

Radio Astronomy

An Introduction

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References

Thompson, Moran & Swenson

Kraus (1966)

Christiansen & Hogbom (1969)

Condon & Ransom (nrao.edu)

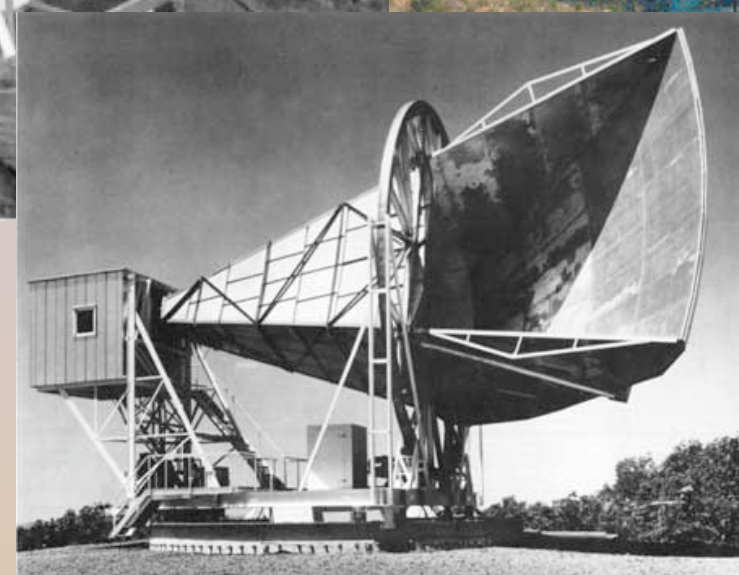
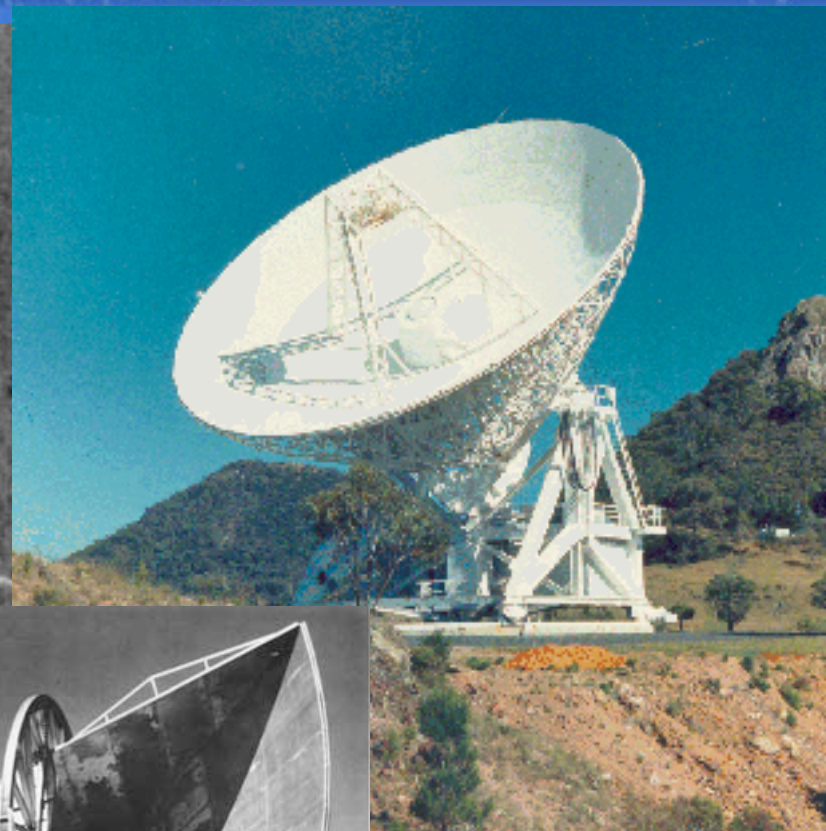
Single Dish School Proceedings (2002) ADS

