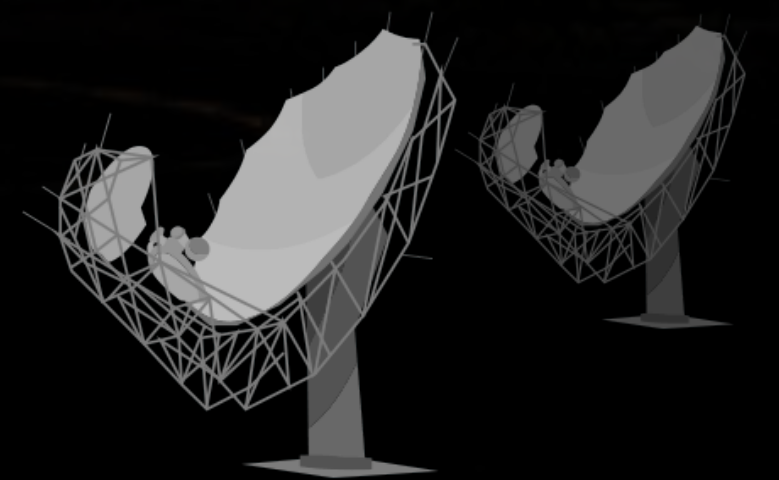


Introduction to Radio Astronomy & VLBI



James O. Chibueze
Astronomy Niche Area,
Department of Mathematical Sciences,
University of South Africa



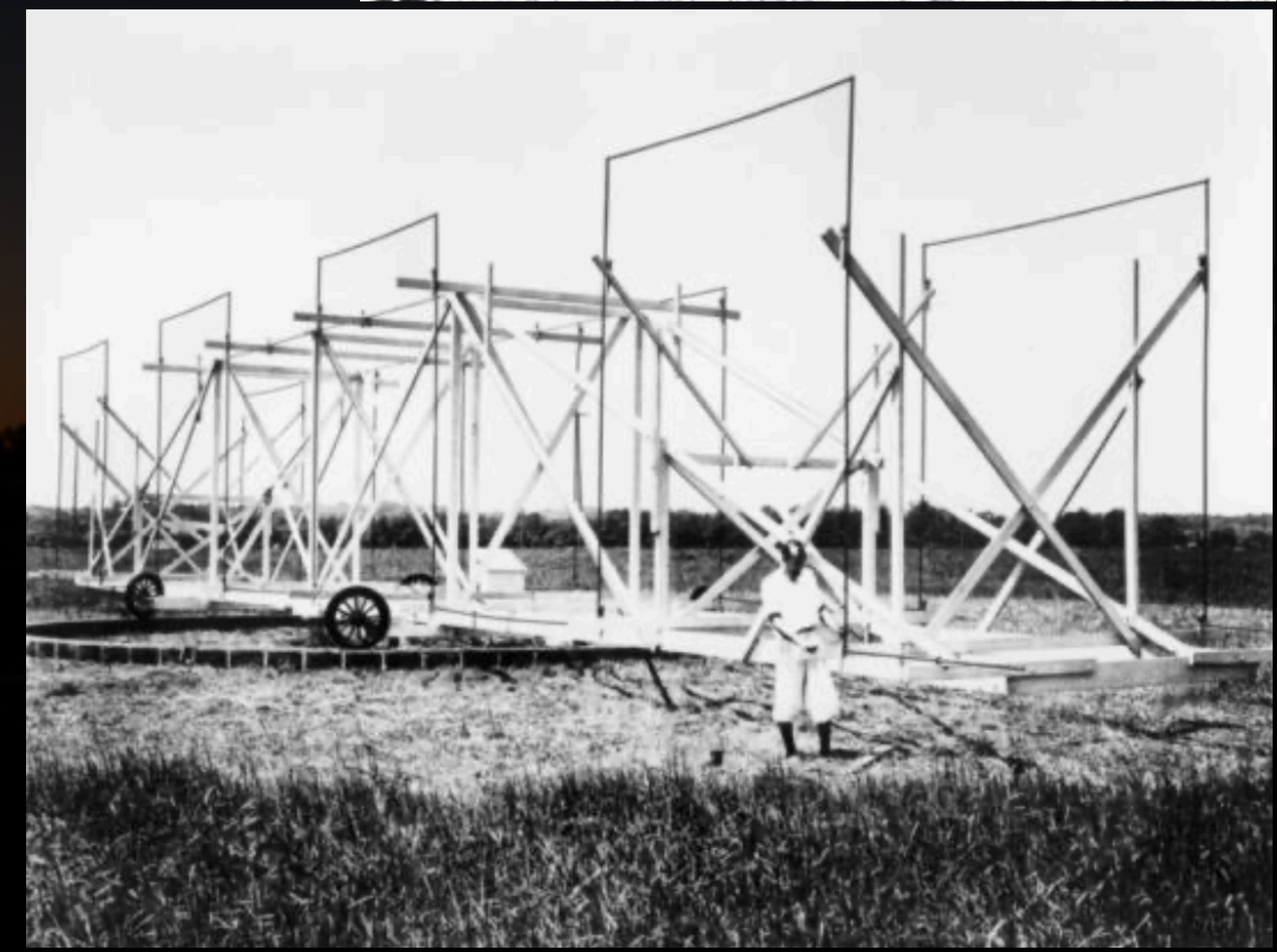


Overview

- RAD1 (Intro to radio astronomy and radio telescopes)
- RAD2 (Single-dish data processing)
- RAD3 (Single-dish data processing)
- RAD4 (Radio interferometry)
- RAD5 (Interferometric data processing)
- RAD6 (Interferometric data processing)

History of radio astronomy

- 1932 - Karl Jansky (Bell Telephone Labs) ~20 MHz detected Galactic emission
- 1938 - Grote Reber built a 10m parabolic telescope and mapped the Galaxy at 160 MHz
- 1950's - Discrete sources detected
- 1960's - High resolution interferometry
- 1970's/80's - Interferometric imaging array (e.g. VLA)
- 2000s - Development of software-based receivers
- 2020s - Start of SKA, conceived in 1991, first MoU in 2000



EM Spectrum

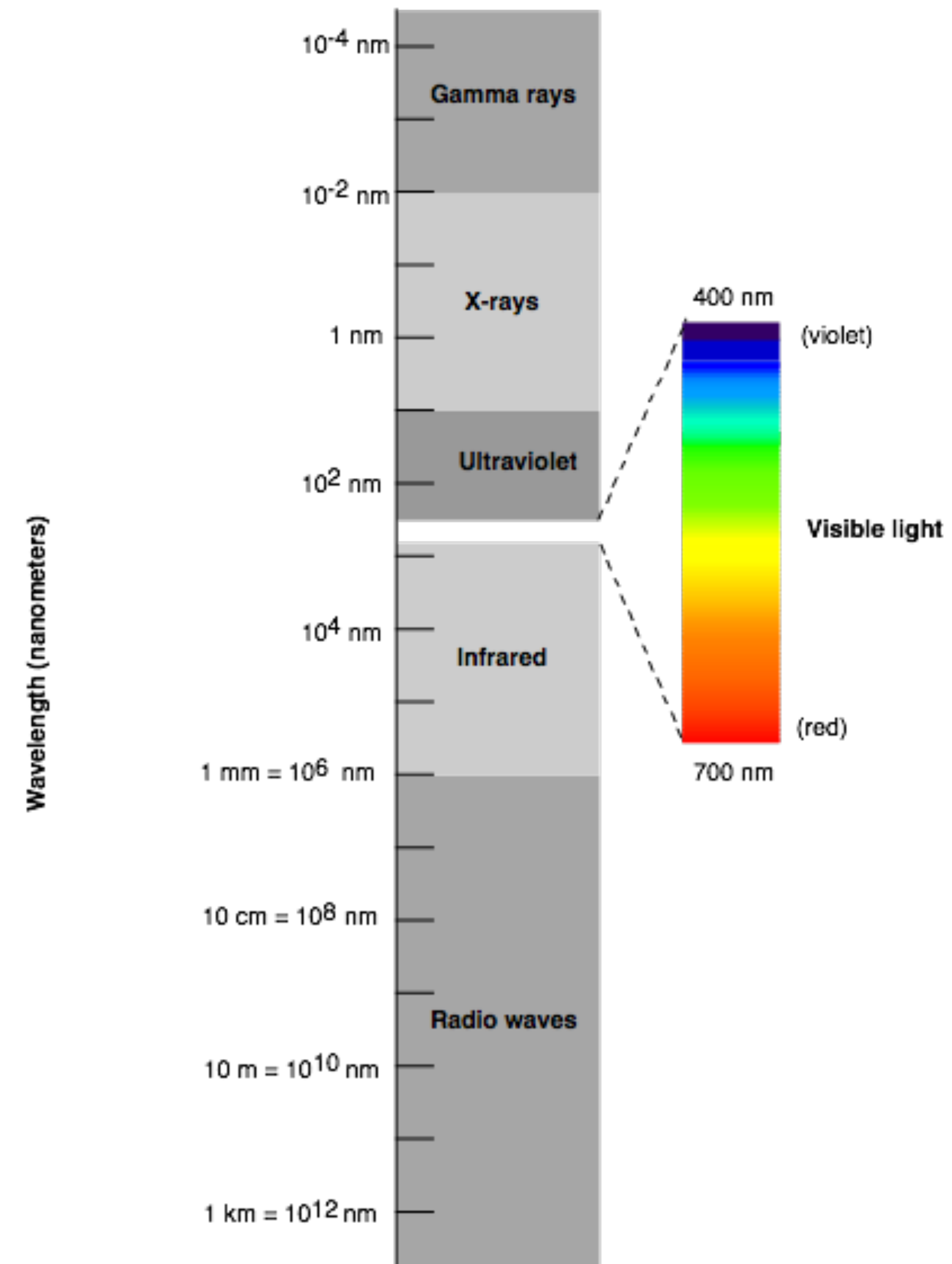
Radio Waves => electromagnetic waves
with $\lambda = 0.3\text{mm} - 100\text{km}$
(1 THz - 3 kHz)

Most radio telescopes and interferometers
> 500 MHz (0.6 m)

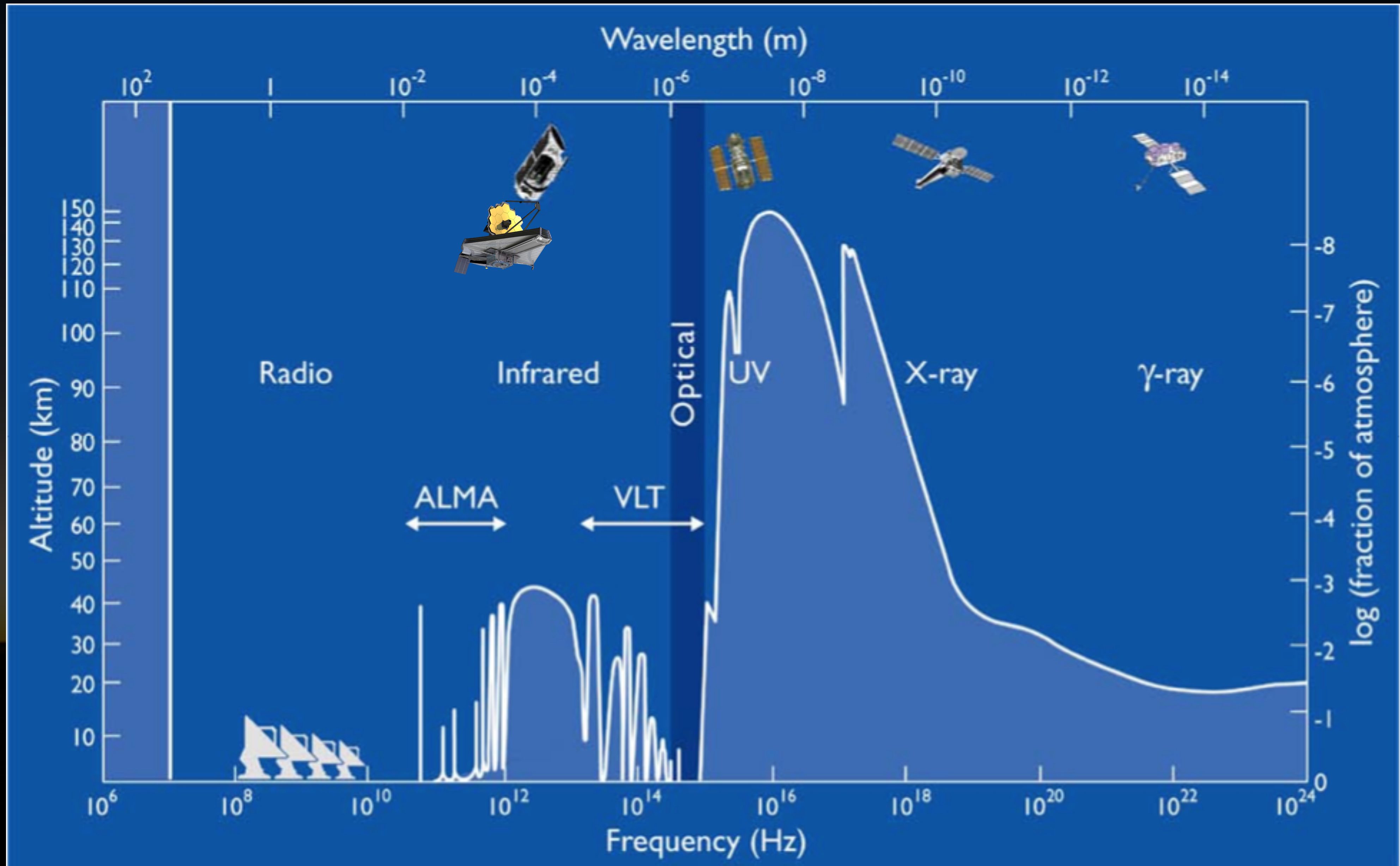
Microwaves (1 cm - 30 m)
(30 GHz - 10 MHz)

Millimetre (1 mm to 10 mm)
(300 GHz - 30 GHz)

