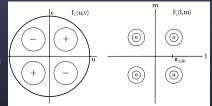






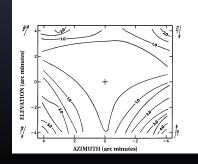
Off-Axis Cross Polarization

Cross polarized aperture distribution



Cross polarized primary beam

VLA 4.8 GHz cross polarized primary beam











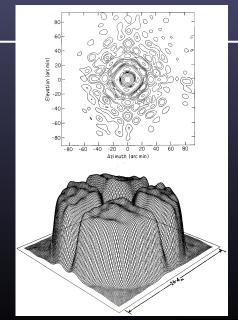
Antenna Holography

VLA 4.8 GHz

Far field pattern amplitude Phase not shown

Aperture field distribution amplitude.

Phase not shown















America's most powerful radio telescope 15 . . .



BEFORE A

AFTER >

Series afters rapped the enormous radio discovers throughout the mapsed by extracerential proce extracerential to the charge of the common terms o celescope at Green Bank, w. Ya., winn a port as based of mes and busyle rom massade. It Vos and all the second of mes and busyle rom massade. It Vos and all the receiver a common second of the commo November 15 qualifies as the sociot instrument the boldest act of extrater-

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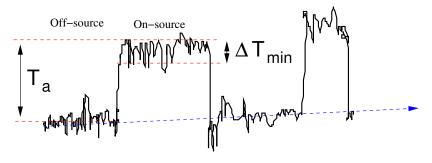
There is no doubt that the as a rock instrument — which could de "Suddenly it

Radiometer sensitivity

We know now that the noise temperature at our receiver input is

$$T_a = \frac{SA_e}{2k} \tag{11}$$

How much does the receiver generate noise by itself (T_r) and what is the minimum detectable T_a ?



Here the antenna has switched between the source and a blank sky, note the increase in noise level (T_a) .

$T_{sys} = T_a + T_r + T_{sky}$

When determining the sensitivity of a radiometer, total noise contribution $T_{sys} = T_a + T_r + T_{sky}$ to the radiometer must be taken into account, i.e the noise from source, receiver and atmosphere.

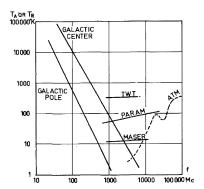


Fig. 2—Antenna sky noise temperature T_A with beam pointing at the galactic pole and galactic center and due to the atmosphere (dashed) as a function of the frequency. Noise temperatures T_R of some typical receivers are also shown.

Total system noise temperature

It should be noted that the quantity radiometer is measuring (in radio astronomy) is noise itself and adds to the total noise temperature and to the standard deviation of the result. Because of this, *all* noise sources including the source that is been measured (antenna temperature), atmosphere, CMB and the telescope itself must be taken into account:

$$T_{\rm sys} = T_{\rm a} + T_{\rm atm} + T_{\rm cmb} + T_{\rm tel} + \dots \tag{12}$$

The total noise of a receiver is called the *total system noise* temperature $T_{\rm sys}$.

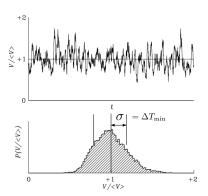
Sensitivity is also a function of bandwidth $\Delta\nu$ or B from where the noise power is collected and amount of averaging, i.e. the integration time τ .

Minimum detectable noise difference ΔT_{min}

Then the minimum detectable noise difference for ideal radiometer is

$$\Delta T_{\min} = \frac{T_{\text{sys}}}{\sqrt{\Delta \nu \tau}}.$$
 (13)

There are effectively $\Delta \nu$ independent noise contributions per second, $\Delta \nu \tau$ in total. Therefore RMS deviation is $1/\sqrt{\Delta \nu \tau}$ times the average output.



Receiver types

Bolometer: polarizer, frequency band filter and thermometer

- Power is tramsformed into temperature which is measured.
- Very wideband and therefore sensitive, no spectral information
- Has to be cooled to less than 4K (superconductors)

Direct detecting receiver: polarizer, amplifier and power detector

- Simple and low-cost
- Microwave amplifiers can be operated (even) at room temperature
- Wideband and sensitive but no spectral information

Heterodyne receiver

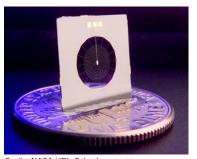
- Signal from antenna is translated down to a more convenient frequency
- Local oscillator and mixer increase complexity
- ► Full spectral information available
- DSB: double (folded) sideband, SSB: single sideband



Bolometer

A *bolometer* measures the power of incident electromagnetic radiation via the heating of a material.

To improve sensitivity, thermometers in bolometers are usually superconductors that are cooled down to below 4 K. They are very wideband instruments, that is one reason for their sensitivity.

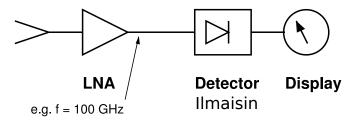


Credit: NASA/JPL-Caltech

If any frequency selectivity is needed, it must be implemented using (rather wide) filters. Because bolometers cannot measure phase of the incident radiation, they cannot be used in interferometers.

Direct detecting receiver (or radiometer)

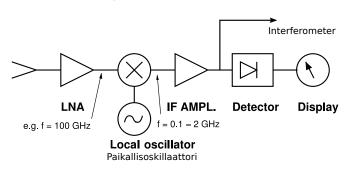
Direct detecting receiver consists of only amplifier and a detector. The advancement of amplifier technology in 1990's made this type of receiver more popular. Before it was necessary to downconvert the frequency before amplification.



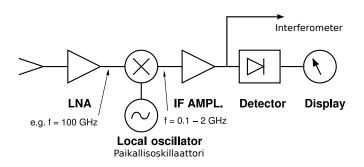
The advantages are *simplicity* and, due to the wide bandwidth, *sensitivity*. Because phase information is lost, this receiver type cannot be used for interferometry either.

(Super)heterodyne receiver I

In heterodyne receivers, the received frequency band is translated with a mixer to a lower, intermediate frequency (IF). Especially some tens of years back, manufacturing high frequency ($\nu > 10$ GHz) amplifiers was expensive and difficult but mixers were much easier and cheaper. Therefore downconverting in frequency and amplifying with cheaper and more manageable components (size scales with wavelength!) was considerably easier.



(Super)heterodyne receiver II



After IF amplifier, signal can be either detected (total power), i.e averaged amplitude squared is preserved (radiometer) or the processing can be continued further (digitization, spectrometer, polarization correlator, interferometry, storage...)