GOLDSMITH

CAMPBELL

LISZT ★★★★★



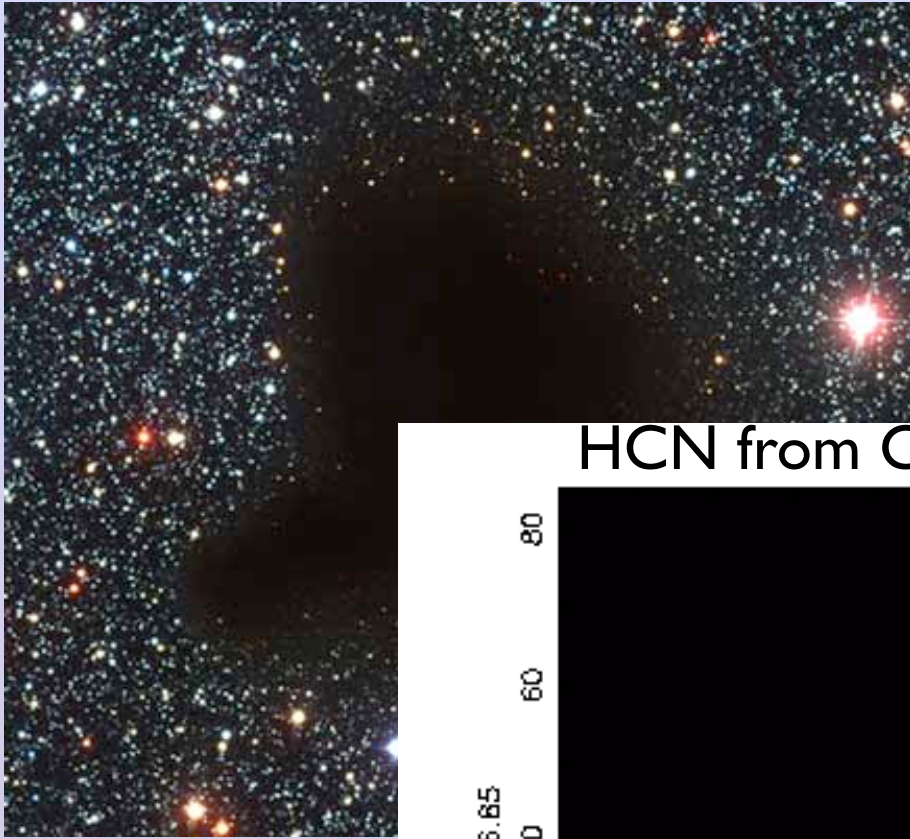


Astronomy at Radio Wavelengths



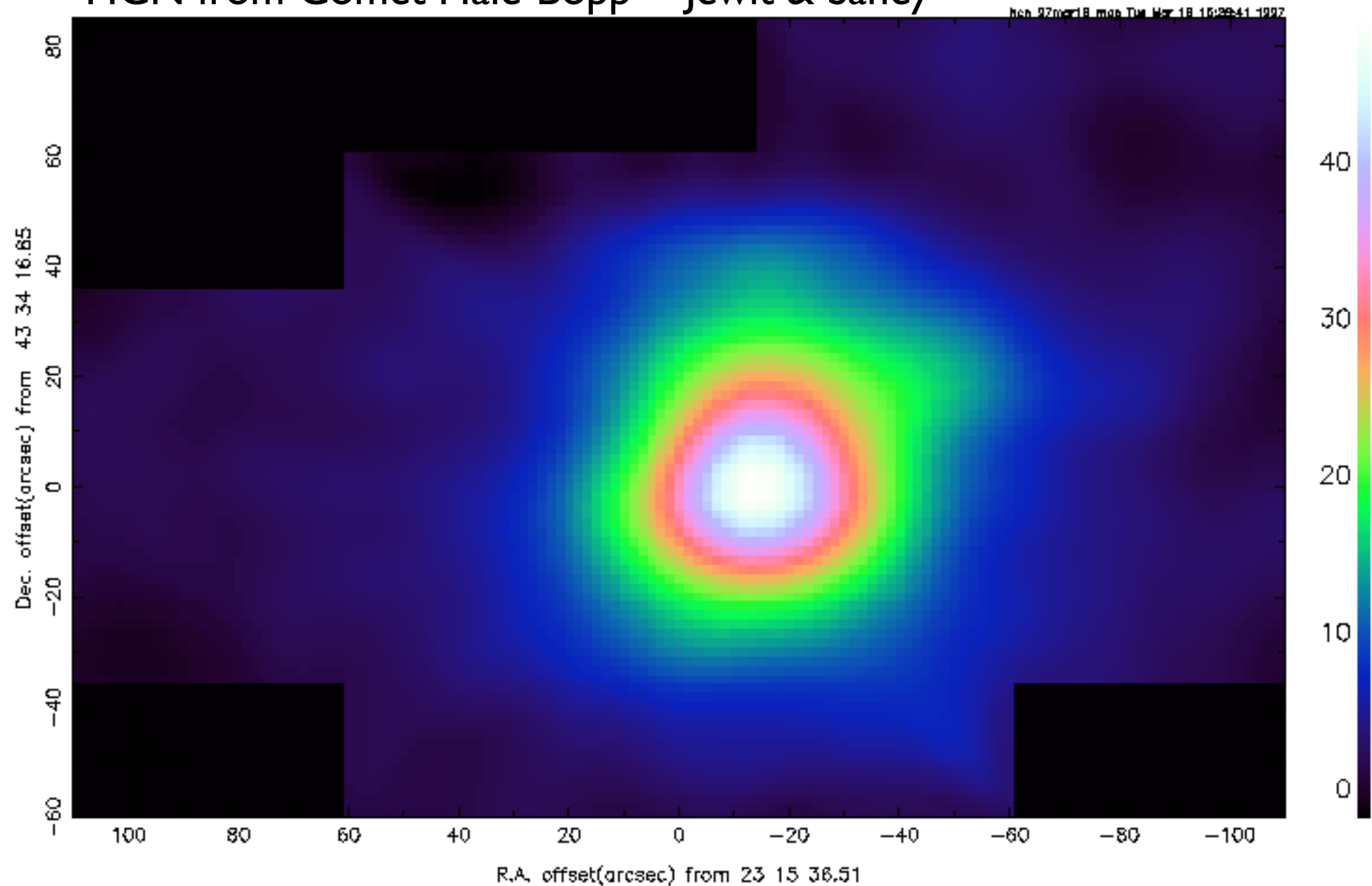
More than 130 interstellar molecules

Astronomy at Radio Wavelengths

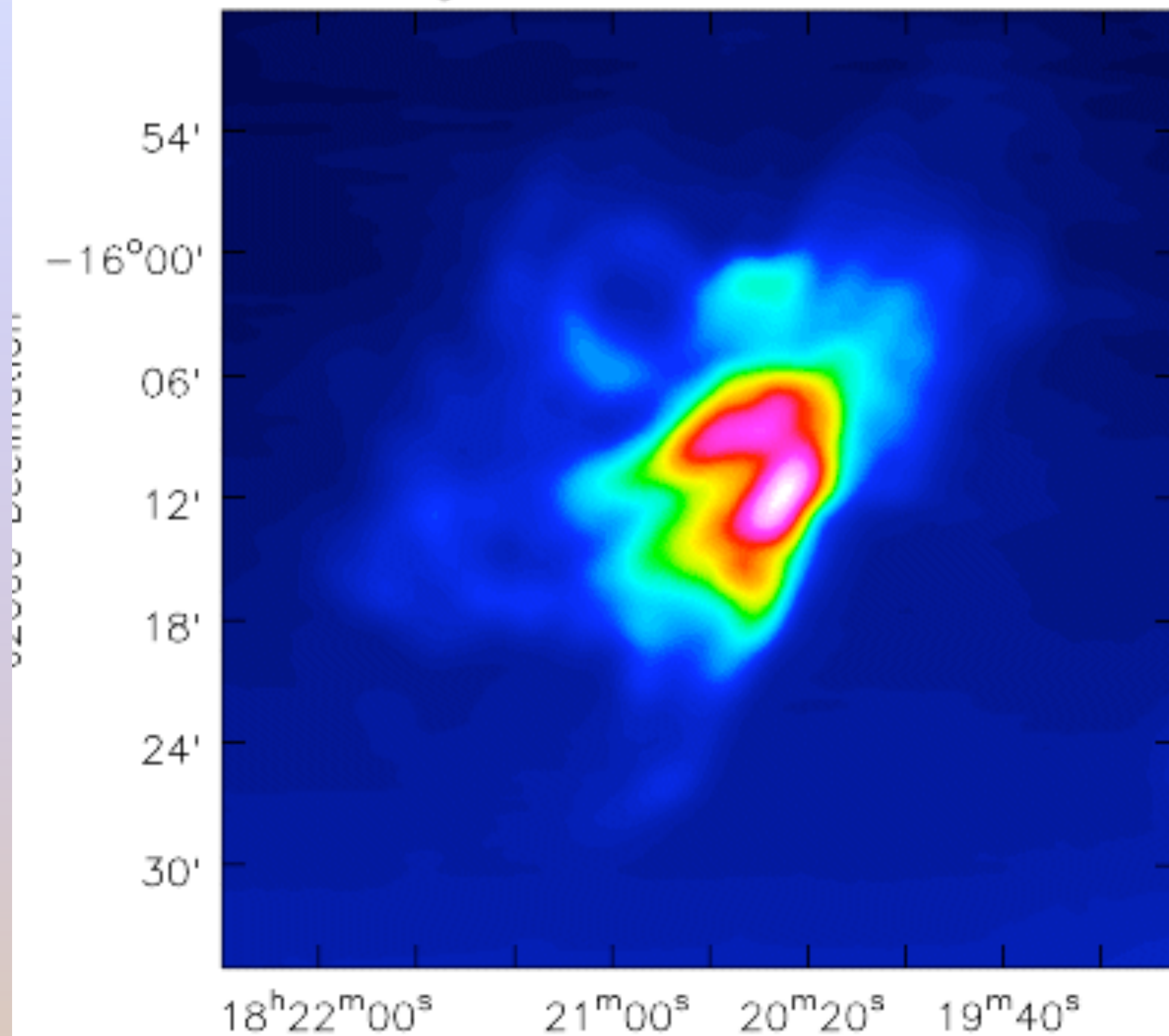


More than 130 interstellar molecules

HCN from Comet Hale-Bopp -- Jewit & Saney

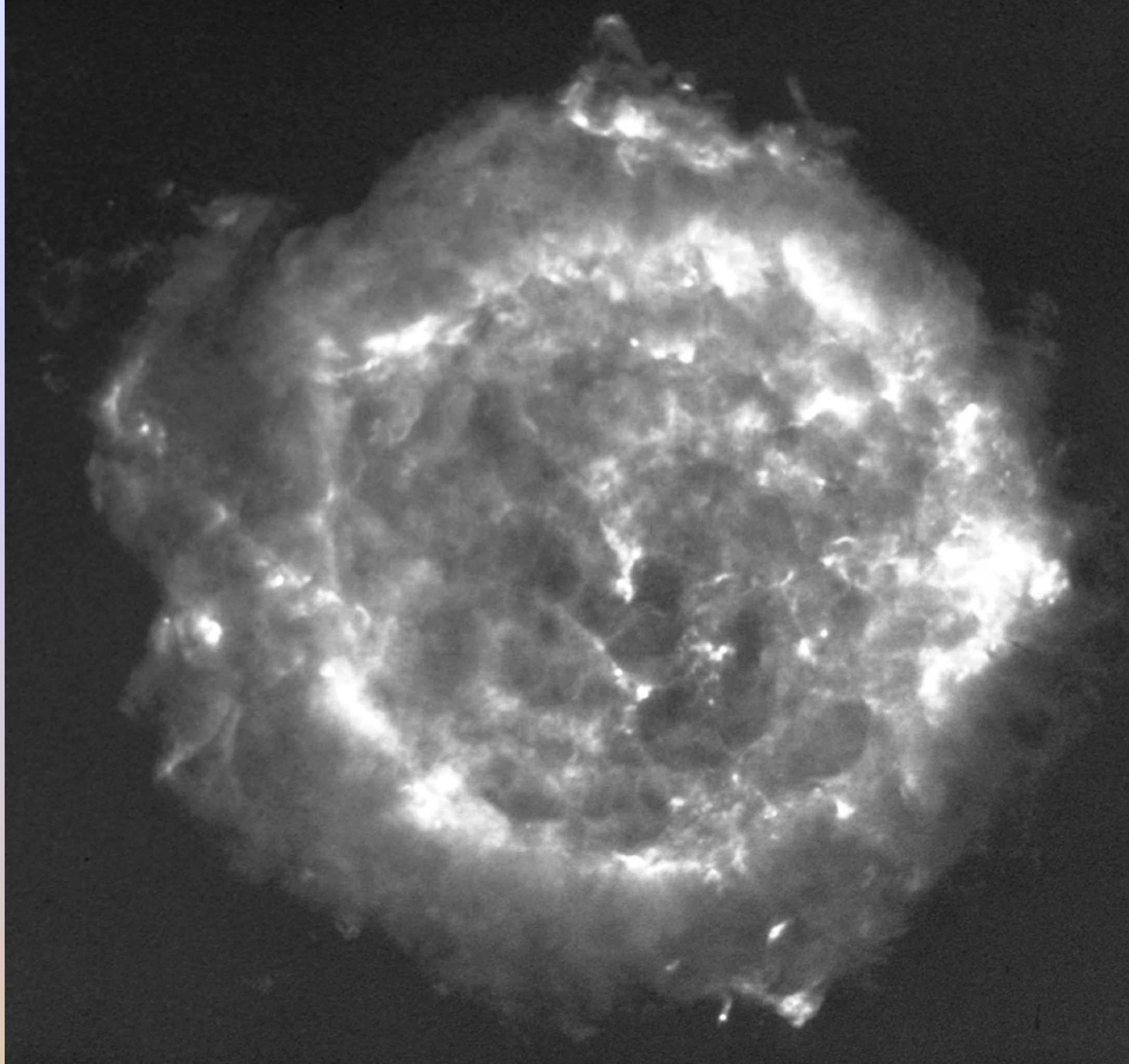


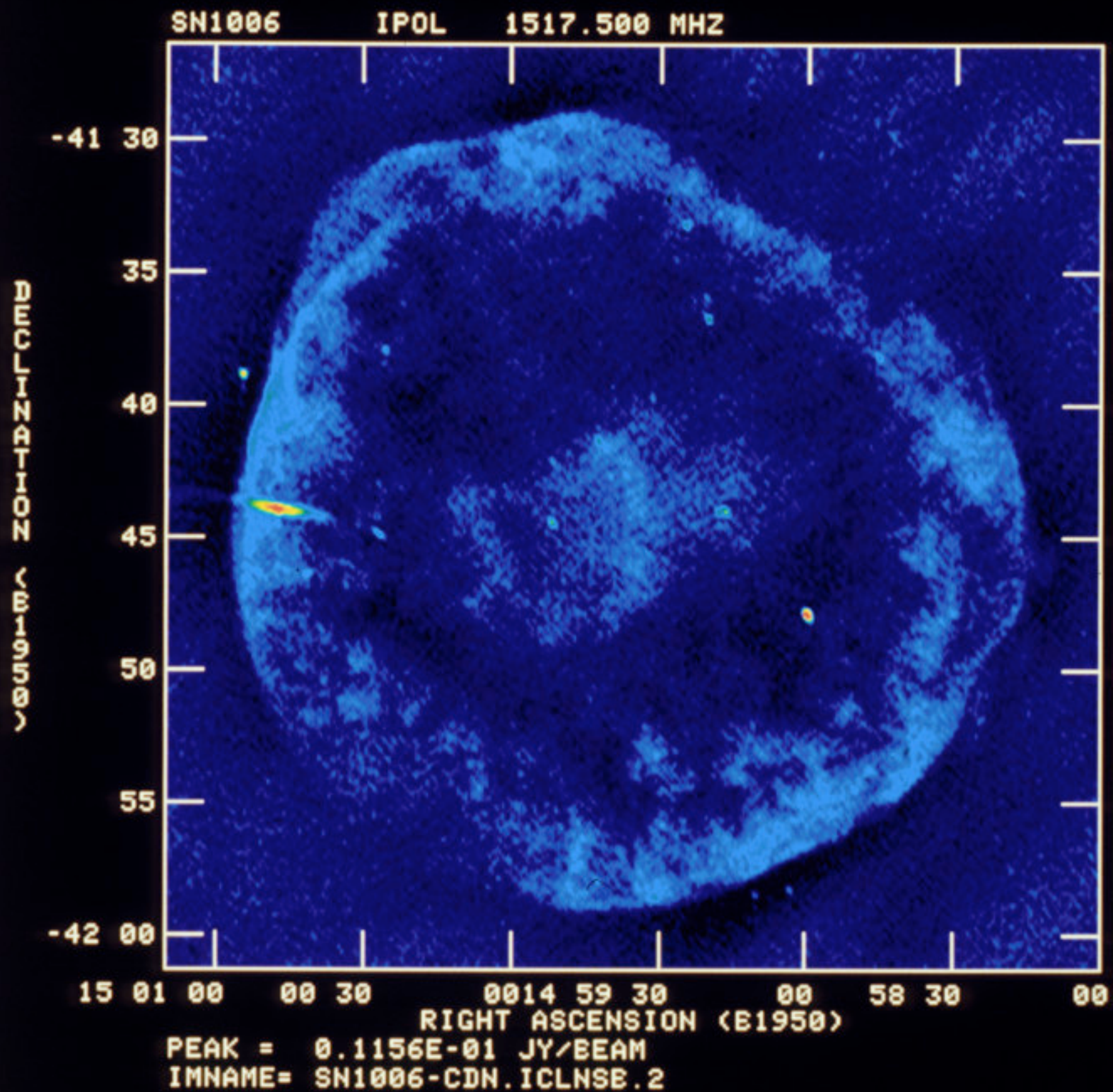