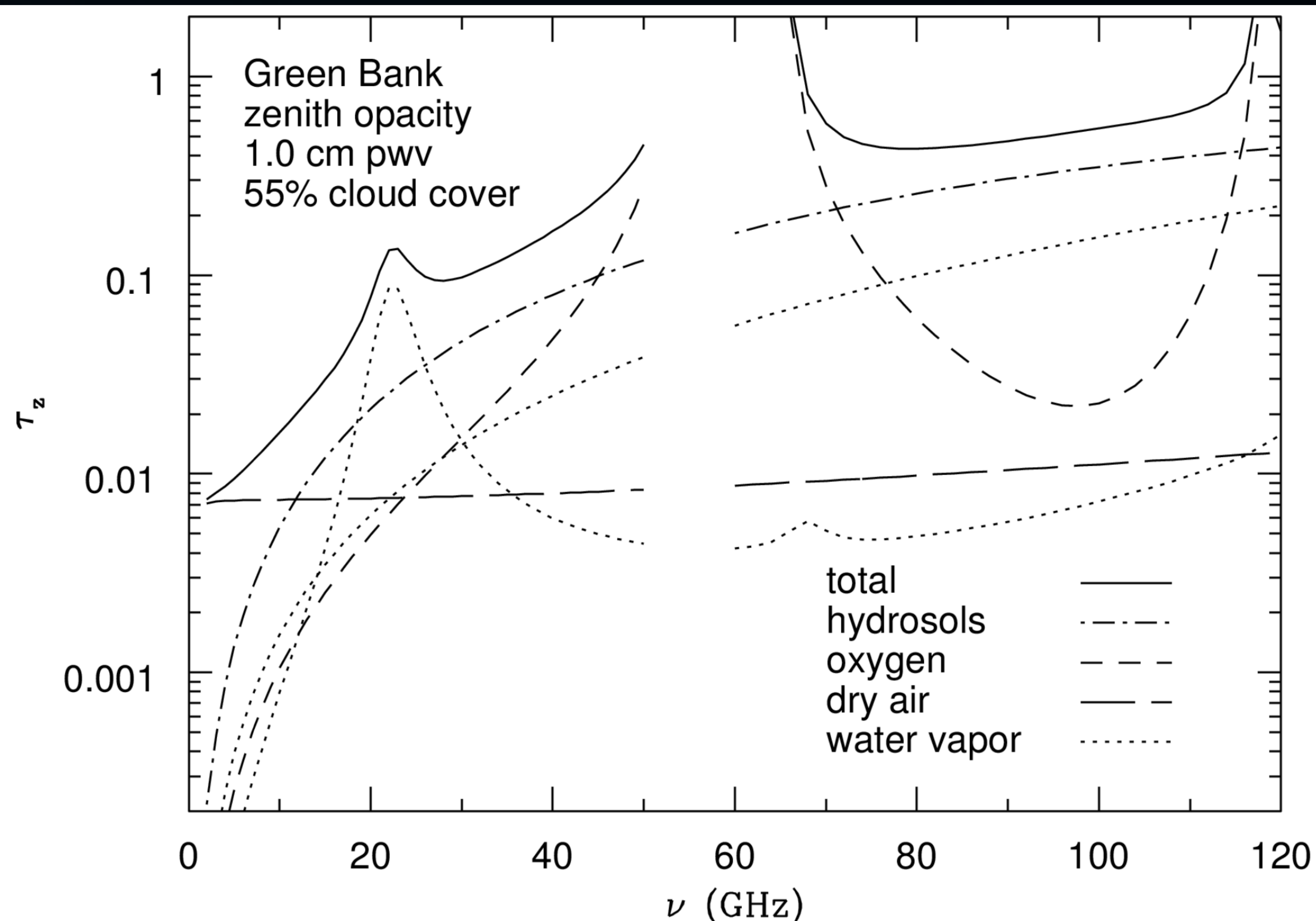
Sub-millimetre (< 1 mm, up to 0.4 mm)
(> 300 GHz)



Why should we care about the radio band?



Opacity in radio bands





Bands and naming conventions



High Frequency (mm/sub-mm):

JCMT

$\lambda \sim 2000 - 345 \mu\text{m}$

$\nu \sim 150 - 870 \text{ GHz}$

ALMA

$\lambda \sim 3\text{mm} - 400 \mu\text{m}$

$\nu \sim 84 - 720 \text{ GHz} (40 - 950 \text{ GHz})$

Low Frequency:

LOFAR

$\lambda \sim 1 - 20 \text{ m}$

$\nu \sim 10 - 240 \text{ MHz}$

(10-90, 110-240)

Large Radio Telescopes

$\nu > 500 \text{ MHz}$:

GBT ($\nu \sim 0.32 - 100 \text{ GHz}$)

L Band	18 cm	1.40 GHz
S Band	13 cm	2.3 GHz
C Band	6 cm	5.0 GHz
X Band	3.5 cm	8.4 GHz
U Band	2.5 cm	15 GHz
K Band	1.3 cm	22 GHz
Ka Band	0.9 cm	32 GHz
Q Band	0.7 cm	43 GHz





How much energy does a radio photon carry?





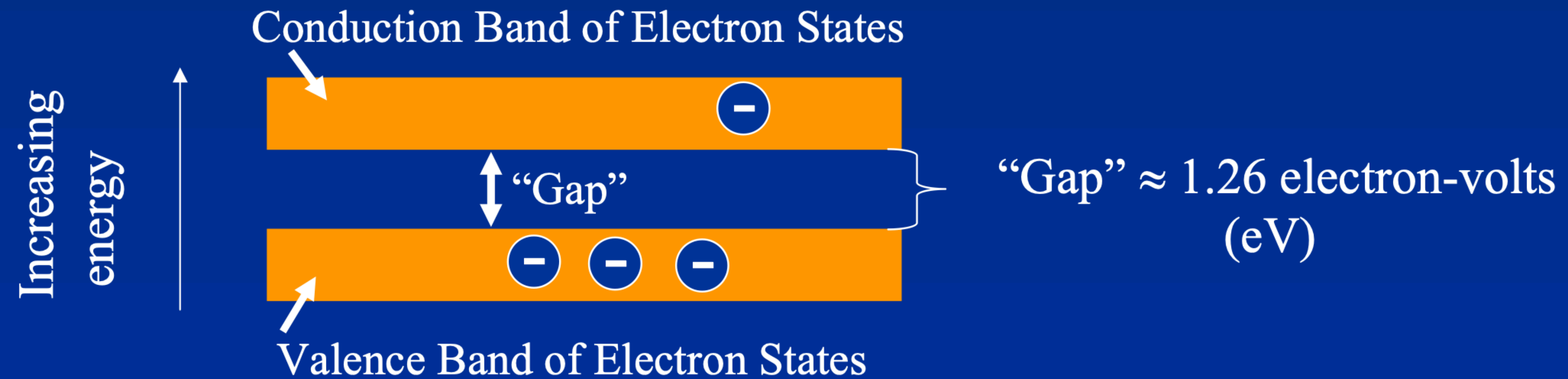
Energies

	λ	E	$T (= h\nu/k)$
Optical photons	600nm	$\sim 2\text{eV}$	20,000 K
Radio photons	1m	$\sim 10^{-6}\text{eV}$	0.012 K

\Rightarrow photon-counting is not an option in radio ast.



CCD



$E = 1.26$ electron Volts

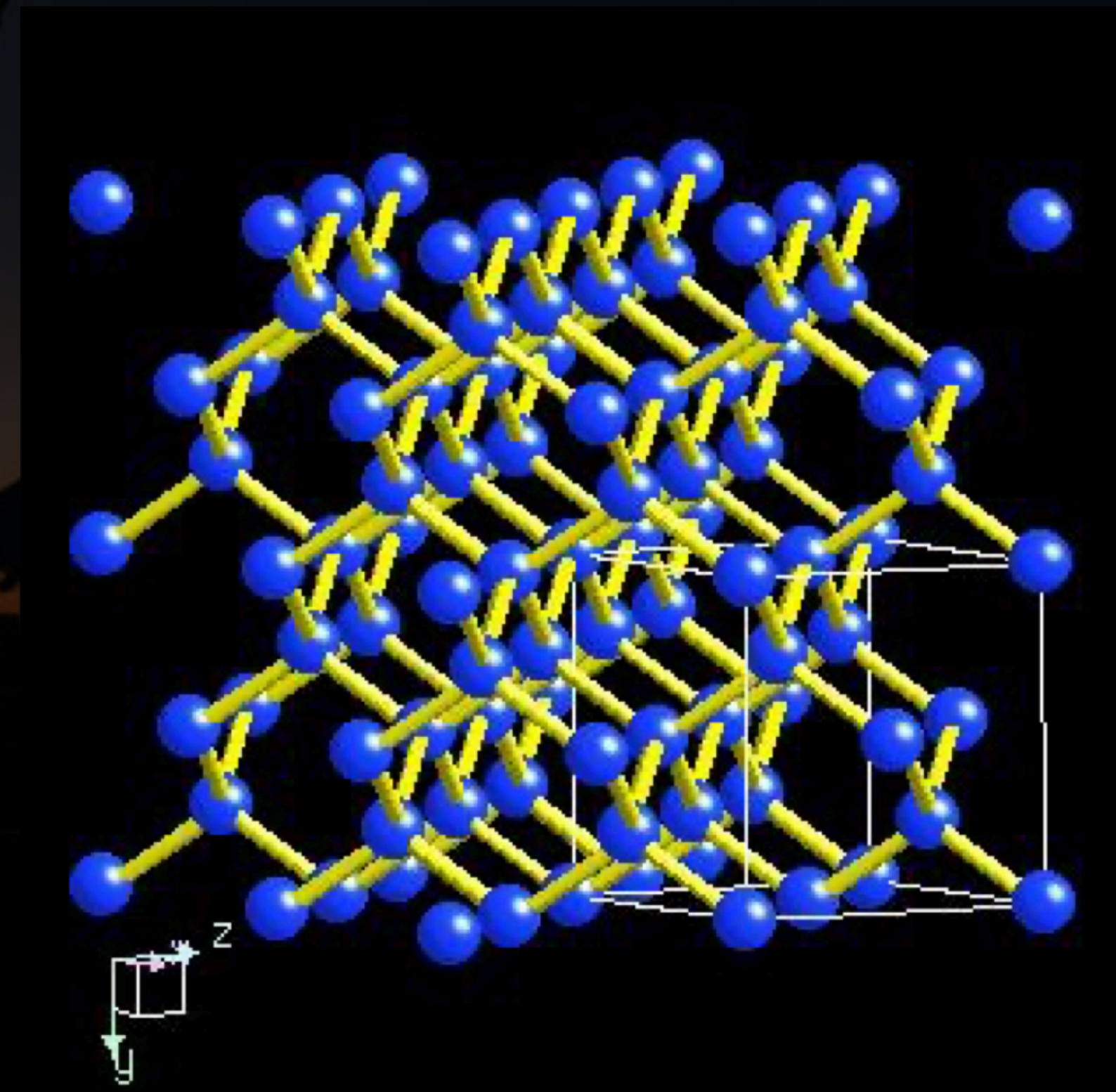
- $1 \text{ eV} = 1.602 \times 10^{-12} \text{ erg} = 1.602 \times 10^{-12} \text{ Joule}$

$$\lambda = \frac{hc}{E} = \frac{(6.624 \times 10^{-27} \text{ erg} - \text{sec}) \cdot \left(3 \times 10^8 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{sec}}\right)}{1.26 \text{ eV} \times \left(1.602 \times 10^{-12} \frac{\text{erg}}{\text{eV}}\right)}$$
$$= 9.84 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m} = 984 \text{ nm}$$