Omega Nebula 8.4GHz, Feb9, 2002



D. Balser GBT image

J2000 Right Ascension





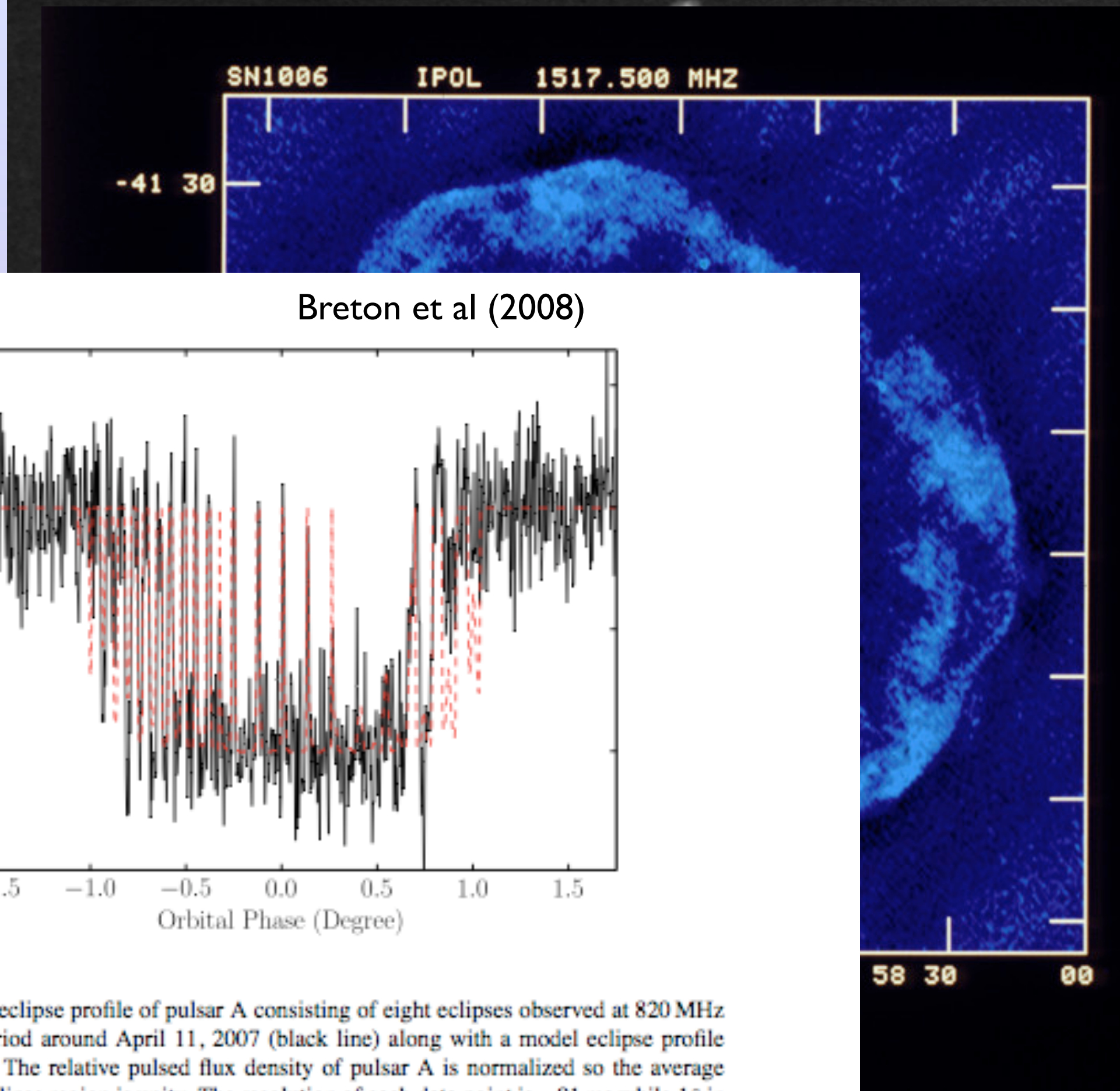
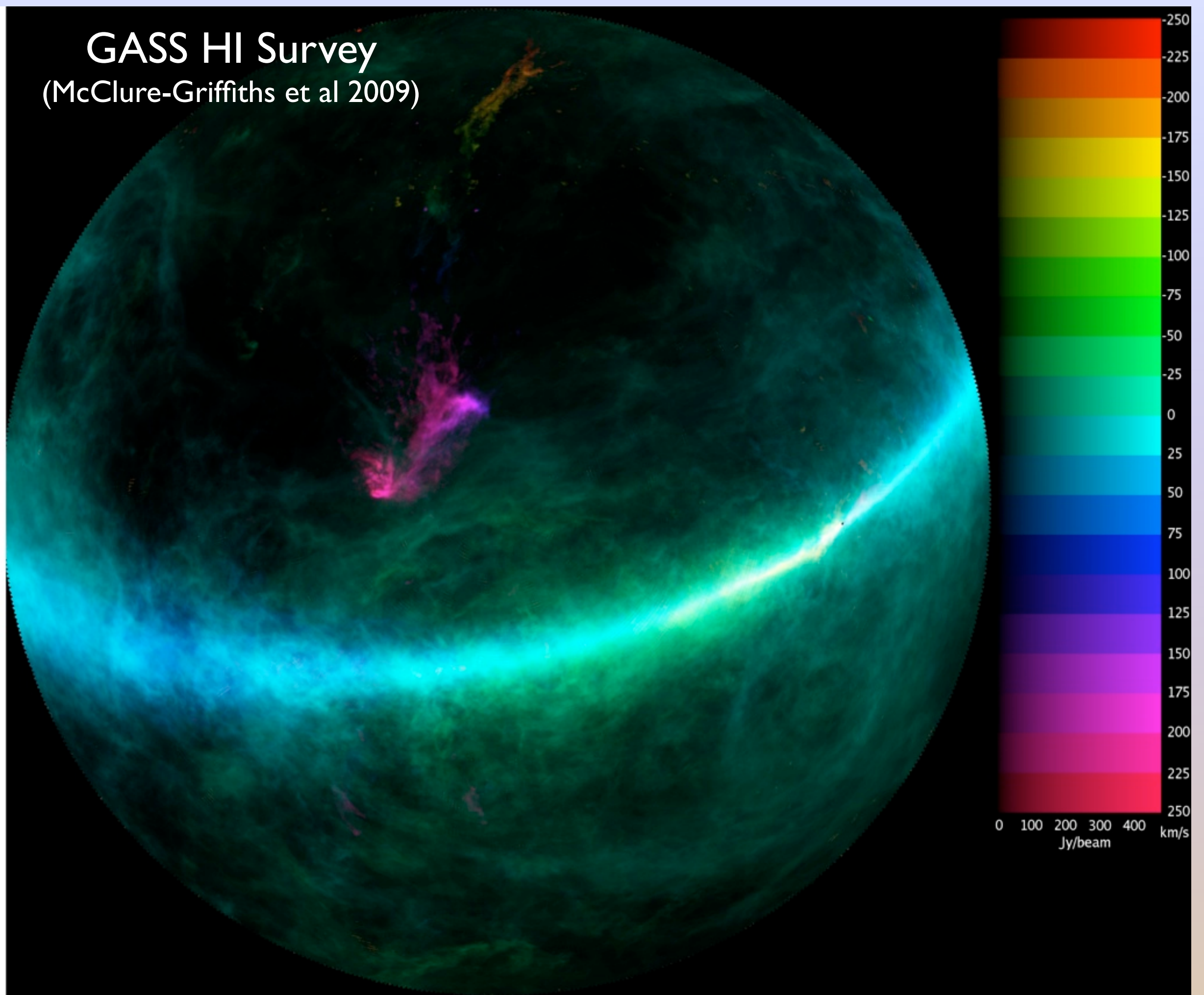


Figure 3: Average eclipse profile of pulsar A consisting of eight eclipses observed at 820 MHz over a five-day period around April 11, 2007 (black line) along with a model eclipse profile (red dashed line). The relative pulsed flux density of pulsar A is normalized so the average