⇒ To Energize Electron in Si Lattice Requires

$$\lambda < 984 \text{ nm} \cong 1 \mu\text{m}$$

Silicon





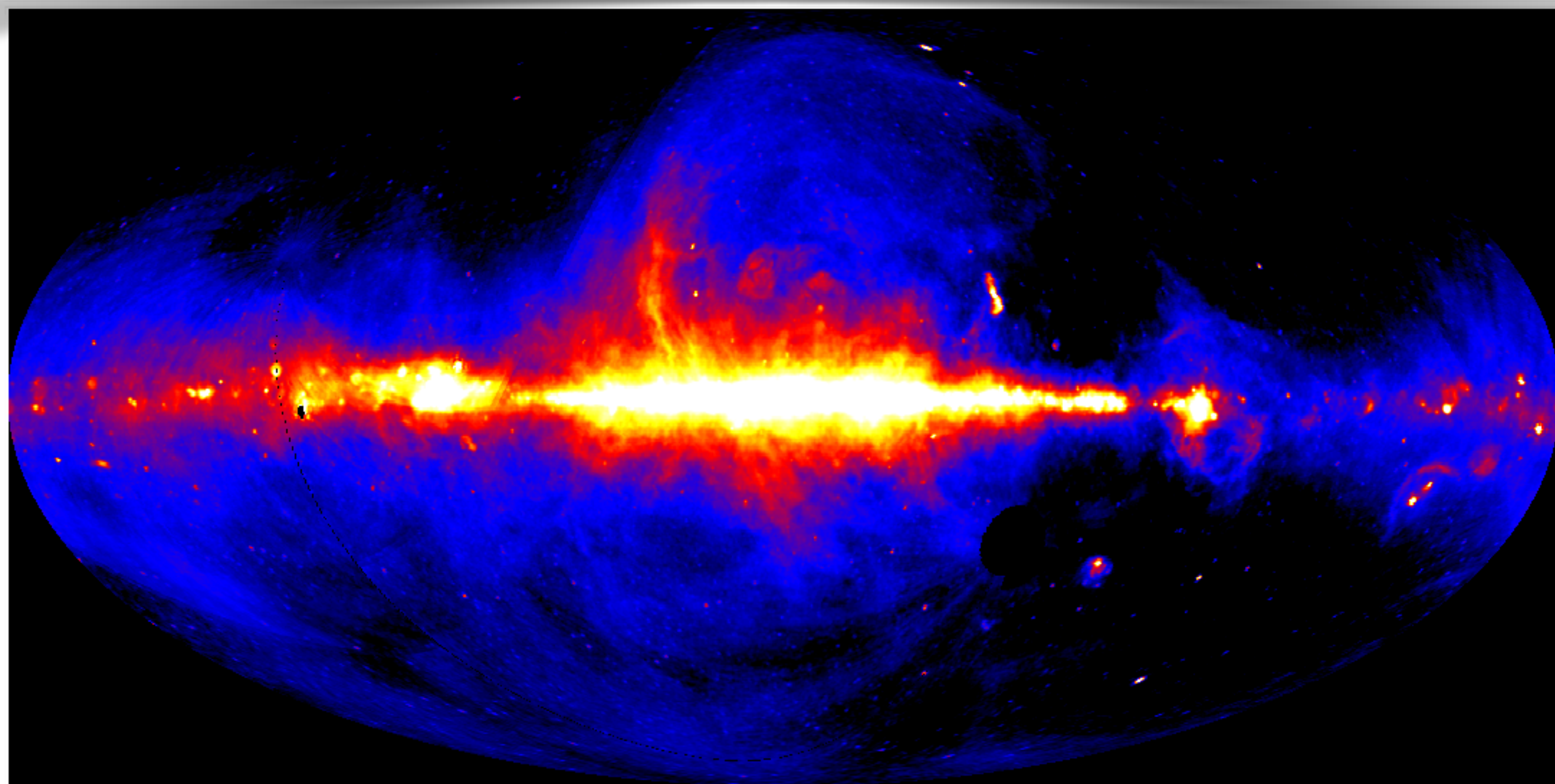
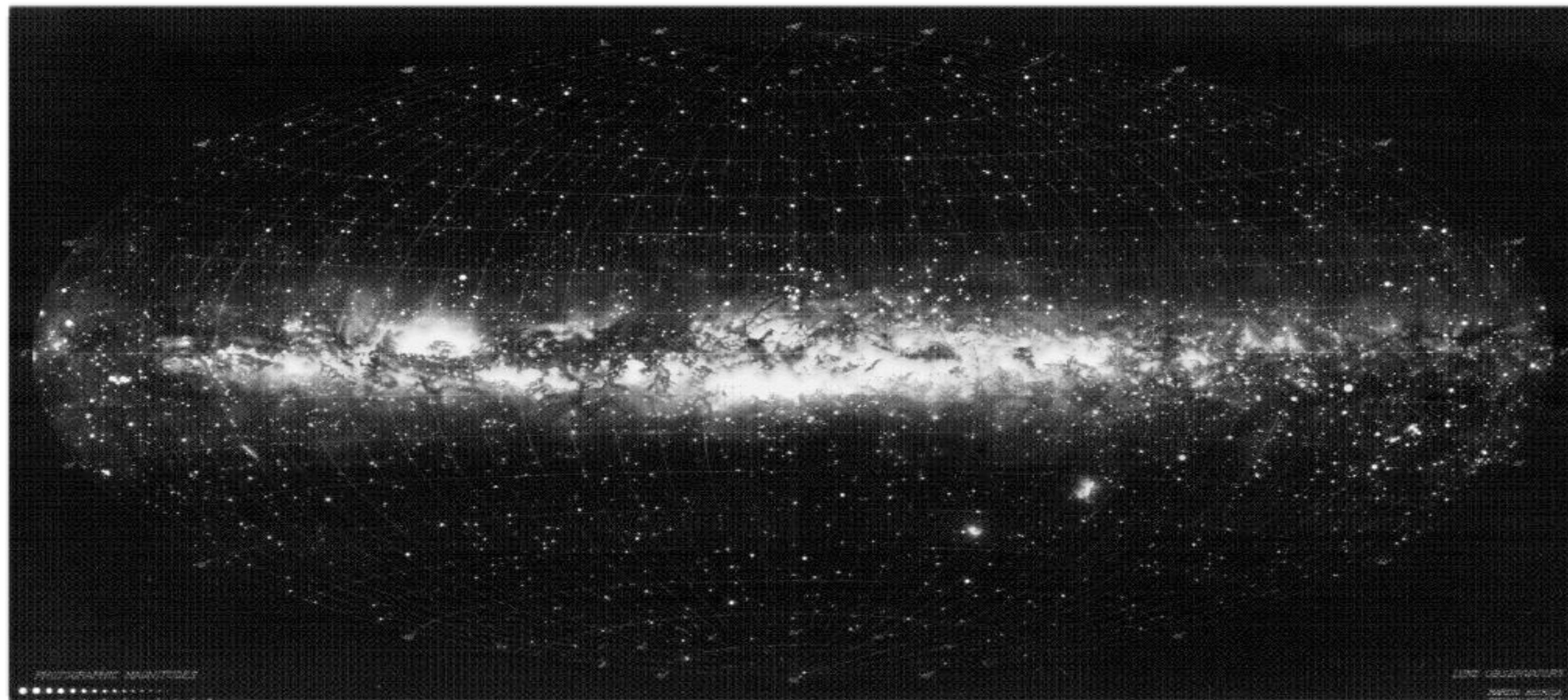
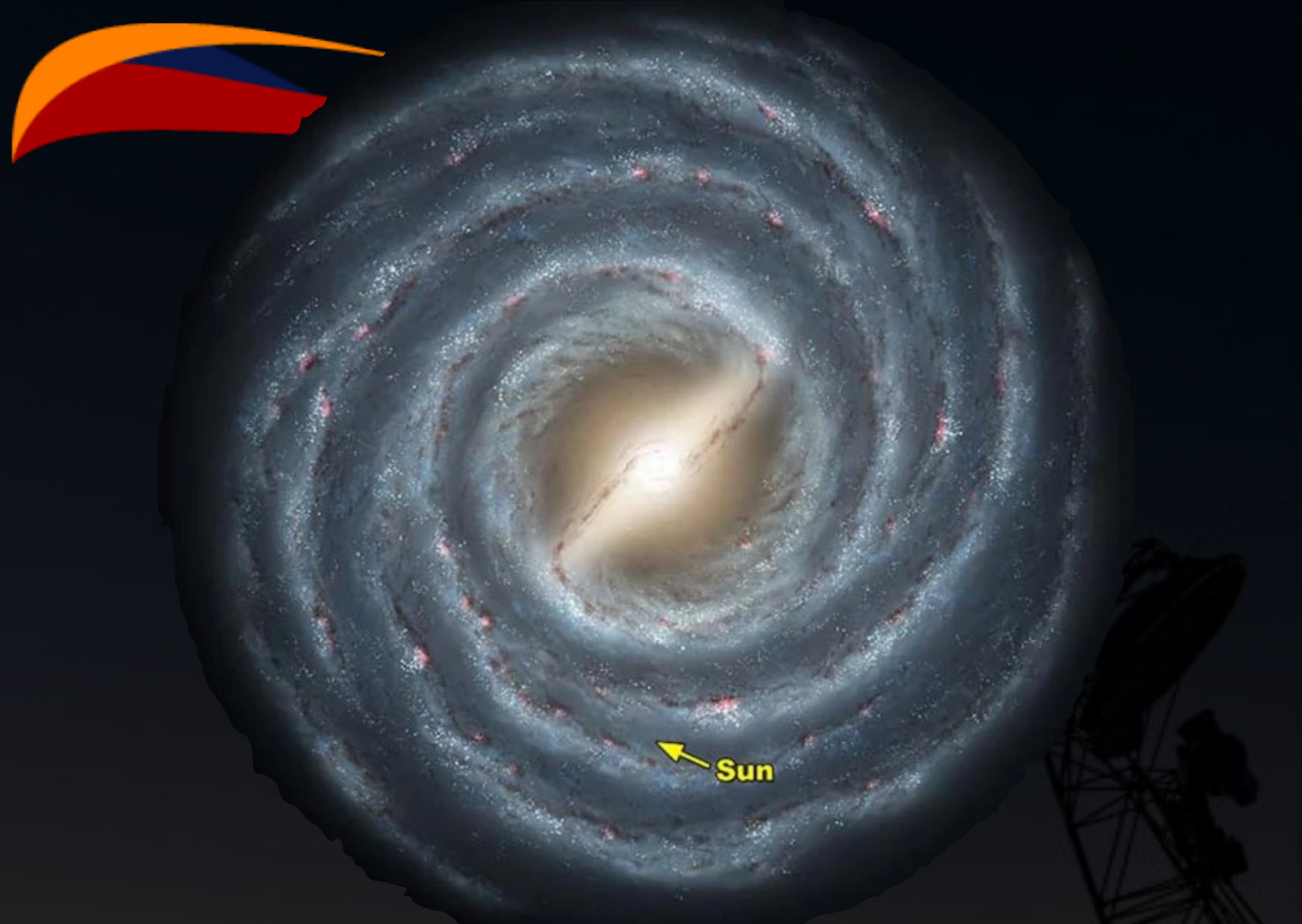
What do we measure in radio observations?





Photon counting in the radio is not usually an option, we must think classically in terms of measuring the source electric field

=> i.e. measure the voltage oscillations induced in a conductor (antenna) by the incoming EM-wave.



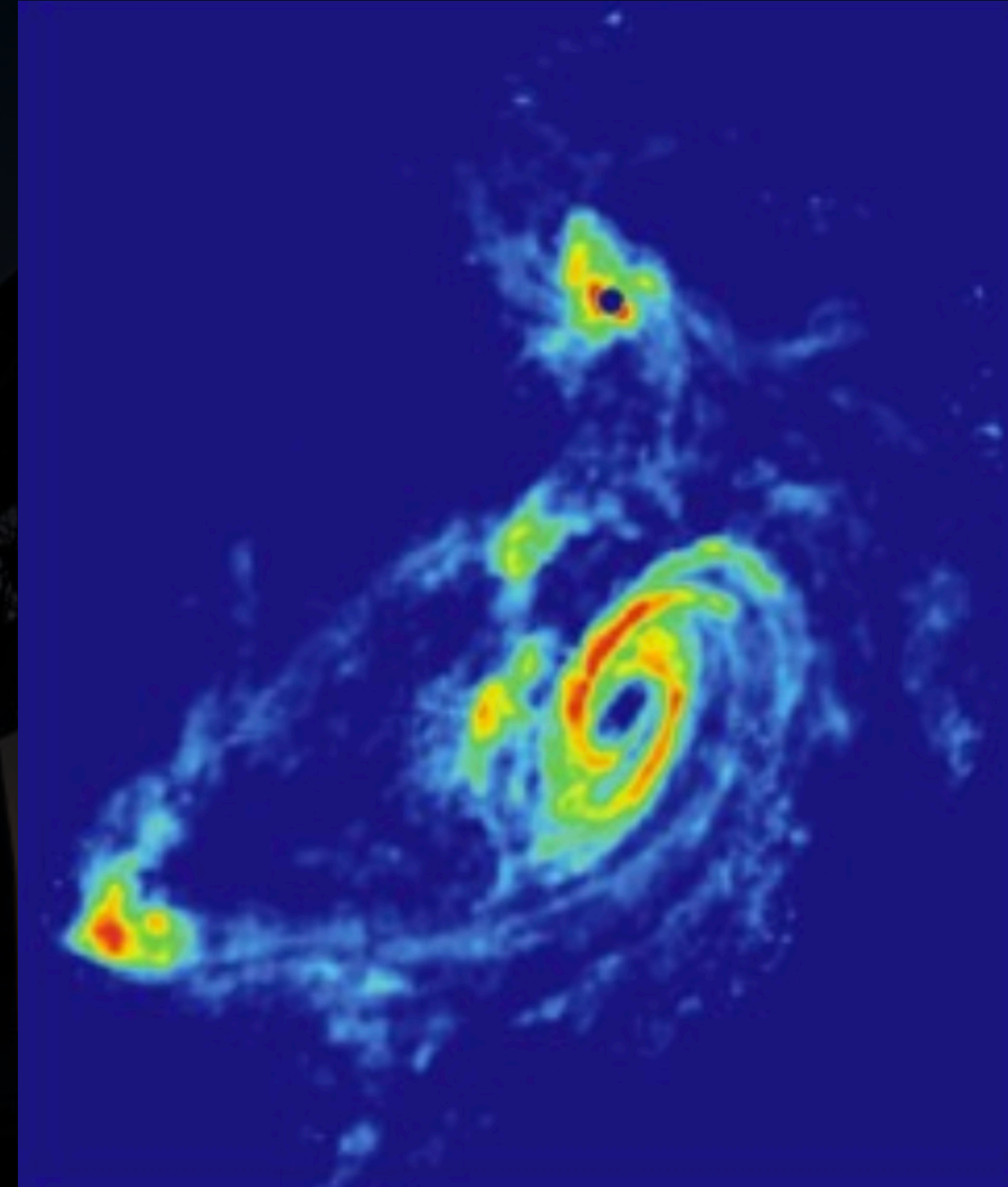
Incomplete picture without radio data....



Centaurus A galaxy



What do you see in the optical image?





How are radio emissions from astronomical objects produced?



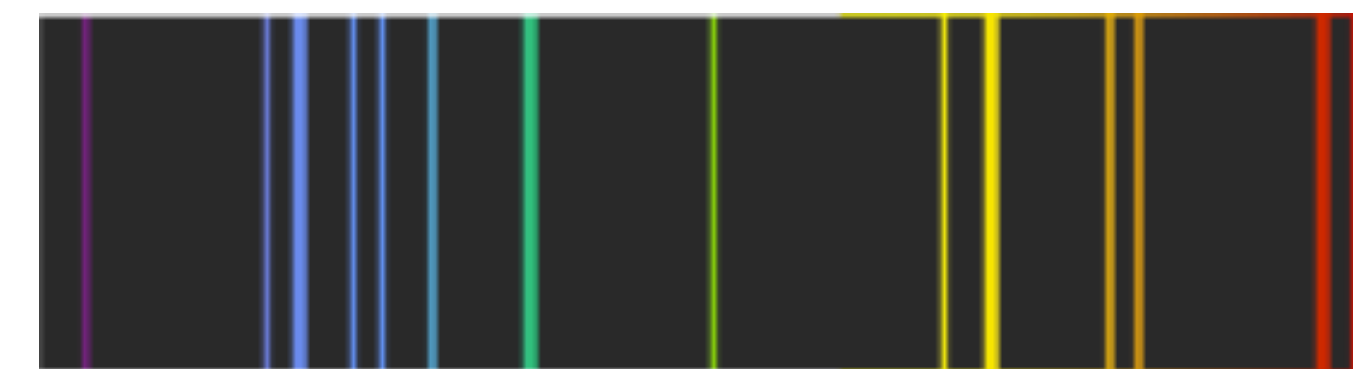
Radio Emission Processes

- Electromagnetic emission can be divided into two types:



Continuum emission

=> emission over a very broad frequency range
usually due to the acceleration of charged particles moving with a wide-range of energy



Spectral line emission

=> emission over a very narrow frequency range
usually due to the discrete transitions in the internal energy states of atoms or molecules

Radio Emission Processes

$$B_\nu = \frac{2kT\nu^2}{c^2} = \frac{2kT}{\lambda^2} \quad (h\nu \ll kT)$$

- Continuum emission

Radio astronomy is **cool** 😎



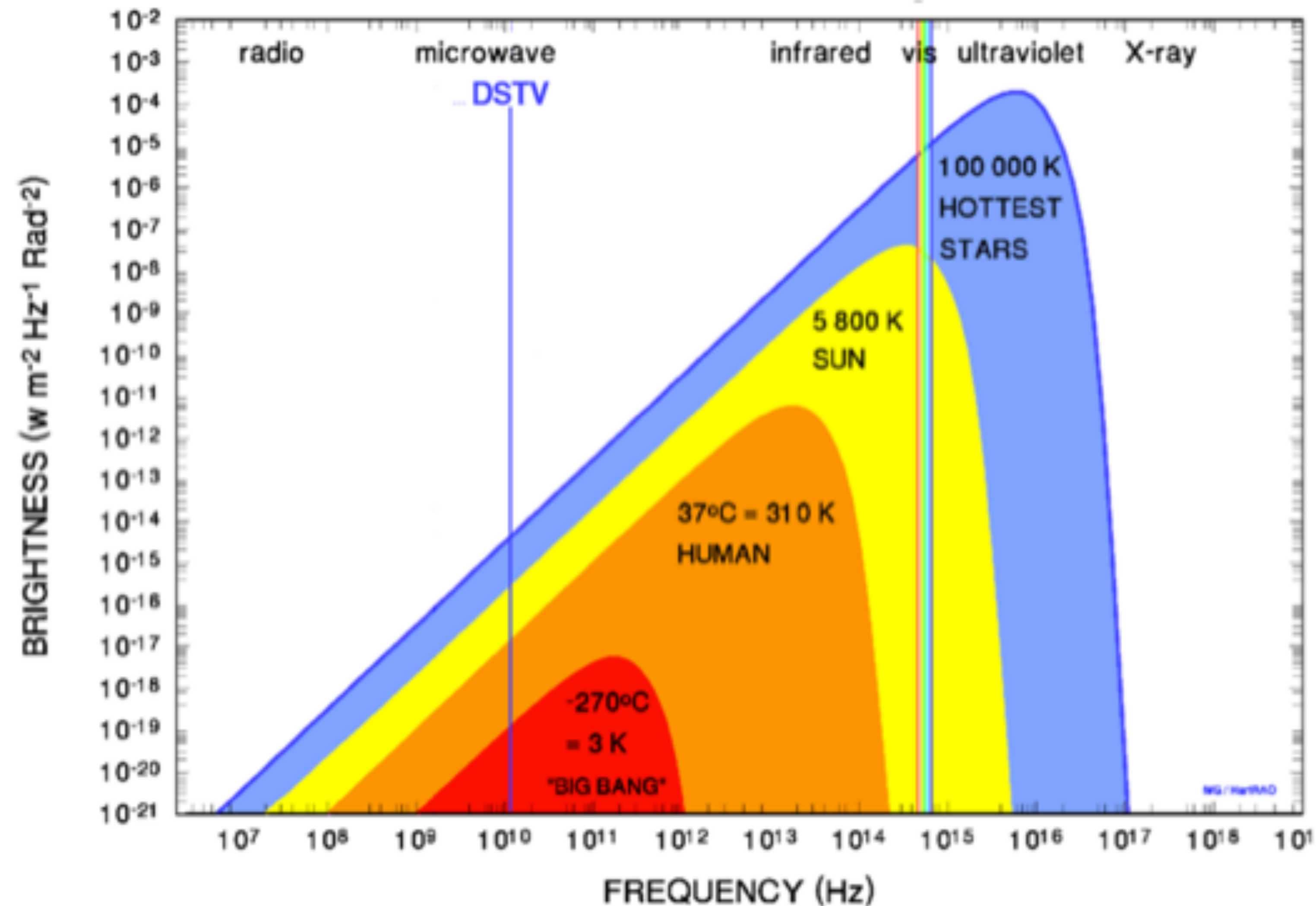
Thermal Emission

=> Black body radiation for objects with temperature $T \sim 3\text{-}30\text{ K}$ (CMB radiation peaks at $T = 2.7\text{ K}$, 0.001 metres , 300 GHz).