level outside the eclipse region is unity. The resolution of each data point is ~ 91 ms while 1° in orbital phase corresponds to 24.5 s. Note that near orbital phase 0.0 the spikes are separated by the spin period of pulsar B.



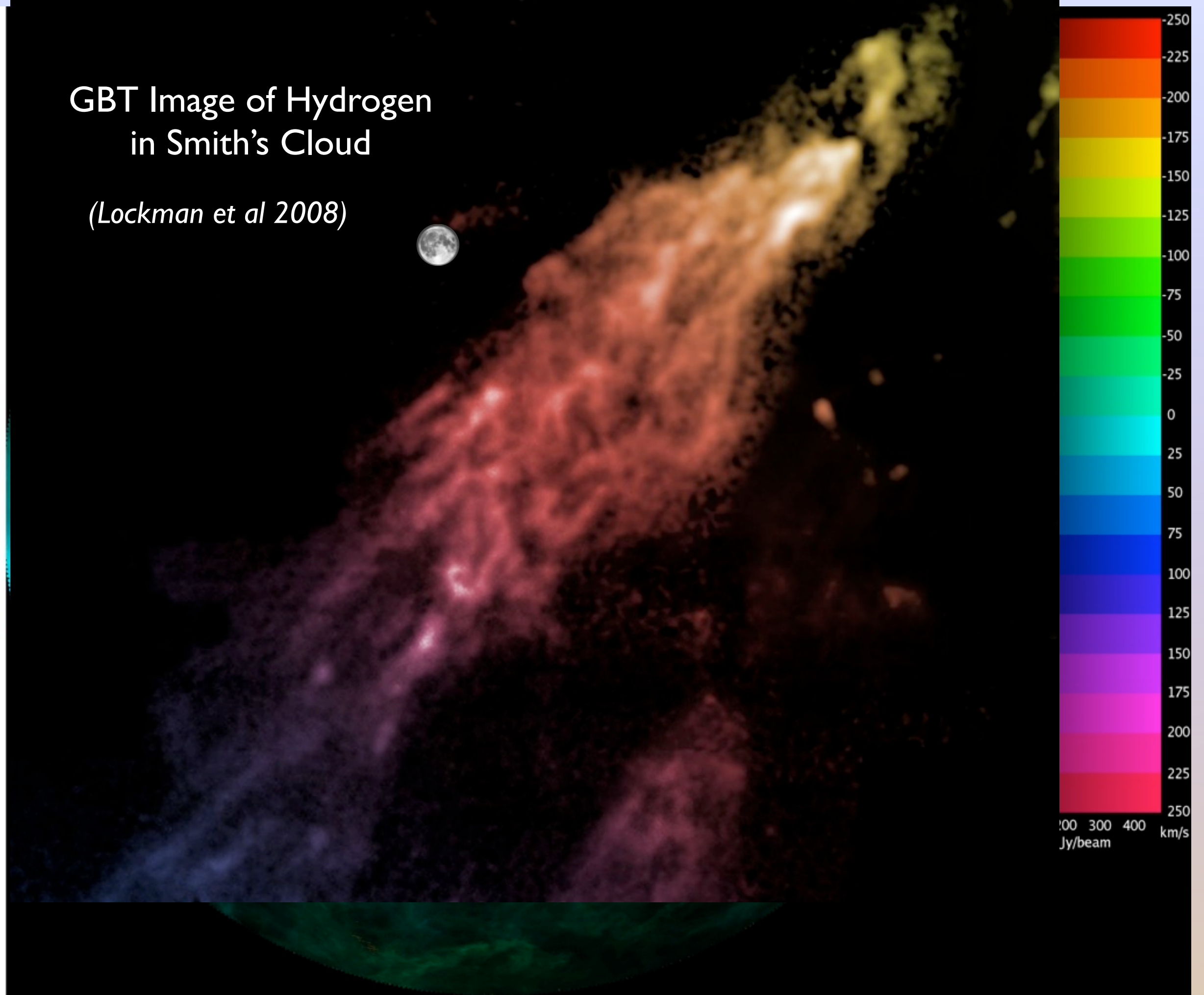
GASS HI Survey

(McClure-Griffiths et al 2009)



GBT Image of Hydrogen in Smith's Cloud

(Lockman et al 2008)



Astronomy at Radio Wavelengths -- Why is it Different?

Atmosphere
Low Energy Photons
Diffraction
Coherent Signal Processing
Noise

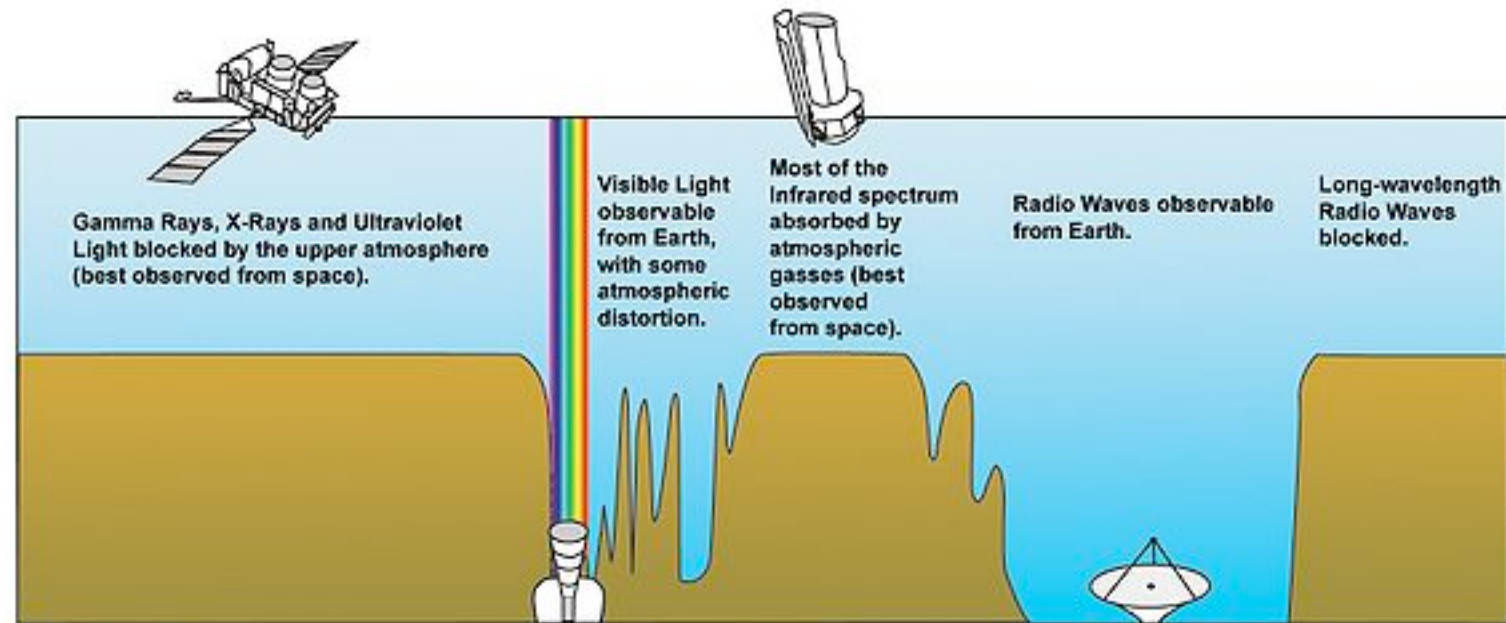
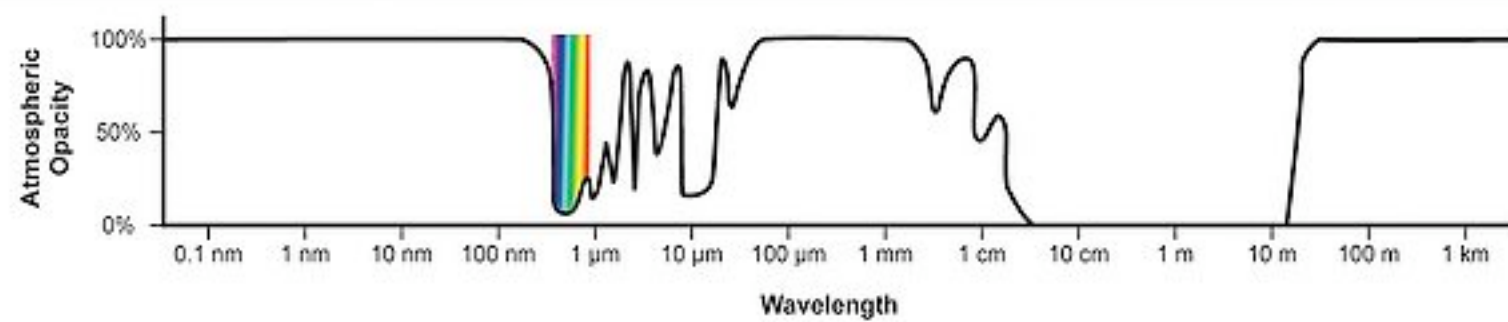


What does every radio telescope shown so far have in common?

Astronomy at Radio Wavelengths -- Why is it Different?

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Low Energy Photons
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Coherent Signal Processing
Noise