=> Bremsstrahlung (free-free) emission: deflection of a charged particle (electron) in the electric field of another charged particle (ion)



$$B_\lambda(\lambda, T) = \frac{2hc^2}{\lambda^5} \frac{1}{e^{\frac{hc}{\lambda k_B T}} - 1}$$



Radio Emission Processes

- Continuum emission

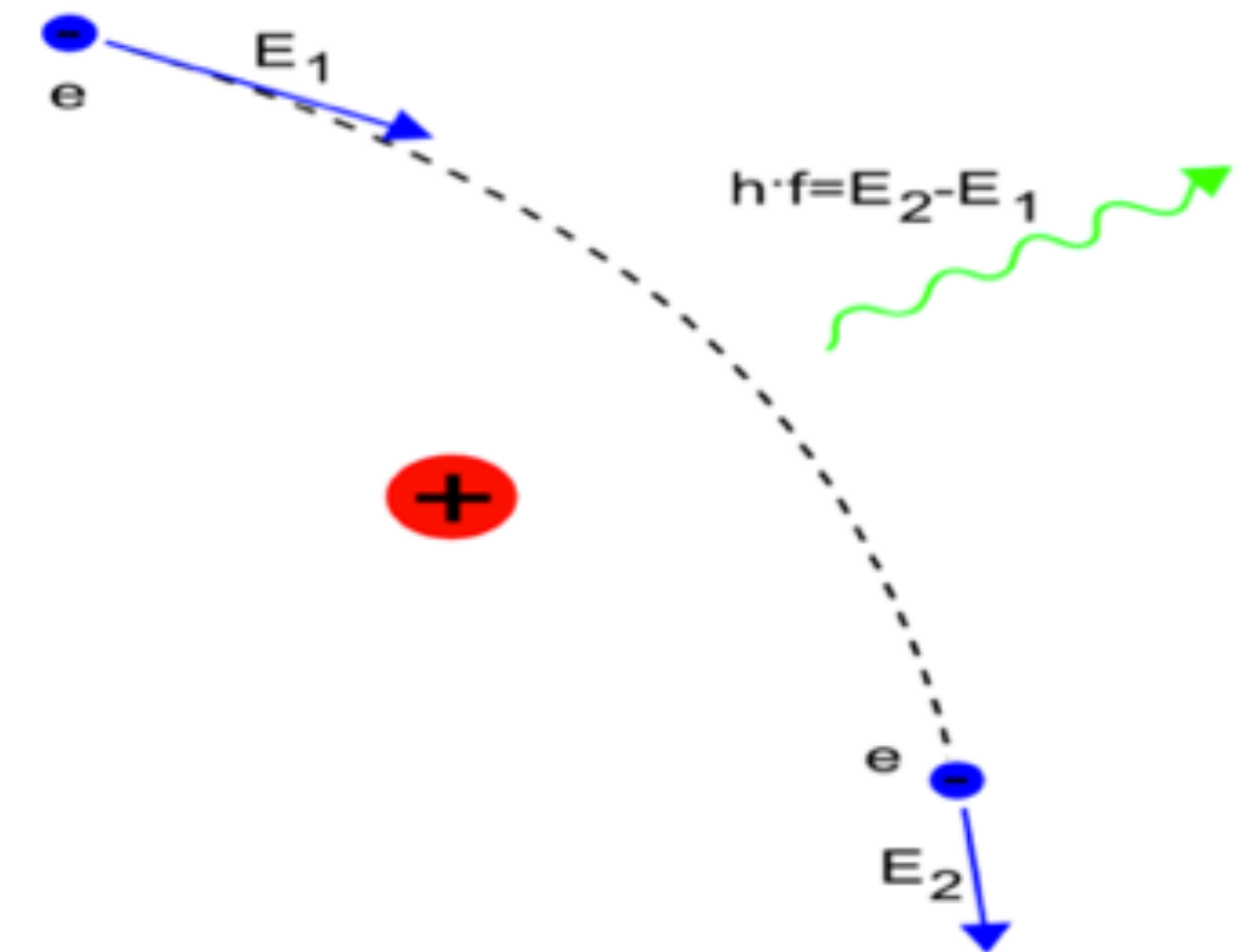


Radio astronomy is **cool** 😎

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Radio Emission Processes

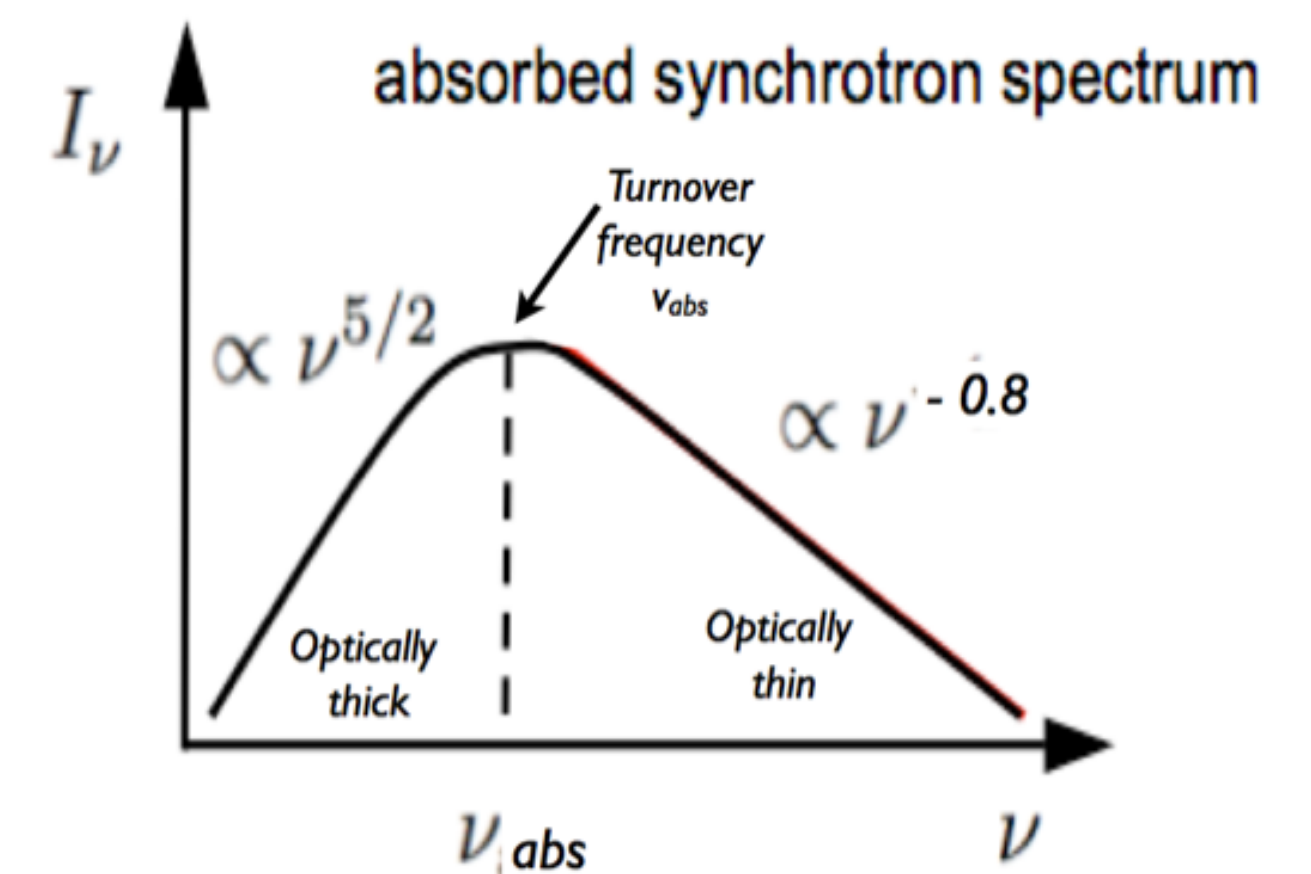
- Continuum emission



Non-thermal Emission

=> Synchrotron radiation: relativistic electrons spiraling around weak magnetic field lines.

=> Since synchrotron radiation is strongest at low frequencies (long wavelength) it can be detected with **radio telescopes**.



Radio Emission Processes

- Spectral Line Emission



Neutral hydrogen HI (21 cm)

=> Most NB spectral line in the radio.

=> spin-flip transition between high-energy state and low-energy state of the H atom (aligned vs opposed spins for p+ and e-).

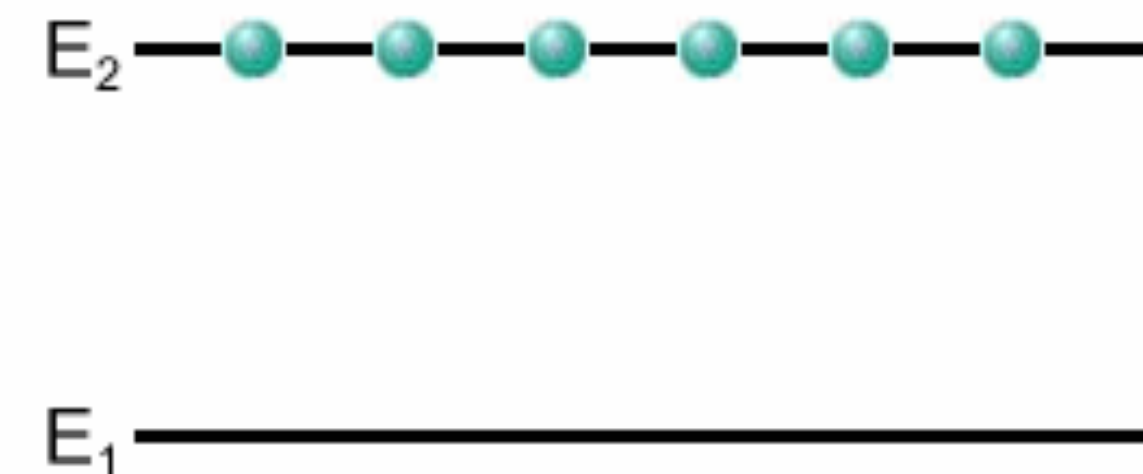
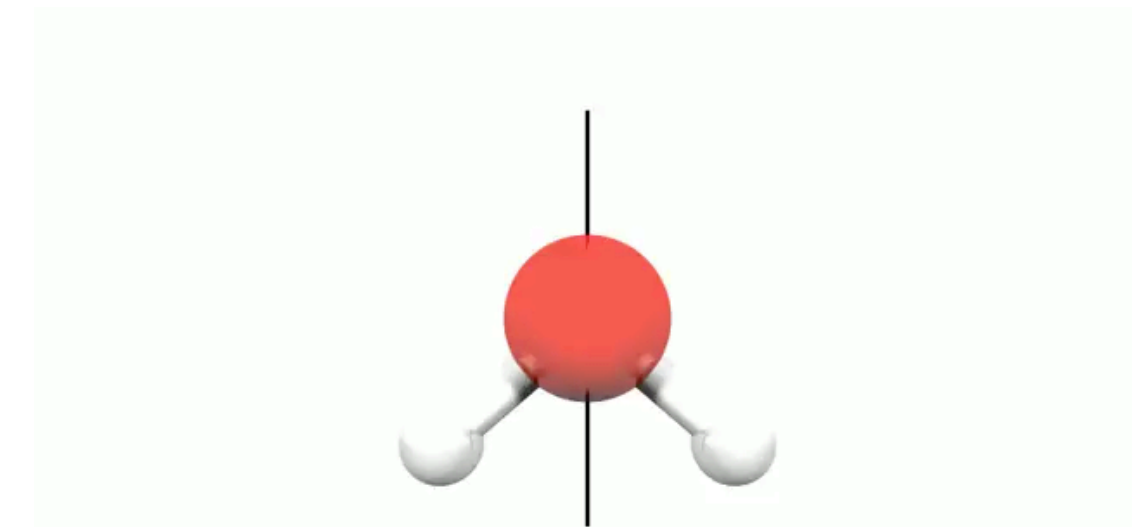
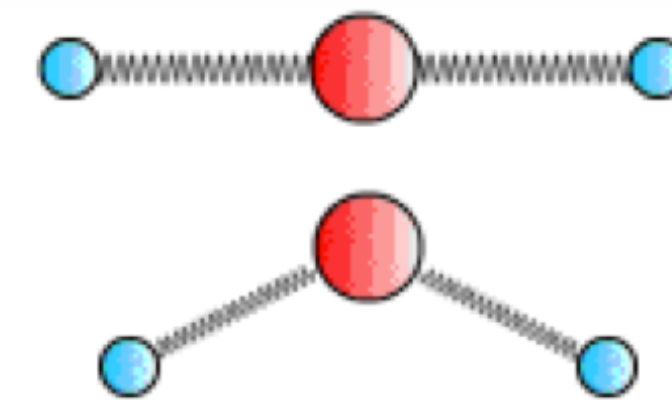
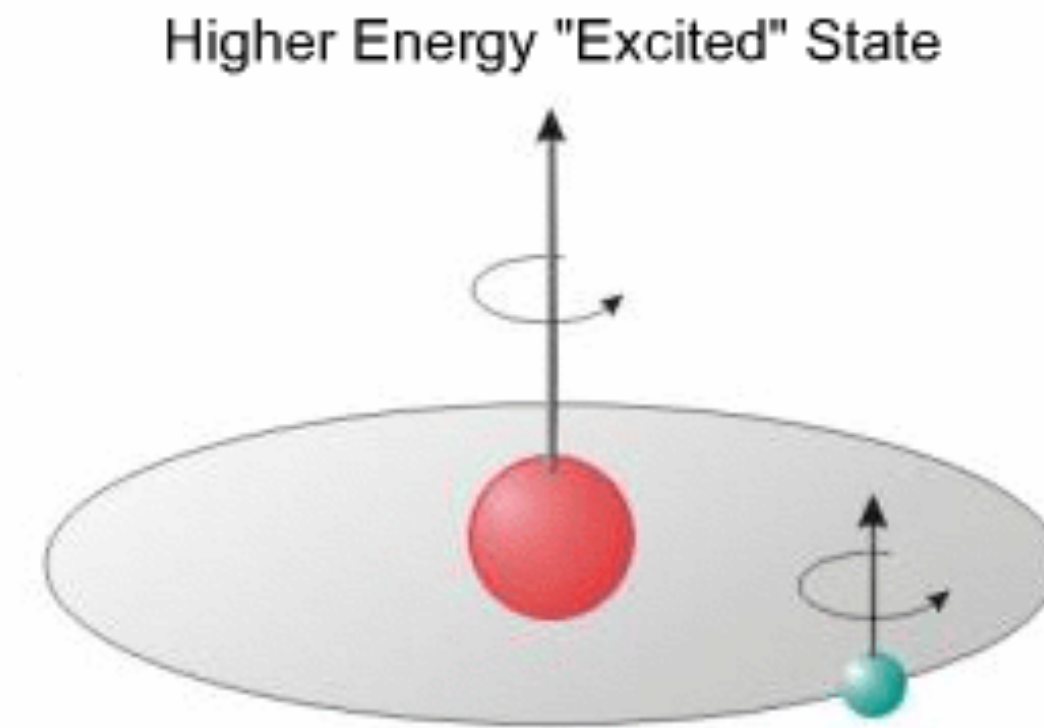
=> Although this transition is rare - there is just so much H in the ISM !