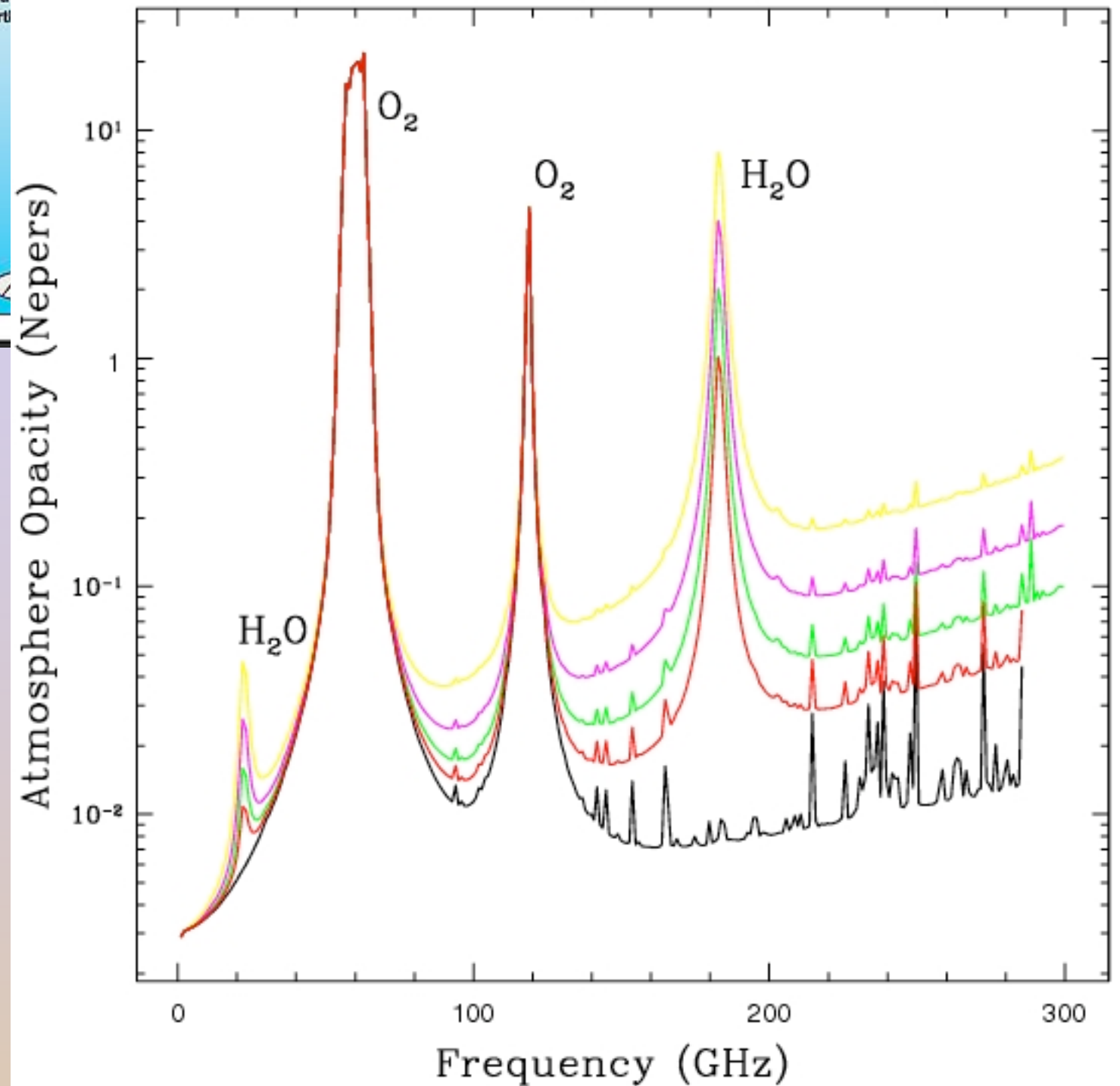
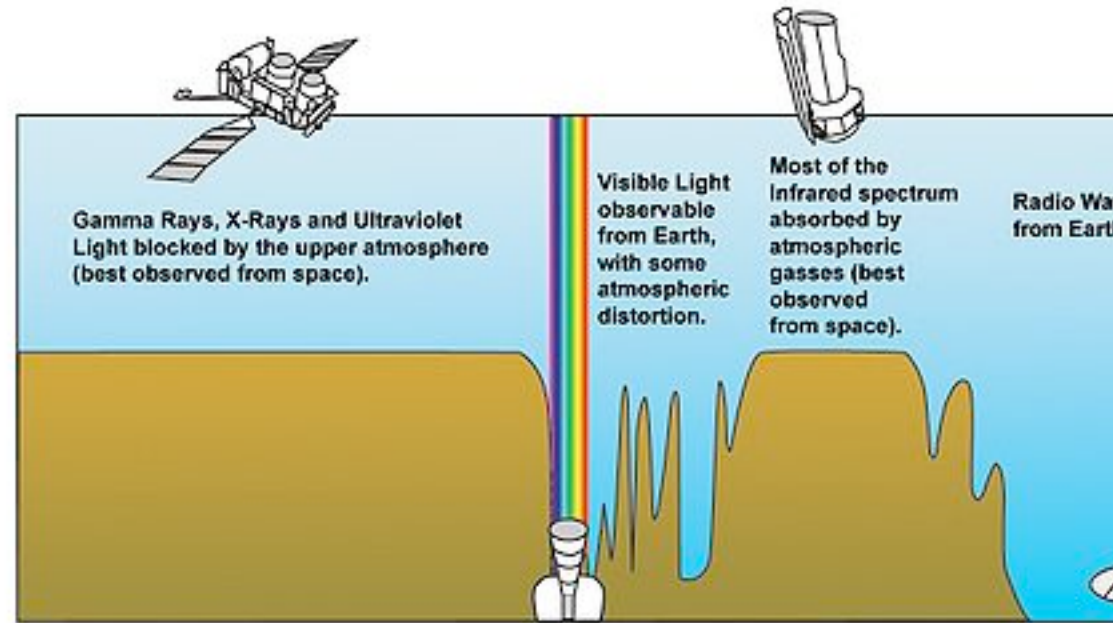
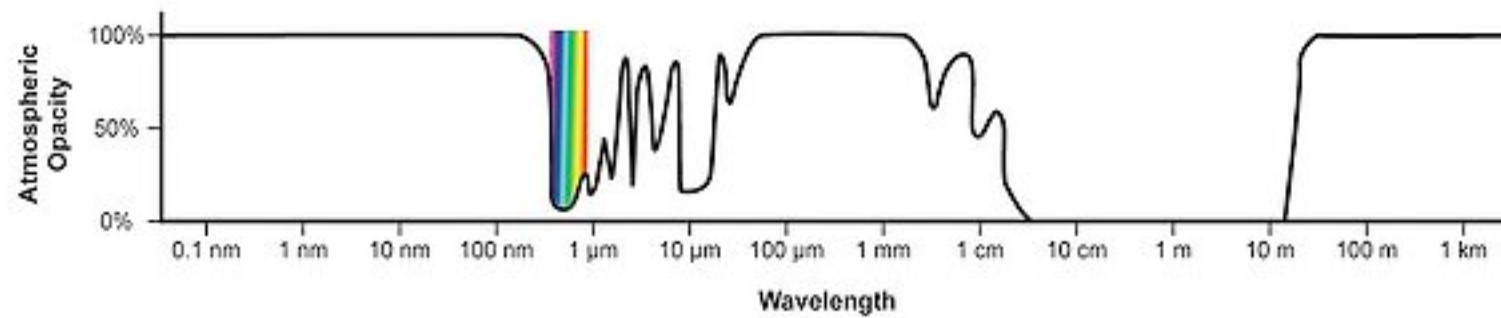


The Radio Window

0.01 GHz - 1000 GHz

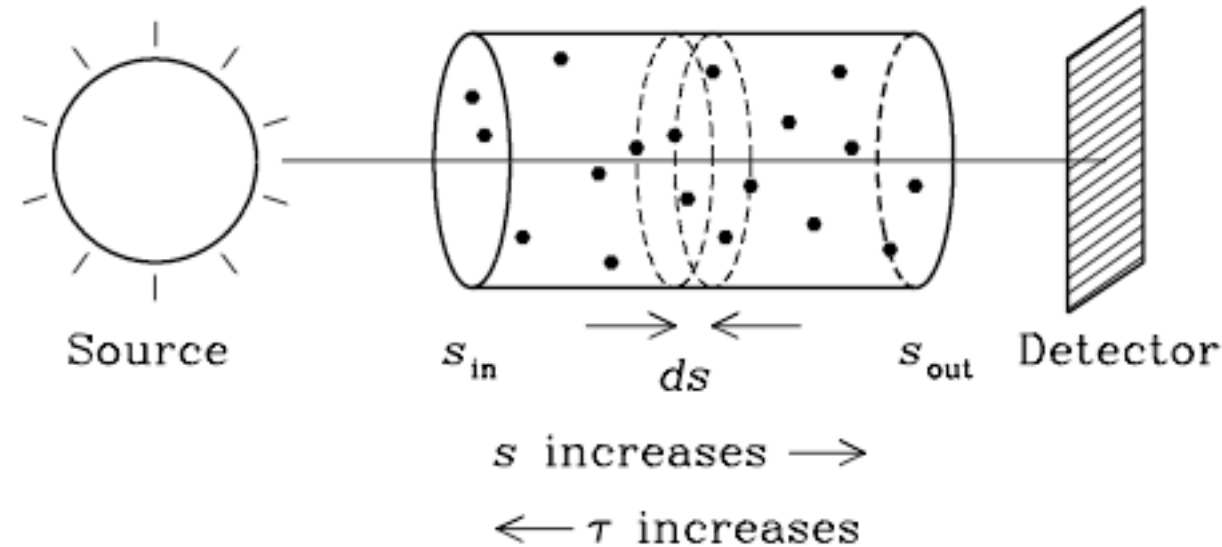
The Radio Window

0.01 GHz - 1000 GHz



Transparency of the Atmosphere depends on altitude and H_2O

Radiative Transfer -- Specific Intensity



Linear Absorption
Coefficient + emissivity

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

Optical Depth

$$\tau = \int \kappa ds$$

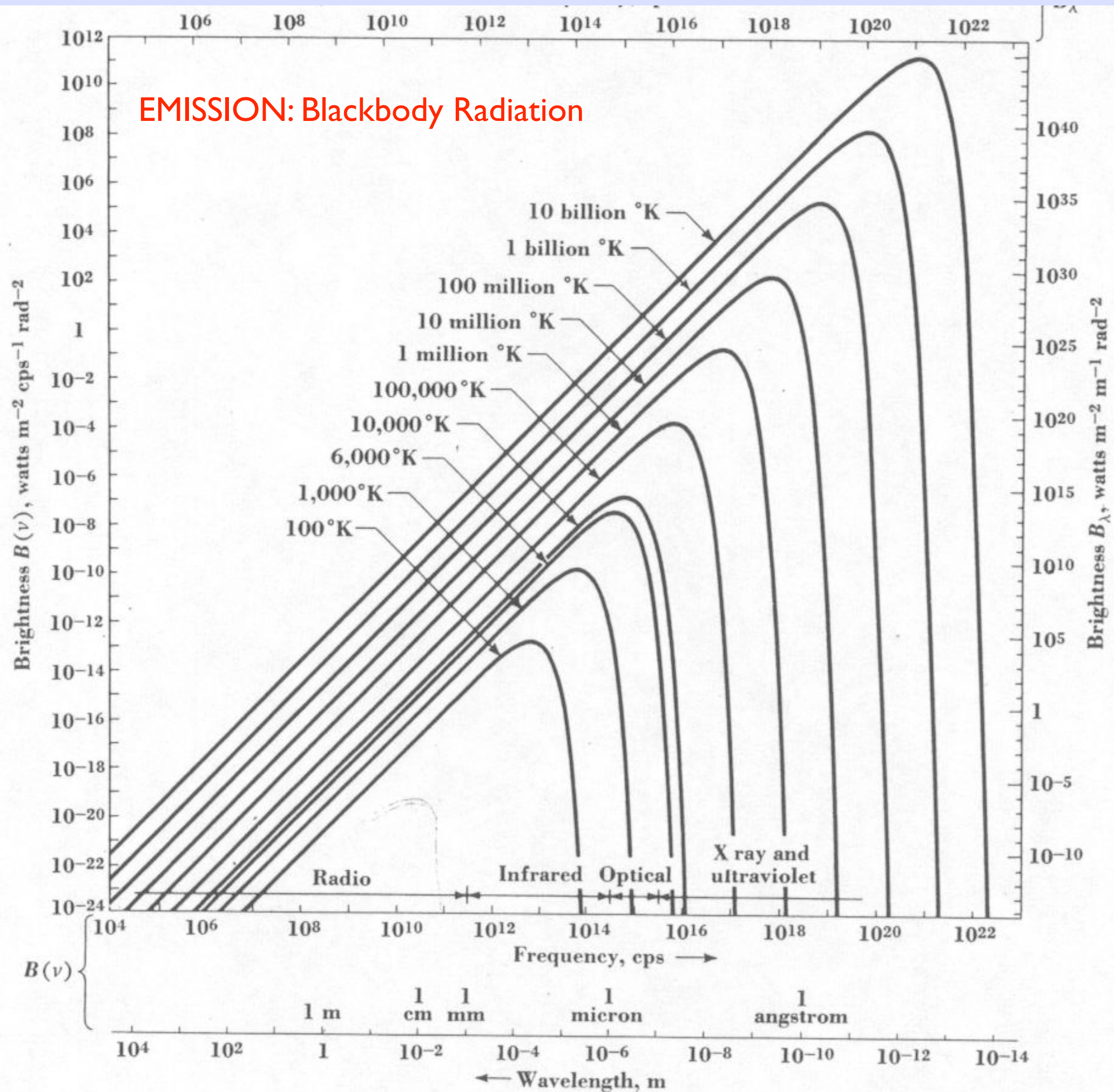
Relations through
black-body radiation

$$j_\nu = \kappa_\nu B_\nu(T_{\text{ex}})$$

Absorption + emission

$$I_\nu = I_\nu(0)e^{-\tau_\nu} + B_\nu(T_{\text{ex}})(1 - e^{-\tau_\nu})$$

EMISSION: Blackbody Radiation

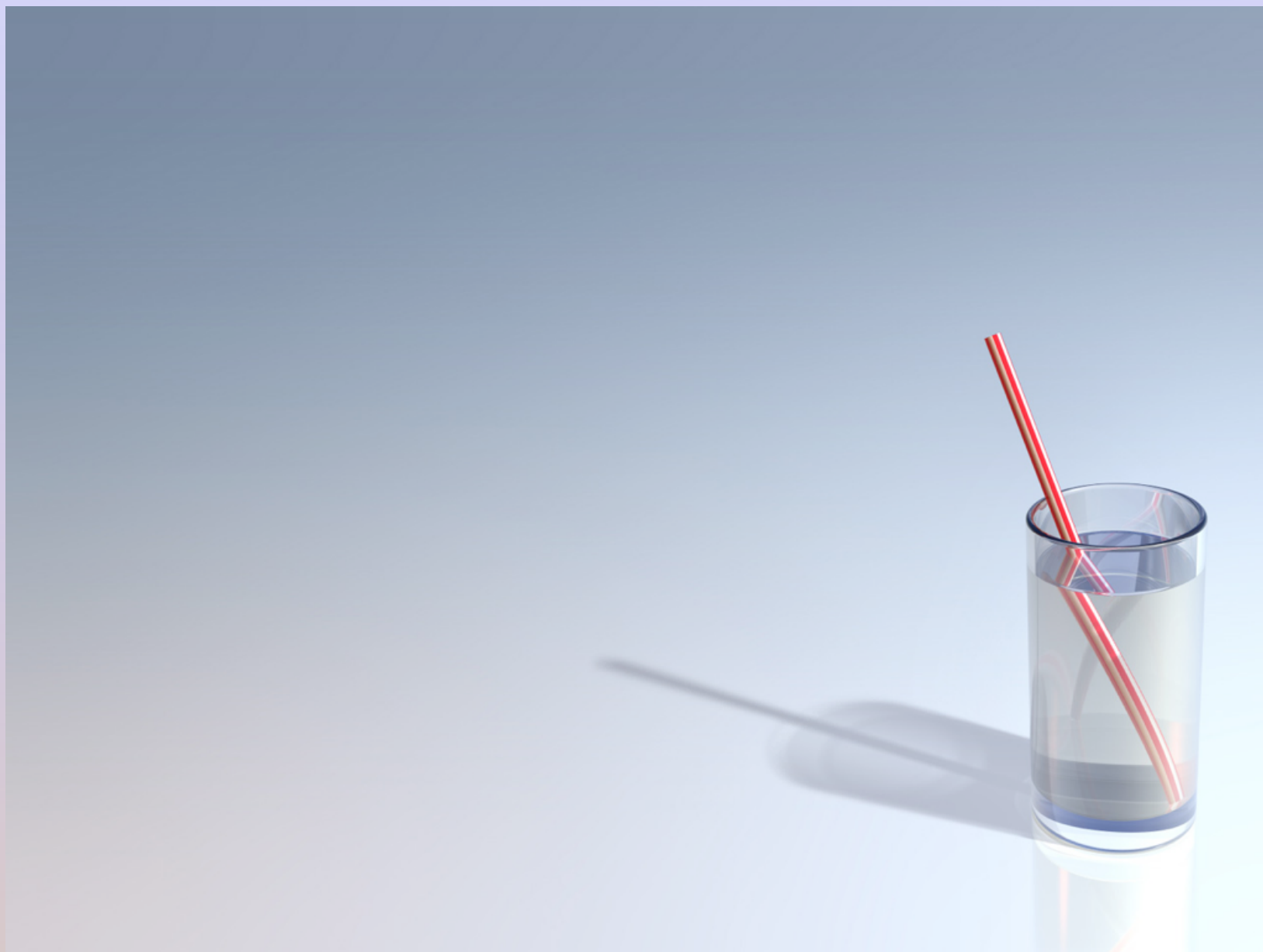


Blackbody radiation

$$I_\nu(thermal) = \frac{2h\nu^3}{c^2} \frac{1}{\exp(h\nu/kT) - 1}$$

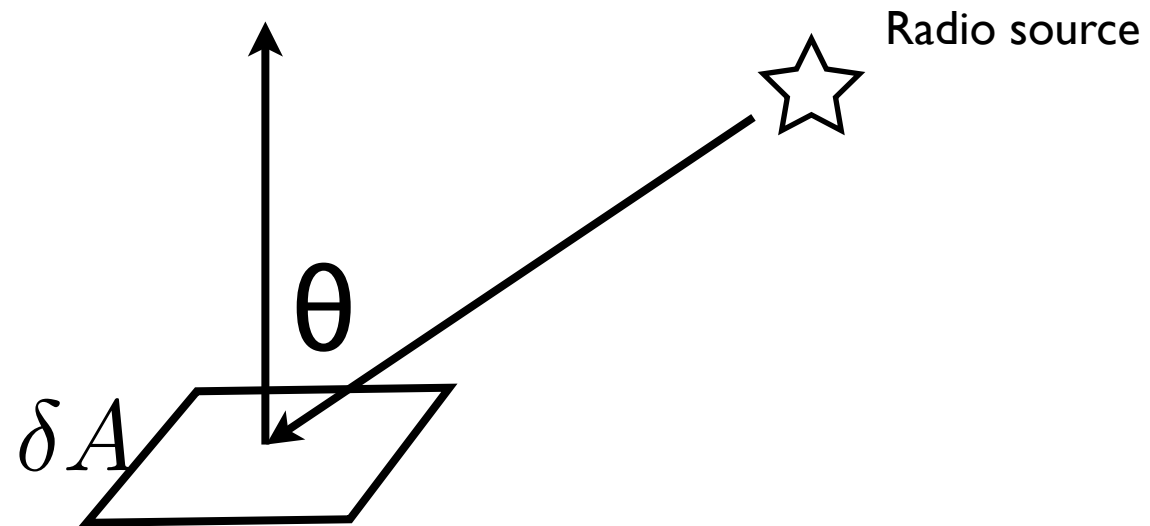
$$\nu_{max} \text{ (GHz)} = 59 \text{ } T \text{ (K)}$$

$$I_\nu(th) = \frac{2kT}{\lambda^2} \quad \nu(\text{GHz}) \ll 22 \text{ } T(\text{K})$$