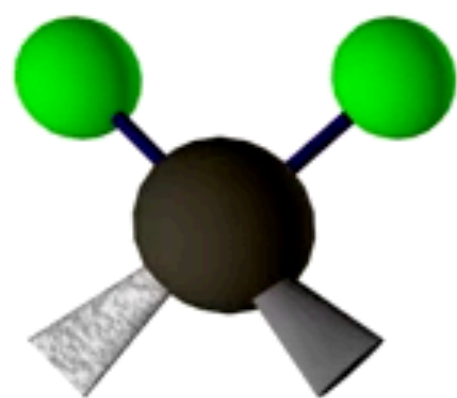
Molecular lines (CO, CS, CN,...)

=> Produced by changes in the vibrational or rotational states of their electrons (due to collisions or interactions)

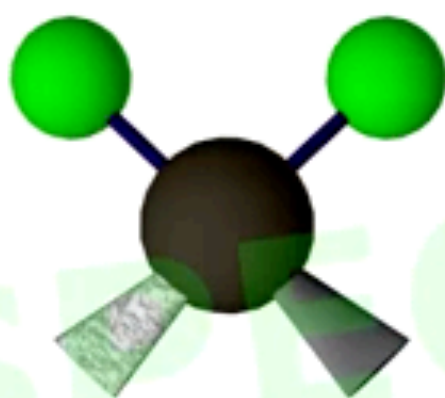
Maser emission (OH, H₂O, SiO,...)

=> Amplification of incident radiation passing through clouds of gas

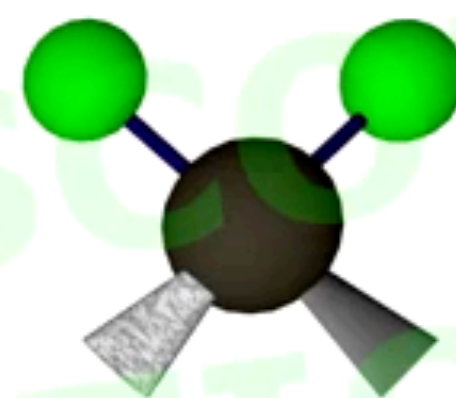




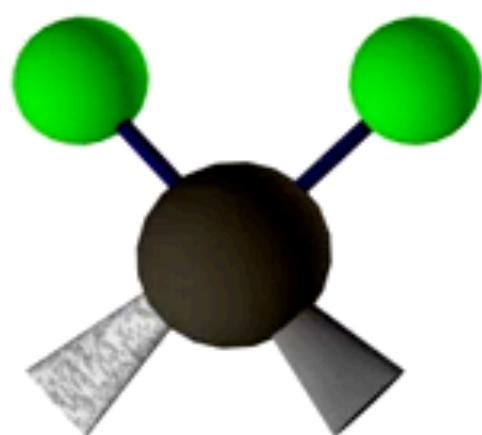
**SYMMETRIC
STRETCHING**



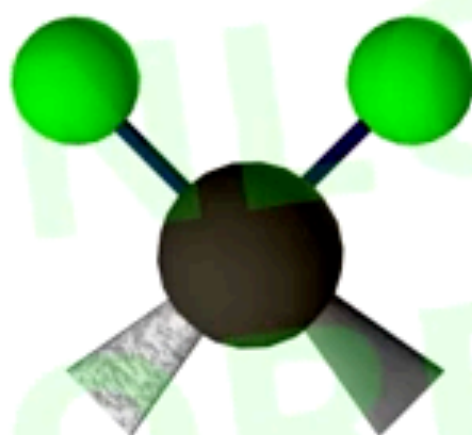
**ANTISYMMETRIC
STRETCHING**



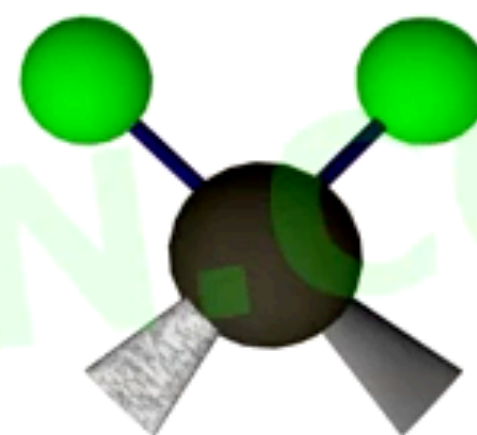
ROCKING



WAGGING



TWISTING



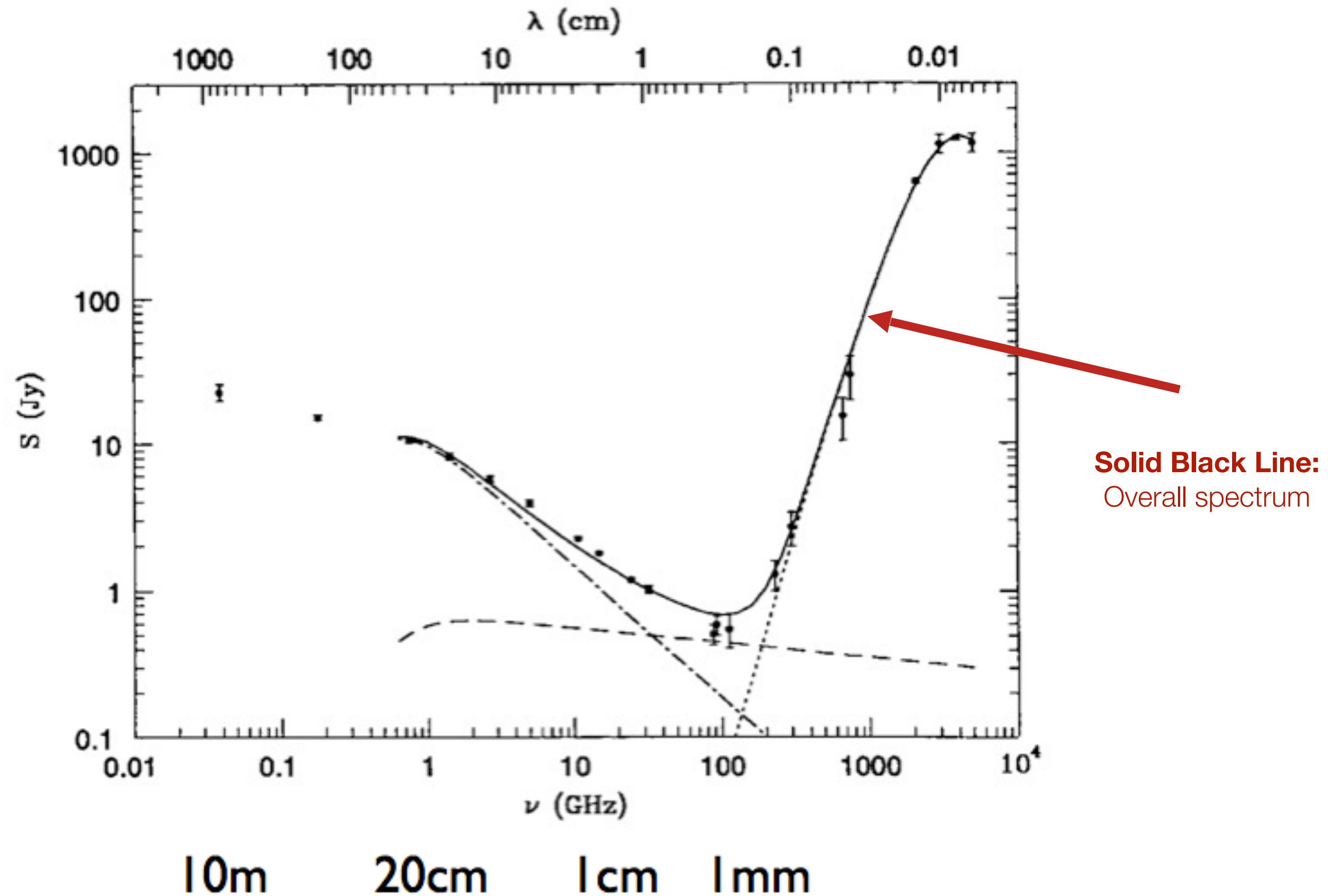
SCISSORING

Radio Emission Processes

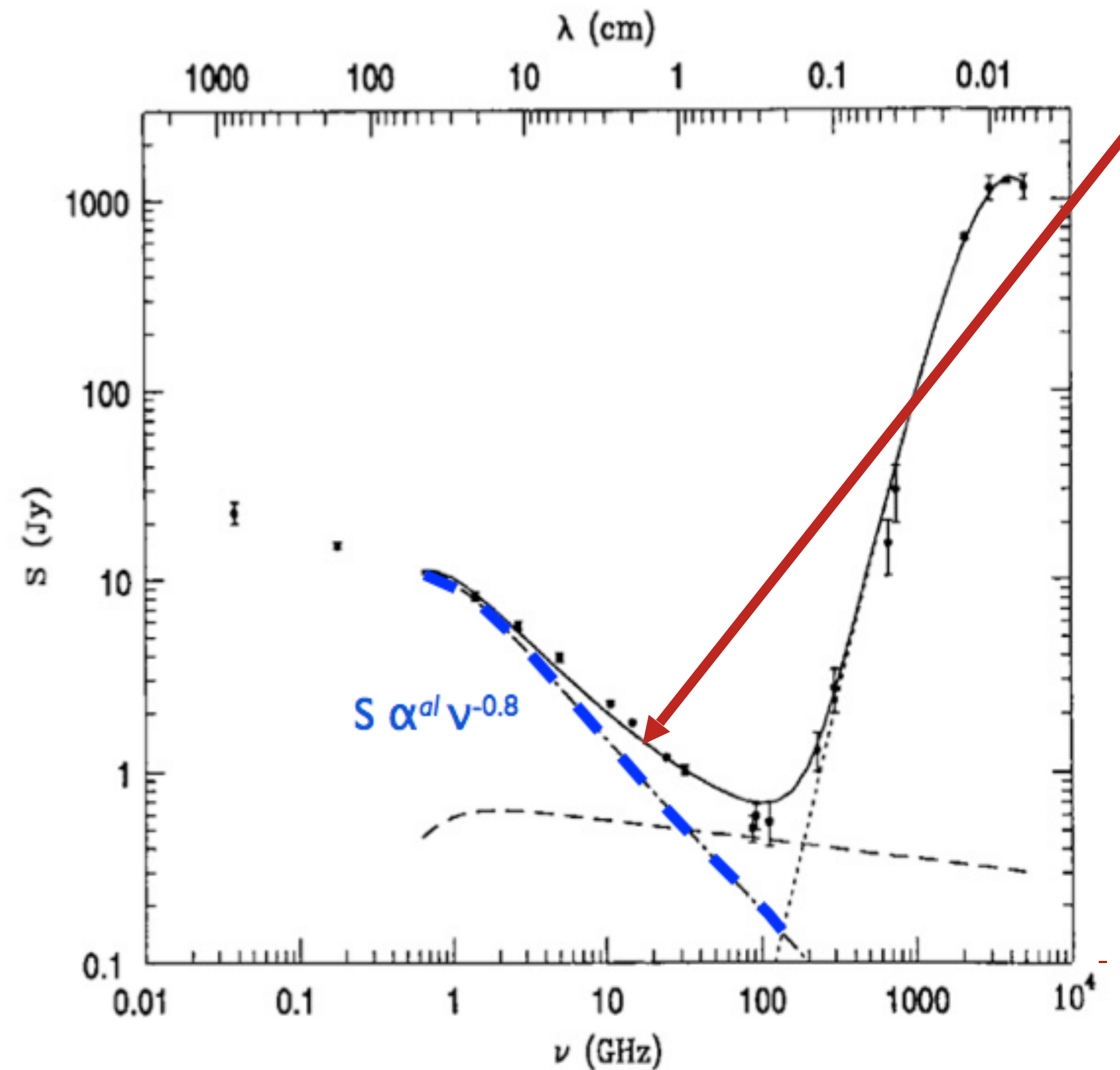
Wavelength	Spectral Line	Continuum
meter, cm, mm	<p>Neutral Hydrogen (HI) 21 cm fine structure line - neutral gas</p> <p>Hydrogen recombination lines - ionised gas</p> <p>OH, H₂O, SiO Masers - dense warm molecular gas</p> <p>Molecular rotation lines - cold molecular gas</p>	<p>Thermal Bremsstrahlung (free-free emission) - HII regions</p> <p>Synchrotron Radiation - jets in radio galaxies, pulsars, shocks in supernovae, cosmic ray electrons in the magnetic fields of normal galaxies etc., acceleration of electrons in stellar and planetary systems</p> <p>Thermal emission from dust - cold dense gas</p>
sub-mm (and FIR)	<p>Molecular rotation lines - warm, dense gas</p> <p>Solid state features (silicates) - dust</p> <p>Hydrogen recombination lines - ionised HII regions</p>	<p>Thermal emission - warm dust</p>

Radio Emission Processes

Example: the radio spectrum of a “normal” star forming galaxy like M82



Radio Emission Processes

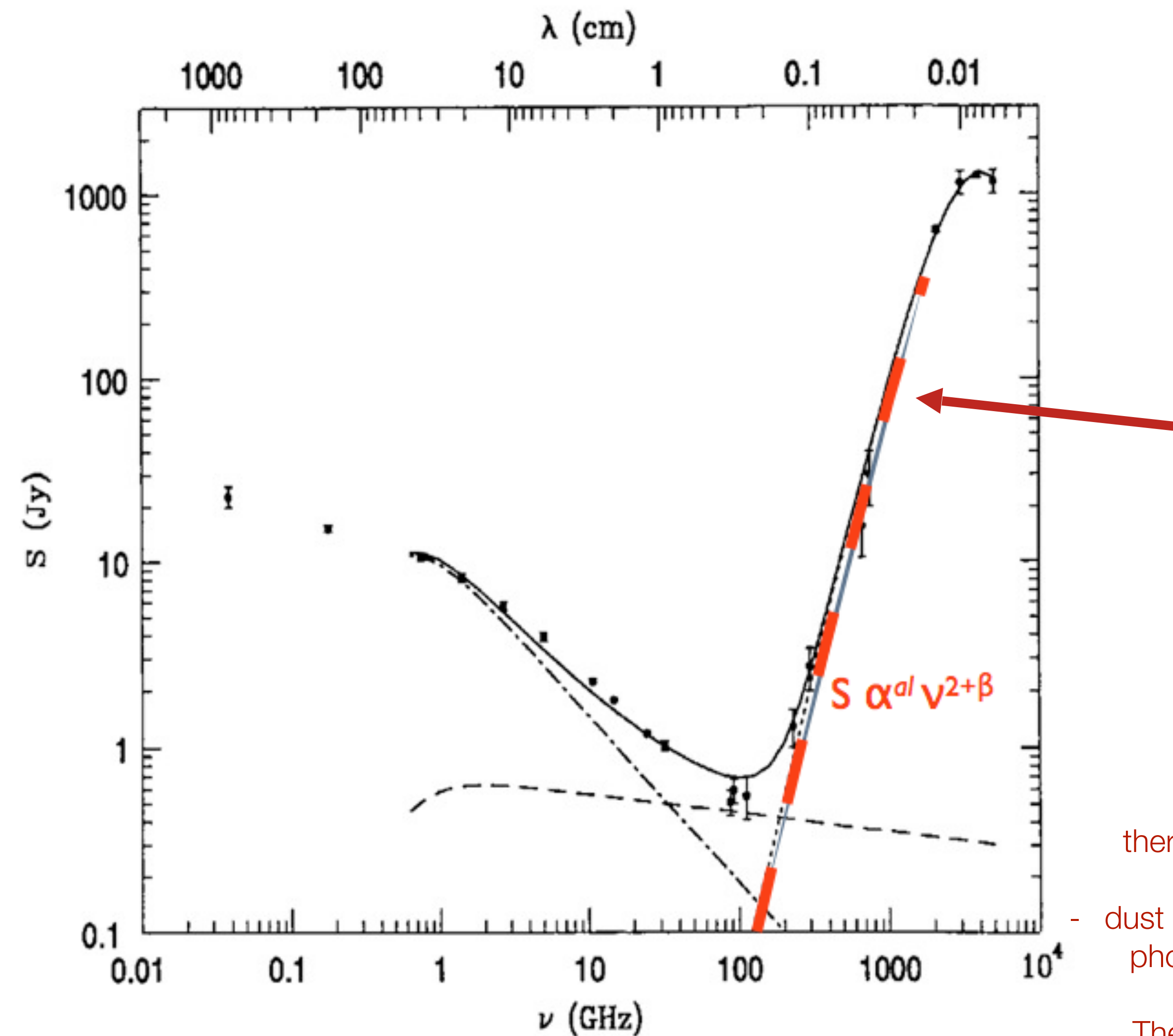


Blue Line is a steep spectrum.

synchrotron emission:

cosmic ray electrons
accelerated in M82's
magnetic field.

Radio Emission Processes

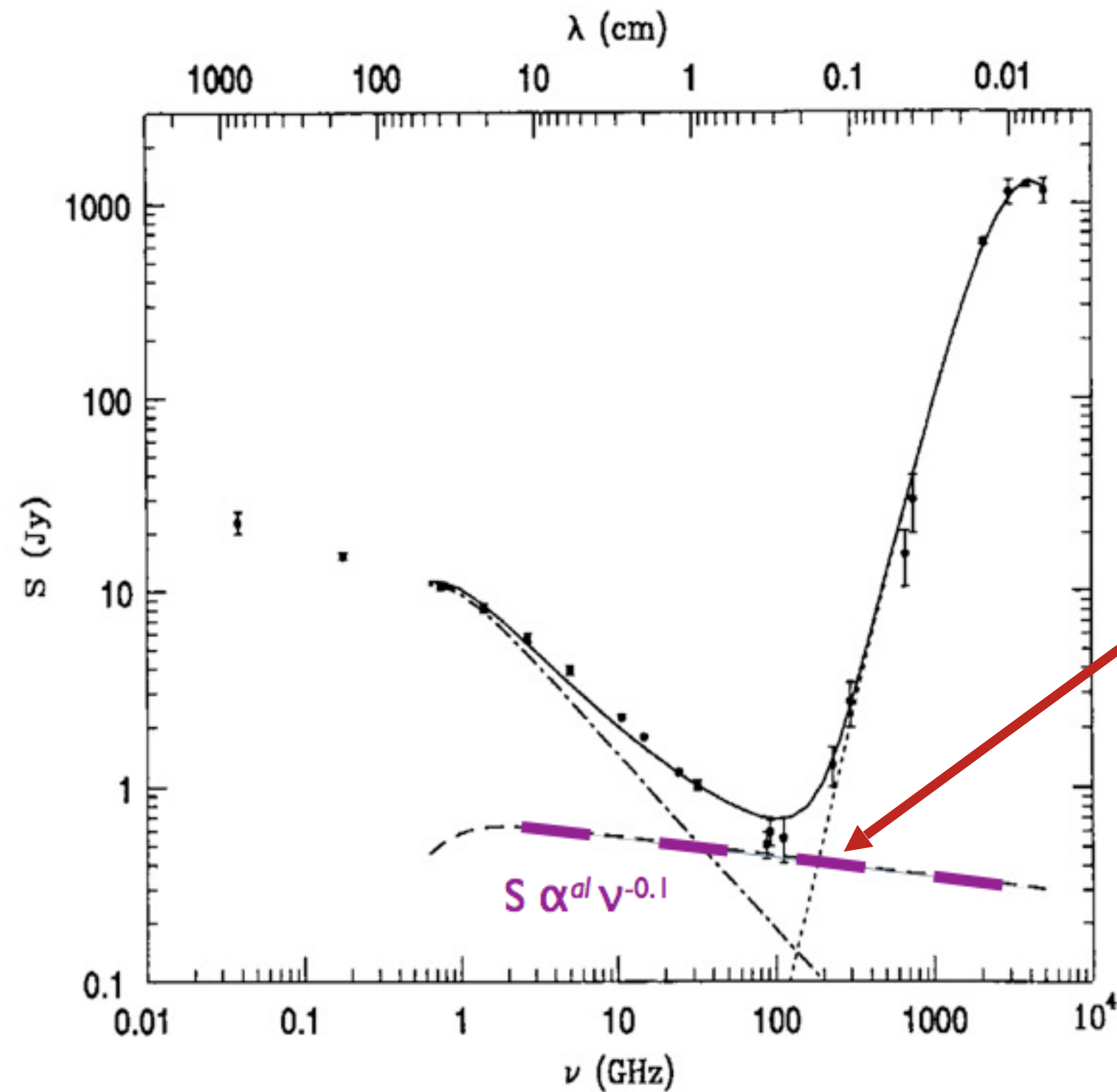


Red line.
thermal BB emission:

- dust heated up by the uv-
photons from massive
stars.

The same stars that
produced the supernovae

Radio Emission Processes



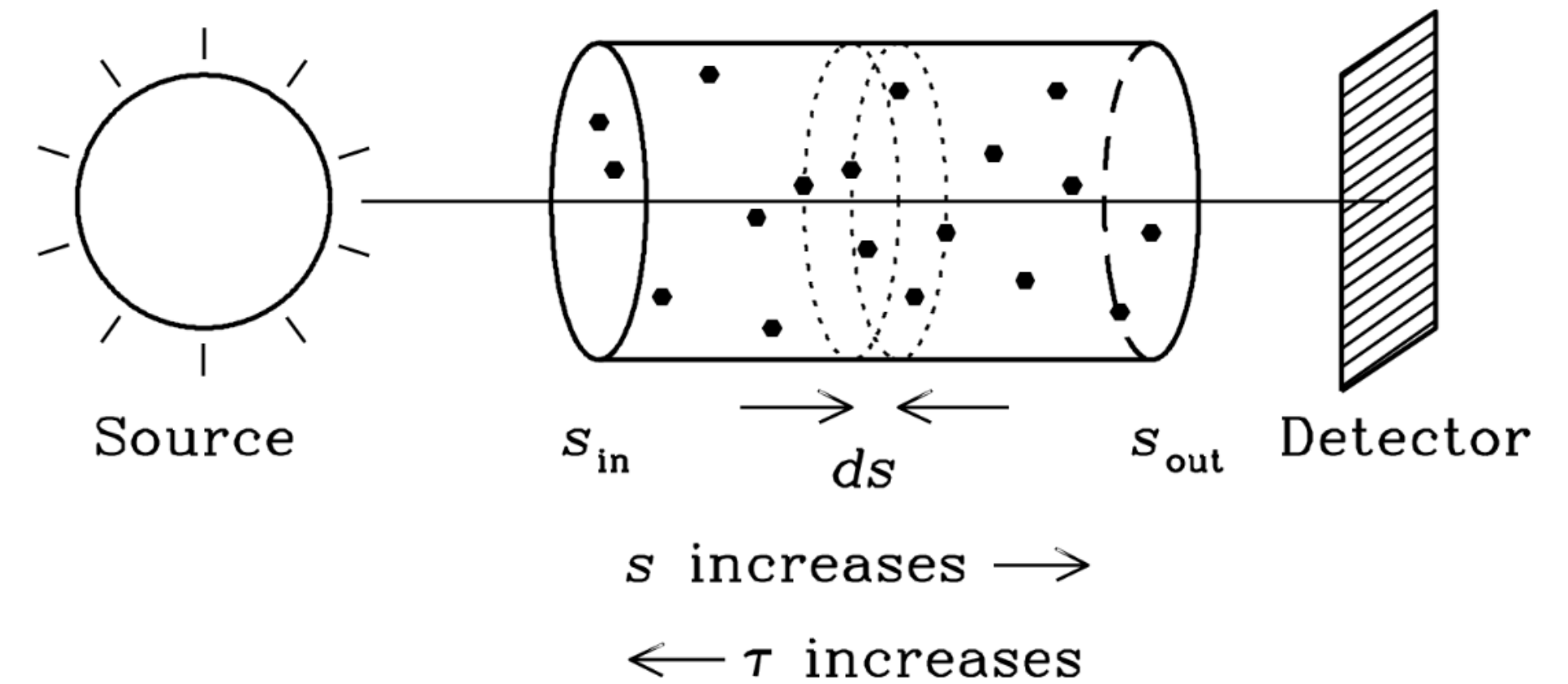


Propagation of radio waves



Radiative transfer

- ▶ Absorption coefficient
- ▶ Emission coefficient



Absorption coefficient:

$$\kappa \equiv \frac{dP}{ds} \quad \frac{dI_\nu}{I_\nu} = -\kappa ds$$

$$\frac{I_\nu(s_{out})}{I_\nu(s_{in})} = \exp \left[- \int_{s_{in}}^{s_{out}} \kappa(s') ds' \right]$$

$$\tau \equiv - \int_{s_{out}}^{s_{in}} \kappa(s') ds' \quad \text{so} \quad \frac{I_\nu(s_{out})}{I_\nu(s_{in})} = \exp(-\tau)$$

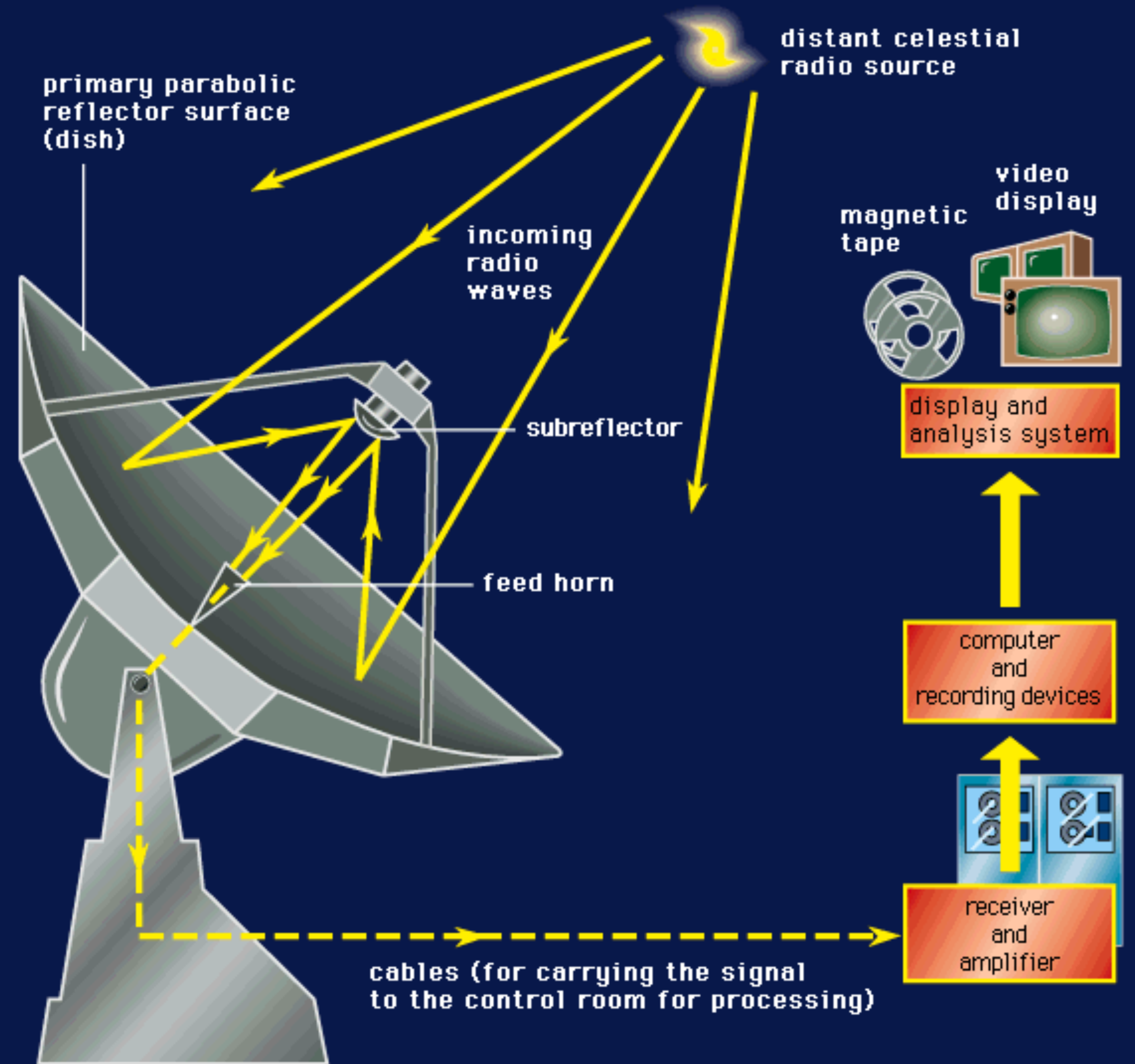
Emission coefficient

$$j_\nu \equiv \frac{dI_\nu}{ds}$$

Radiative transfer equation

$$\frac{dI_\nu}{ds} = -\kappa I_\nu + j_\nu$$

How radio telescopes work?



Reflector antennas

GMRT



VLA,
ALMA

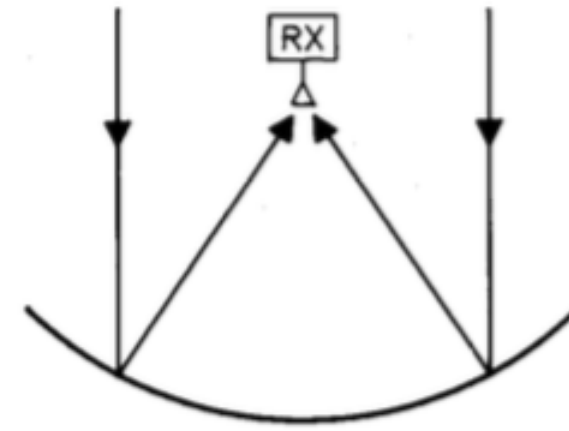


SMA

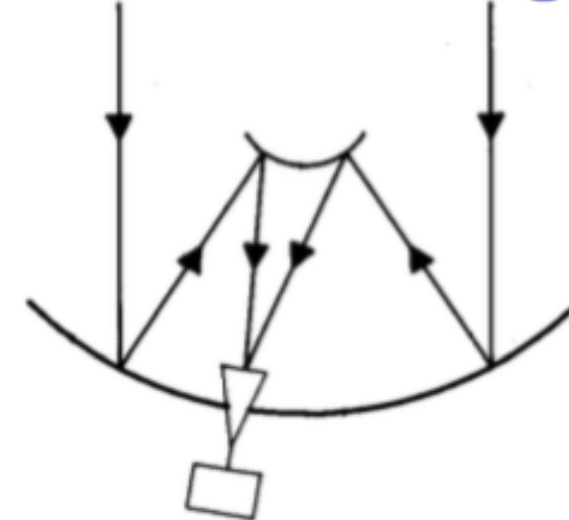


Receivers do
not tilt in elev.

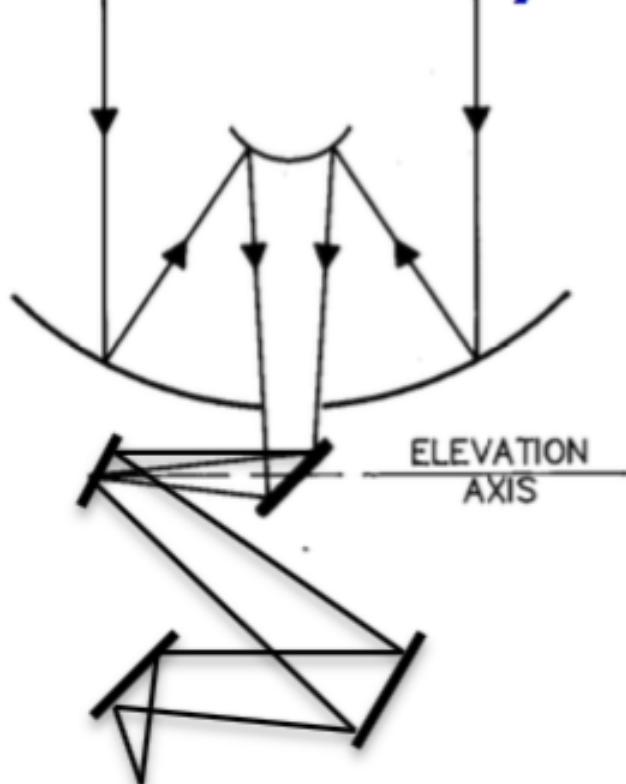
Prime Focus



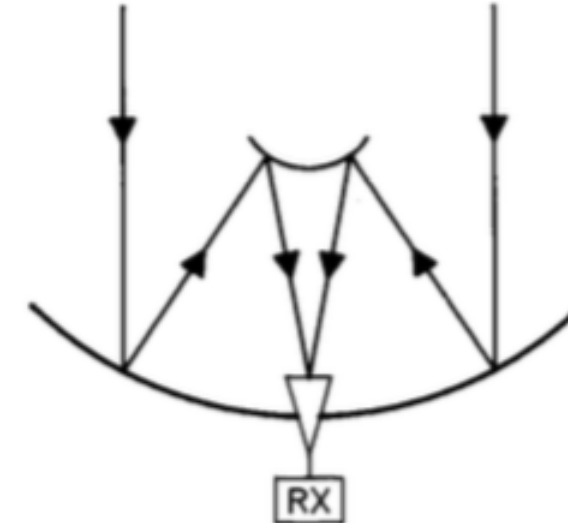
Offset Cassegrain



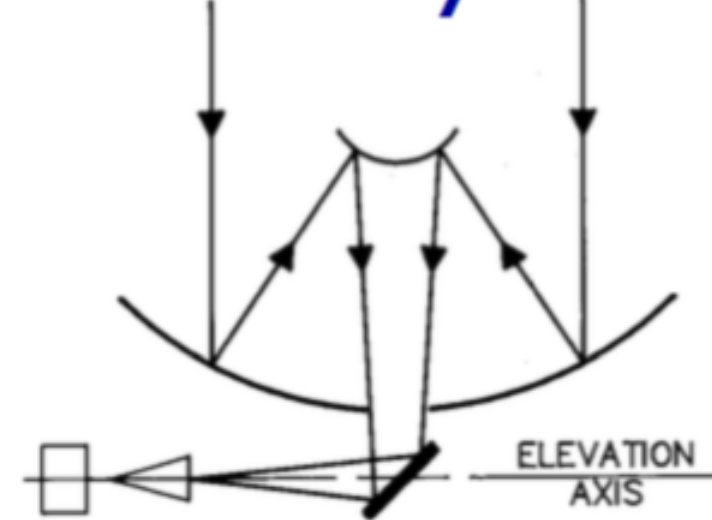
Bent Nasmyth



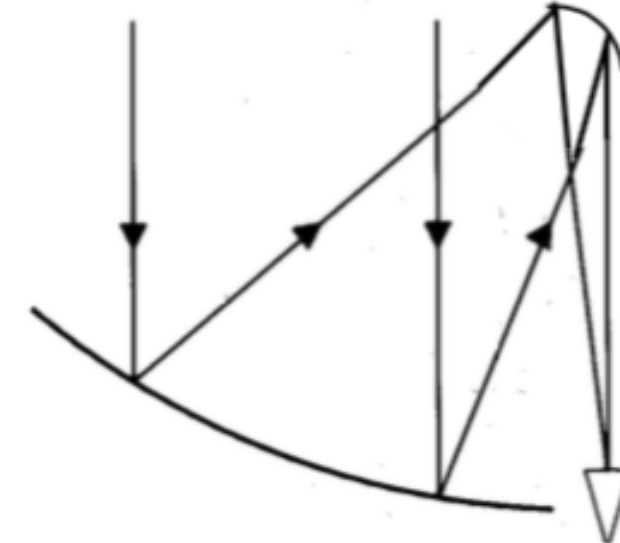
On-axis
Cassegrain (best for array receivers)



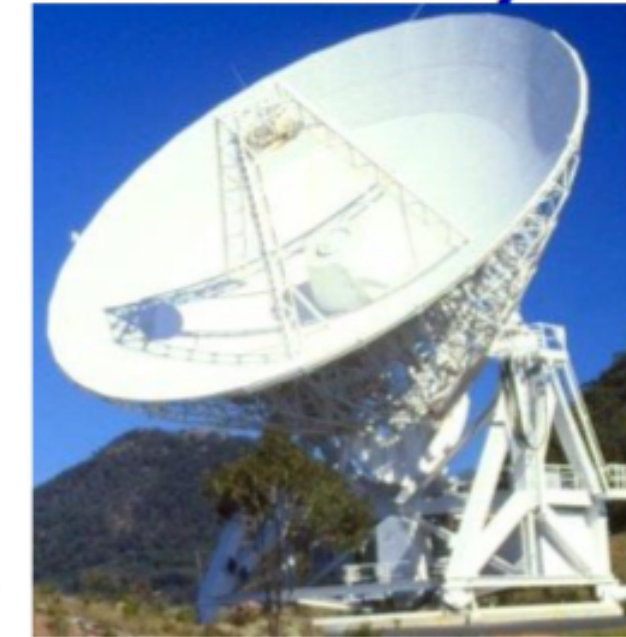
Nasmyth



Dual offset Gregorian



Cleanest beam, minimizes standing
waves, polarization asymmetry
compensated -- Mizugutch et al. (1976)



ATCA,
Mopra



CARMA,
CSO



GBT

Reflector antenna efficiencies

Response pattern (primary beam): $A(\nu, \theta, \phi) = A(\nu, \theta, \phi)/A_0$

Effective area (on-axis): $A_0 = \eta A = (\text{aperture efficiency})(\pi R^2)$

where $\eta = \eta_{\text{surface}} \eta_{\text{blockage}} \eta_{\text{spillover}} \eta_{\text{taper}} \eta_{\text{radiation}} \eta_{\text{misc}}$

$\eta_{\text{surface}} = \exp(-(4\pi\sigma/\lambda)^2)$ $\sigma = \text{rms surface error (Ruze 1966)}$

$= 0.44$ for $\sigma = \lambda/14$ (VLA at 43 GHz) $\sigma_{\text{VLA}} \sim 500 \mu\text{m}$

$= 0.79$ for $\sigma = \lambda/26$ (VLA at 22 GHz) $\sigma_{\text{ALMA}} \sim 25 \mu\text{m}$

$\eta_{\text{blockage}} = \text{blockage efficiency (feed legs and subreflector)}$

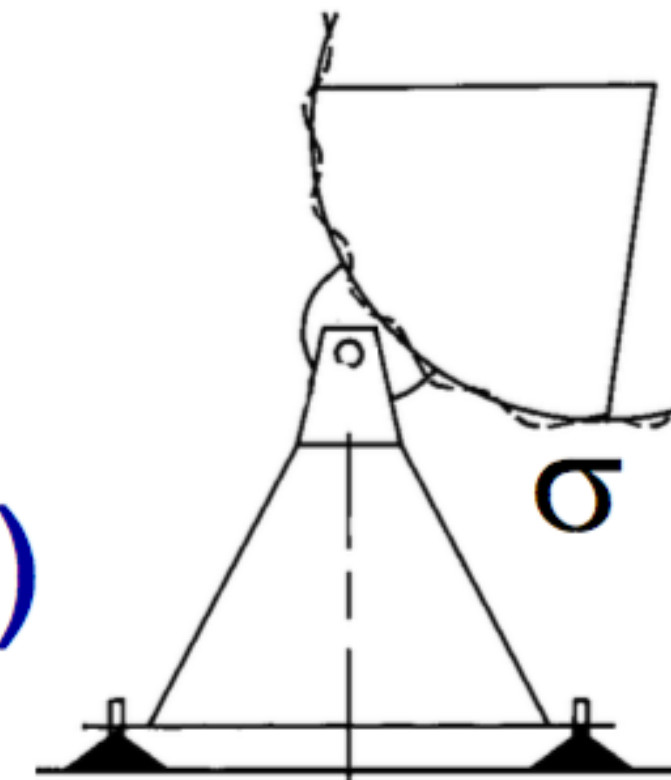
$\eta_{\text{spillover}} = \text{feed spillover efficiency}$

$\eta_{\text{taper}} = \text{feed taper efficiency}$

$\eta_{\text{illumination}} = 0.8$ for -10dB taper

$\eta_{\text{radiation}} = \text{metal reflection efficiency } (\sim 0.99 \text{ per Al mirror})$

$\eta_{\text{misc}} = \text{diffraction, phase, focus error, polarization efficiencies}$

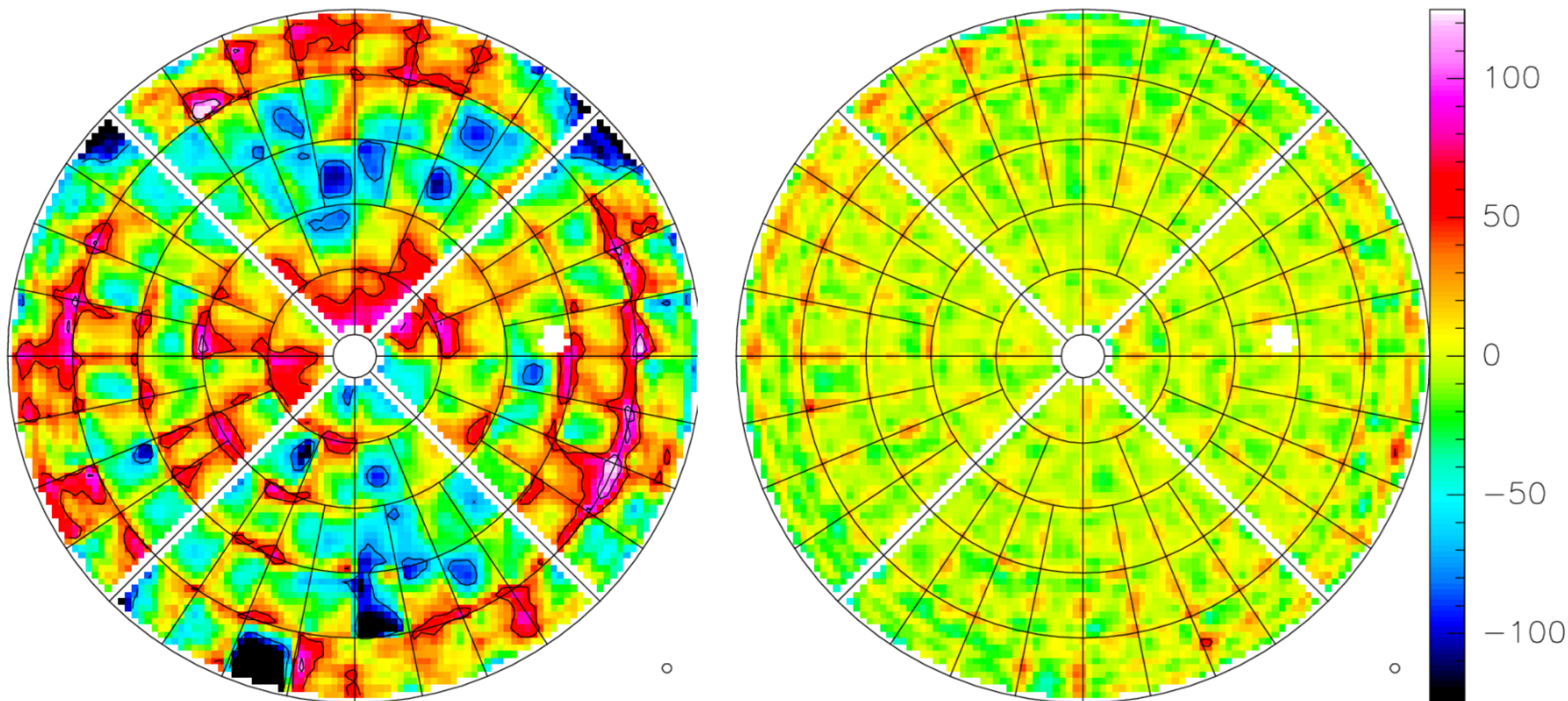


Holography: ALMA surface panel adjustment

Phase map converted to path length error from ideal paraboloid

Before adjustment ($43\mu\text{m}$)

After adjustment ($11\mu\text{m}$)

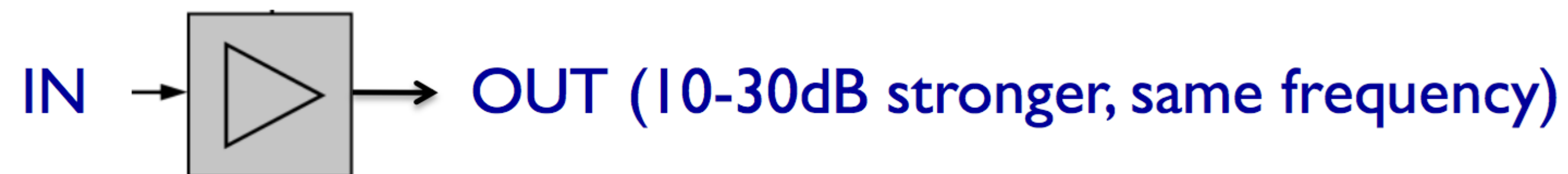




Amplifiers and mixers

Let's compare an amplifier and a mixer:

I. Amplifiers are 2-port devices: one input and one output



Example: NRAO Cryogenic Low Noise Amplifiers (LNAs) using Heterostructure Field Effect Transistors (HFETs) used on the VLA, VLBA, GBT:

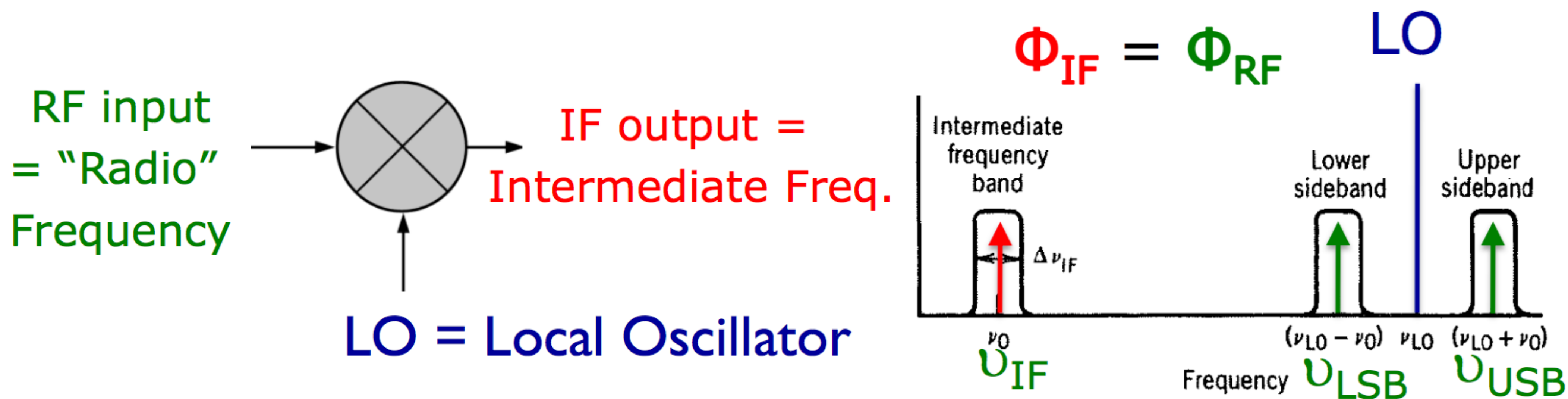
- Operate at ~ 15 K
- $T_{\text{noise}} \sim 5$ hf/k
(i.e. 5 x quantum limit)
- M. Pospieszalski (2012)
(MIKON conference)



What is a mixer?

Mixers are 3-port devices: LO and RF inputs, and IF output.

- Invented around WWI for radio direction finding (see IEEE Microwave Magazine Sept. 2013 special issue).
- They multiply the LO & RF signals and transfer the phase from the RF to the IF by “heterodyning”. Typically the IF contains signals from two sidebands.
- They are key components for interferometers!!



$$\sin(2\pi f_1 t) \sin(2\pi f_2 t) = \frac{1}{2} \cos[2\pi(f_1 - f_2)t] - \frac{1}{2} \cos[2\pi(f_1 + f_2)t]$$



Calibrating single-dish telescope data

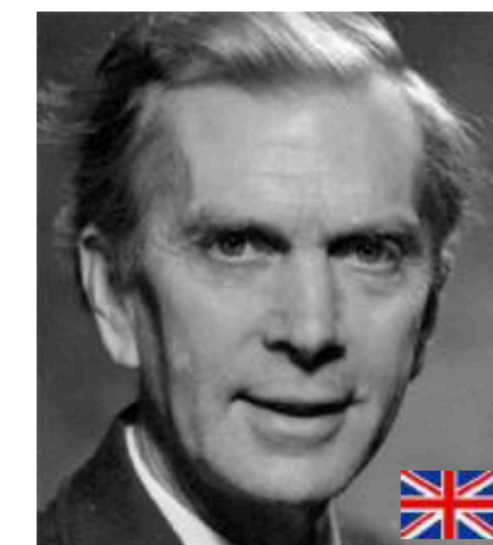
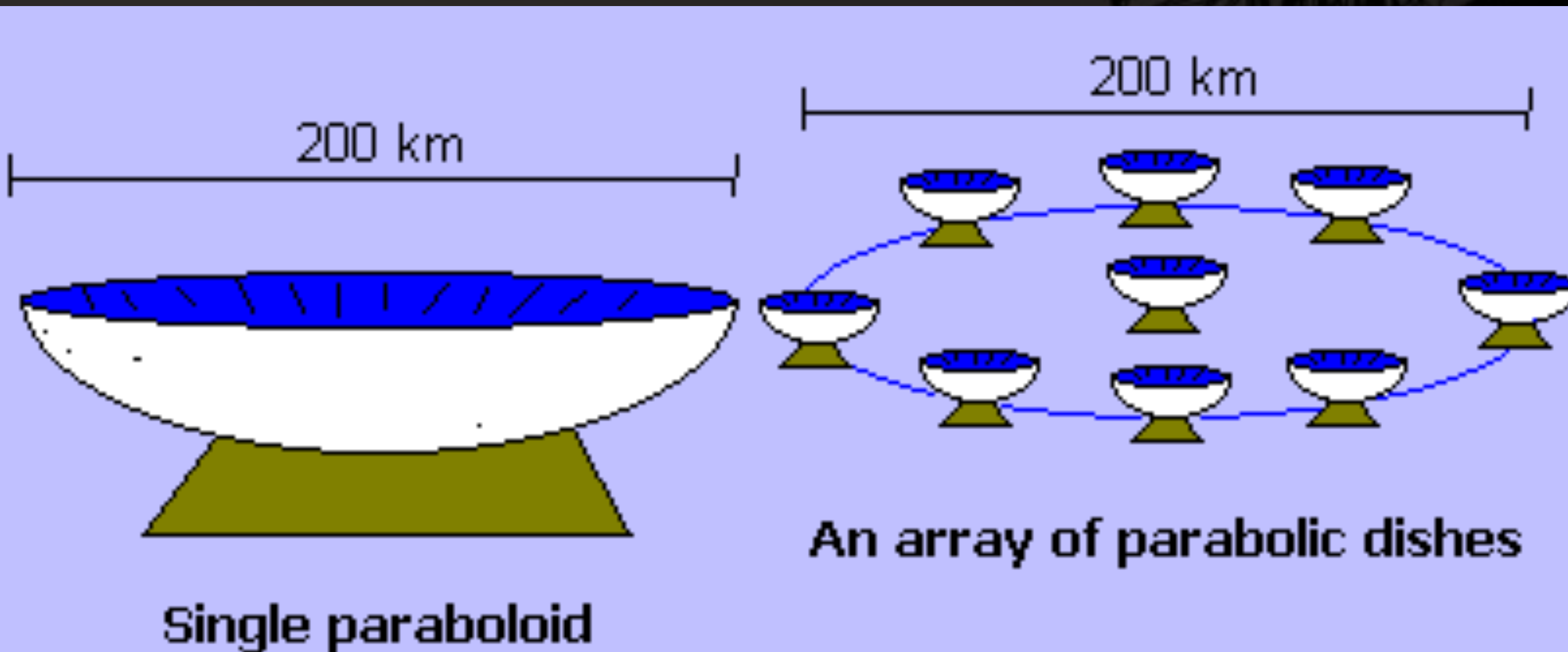
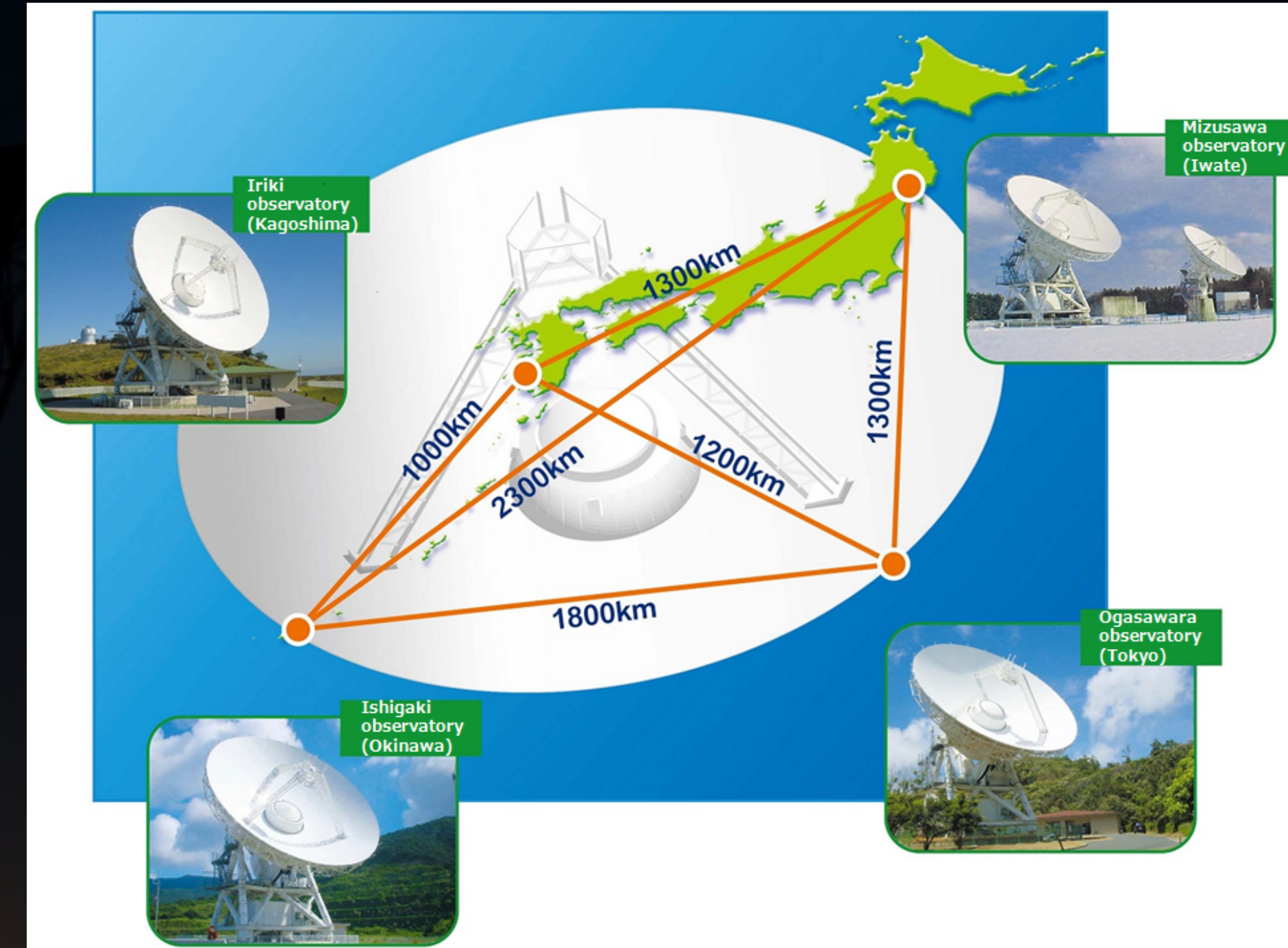
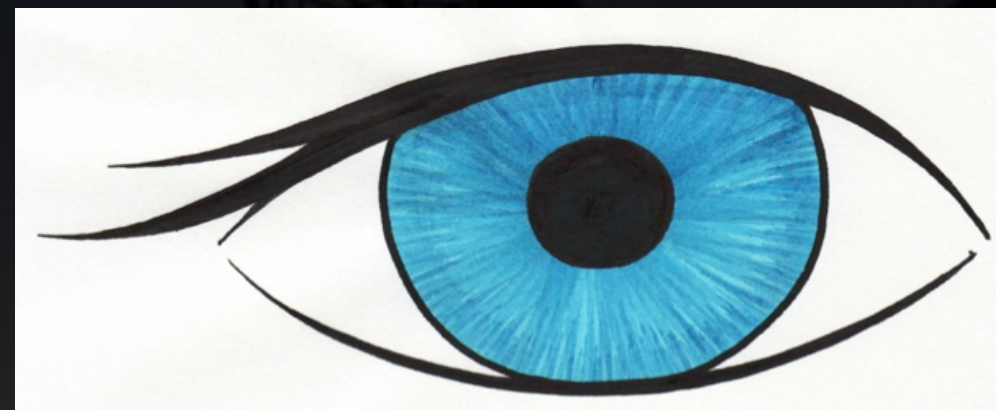
- Convert from power densities to antenna temperatures
- Correct bandpass and pointing errors
- Derive Kelvin to Jansky conversion factor
- Apply to target

$$T_s = T_{\text{cmb}} + T_{\text{rsb}} + \Delta T_{\text{source}} + [1 - \exp(-\tau_A)]T_{\text{atm}} + T_{\text{spill}} + T_r + \dots$$

Radio interferometry

$$\theta \sim \lambda/D \sim \lambda/B$$

Eye	$D \sim 1\text{mm}$	$\lambda = 600\text{nm}$	$\theta \sim 2'$
GBT	$D = 100\text{m}$	$\lambda = 6\text{cm}$	$\theta \sim 2'$
HST	$D = 2.4\text{m}$	$\lambda = 500\text{nm}$	$\theta \sim 50\text{ mas}$



Sir Martin Ryle
1918-1984



1974 Nobel
Prize in Physics