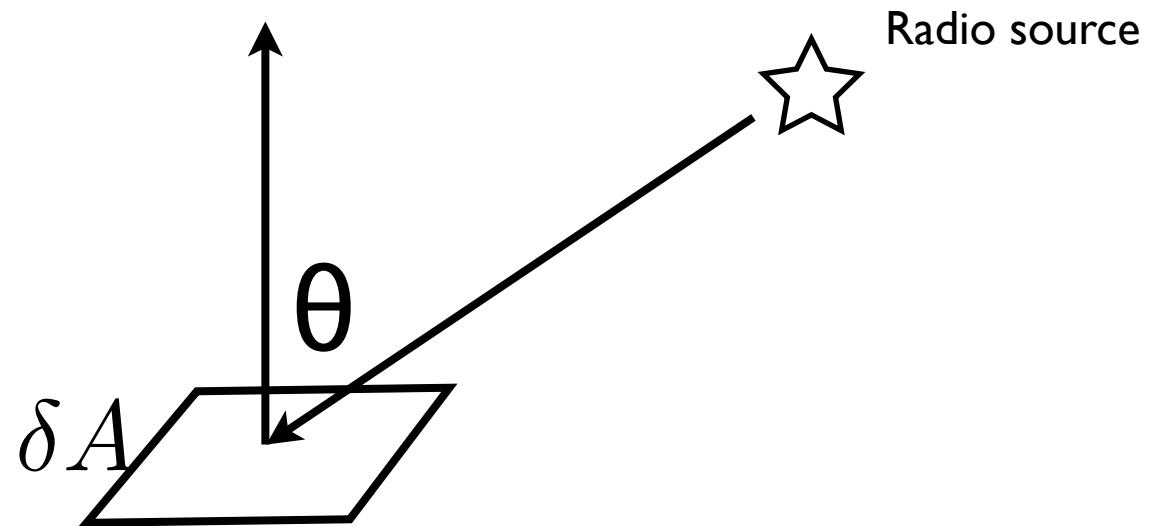
$$I_{\nu} = I_0 e^{-\tau_{\nu}}$$

An “aperture” in the abstract



$$\delta E = I_\nu \cos(\theta) \delta A \delta \Omega \delta \nu \delta t$$

An “aperture” in the abstract



$$\delta E = I_\nu \cos(\theta) \delta A \delta \Omega \delta \nu \delta t$$

Power
Received

$$W_m = \frac{A_e}{2} \int_{4\pi} I_\nu(\theta, \phi) P_\nu(\theta, \phi) d\Omega \quad \text{Watts Hz}^{-1}$$

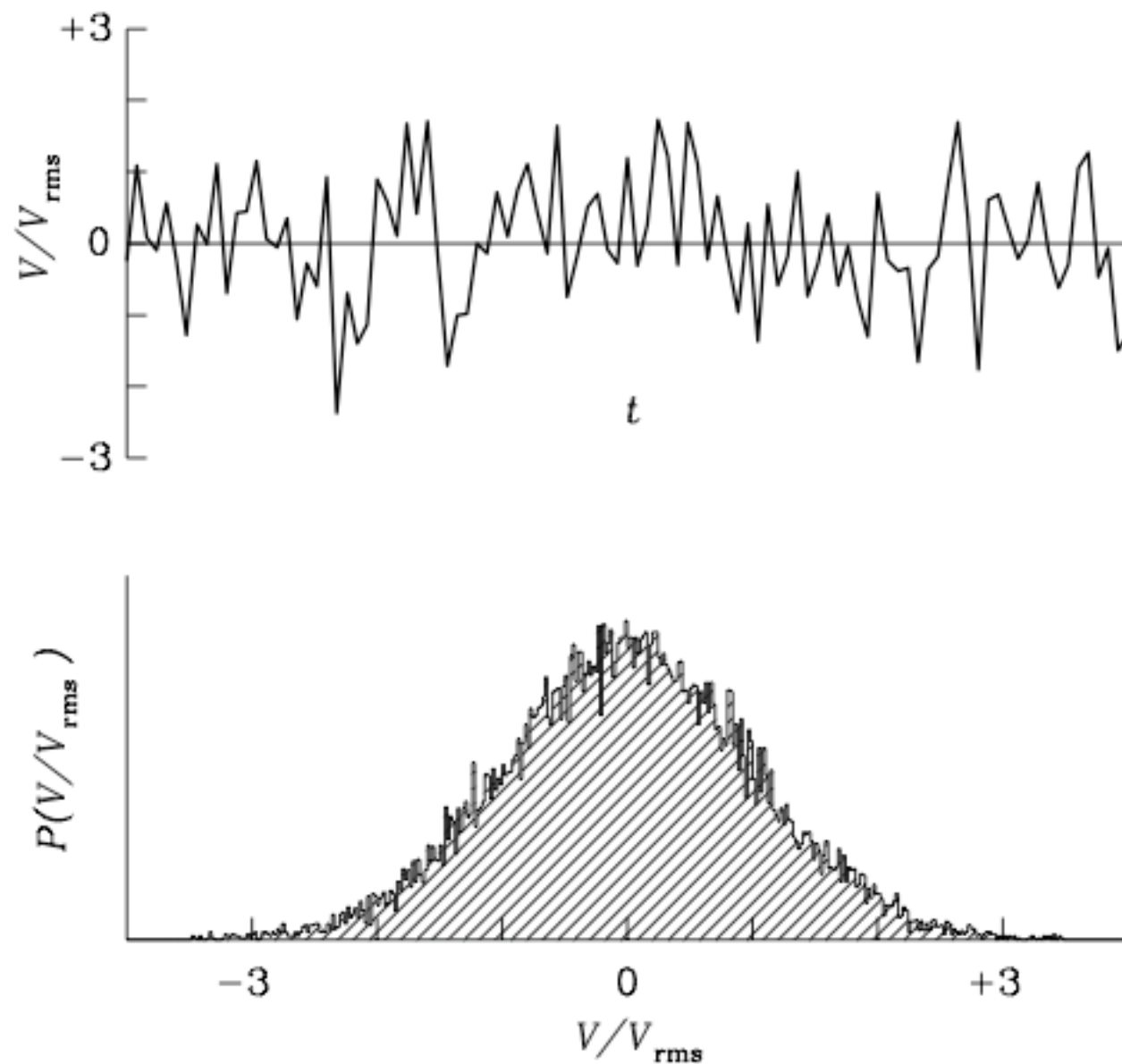
Power Pattern

$$P(0, 0) = 1$$

When $\nu \ll 2\pi T$

$$I_\nu(th) = \frac{2kT}{\lambda^2}$$

$$W_m = \frac{kA_e}{\lambda^2} \int_{4\pi} T_{b\nu}(\theta, \phi) P_\nu(\theta, \phi) d\Omega \quad \text{Watts Hz}^{-1}$$



The output voltage V of a radio telescope varies rapidly on short time scales, as indicated by the upper plot showing 100 independent samples of band-limited noise drawn from a Gaussian probability distribution $P(V/V_{\text{rms}})$ (lower plot) having zero mean and fixed rms

When $\nu \ll 2\pi T$

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$$W_m = \frac{kA_e}{\lambda^2} \int_{4\pi} T_{b\nu}(\theta, \phi) P_\nu(\theta, \phi) d\Omega \quad \text{Watts Hz}^{-1}$$

Power from a resistor

$$W = kT \quad (\text{watts Hz}^{-1})$$

Antenna
Temperature

$$T_a = \frac{A_e}{\lambda^2} \int_{4\pi} T_{b\nu}(\theta, \phi) P_\nu(\theta, \phi) d\Omega \quad (\text{K Hz}^{-1})$$

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Enclose the antenna in a blackbody of temperature T_b

$$T_a = \frac{T_b A_e}{\lambda^2} \int_{4\pi} P_\nu(\theta, \phi) d\Omega$$

defining

$$\Omega_a = \int_{4\pi} P_\nu(\theta, \phi) d\Omega$$

$$\Omega_a A_e = \lambda^2$$



$$T_a = \frac{A_e}{\lambda^2} \int_{4\pi} T_{b\nu}(\theta, \phi) P_\nu(\theta, \phi) d\Omega \quad (\text{K Hz}^{-1})$$

But we are looking through the atmosphere!

$$T_a = \frac{A_e}{\lambda^2} \int_{4\pi} T_{b\nu}(\theta, \phi) e^{-\tau(\theta, \phi)} P_\nu(\theta, \phi) d\Omega \quad (\text{K})$$

Specific Intensity
(Brightness)

$$I_\nu(\theta, \phi) \quad (\text{Watts m}^{-2} \text{ Hz}^{-1} \text{ str}^{-1})$$

Flux Density

$$S_\nu = \int_{\Omega_s} I_\nu(\theta, \phi) d\Omega \quad (\text{Watts m}^{-2} \text{ Hz}^{-1})$$

A flux density per unit area is actually a brightness!

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What determines P?

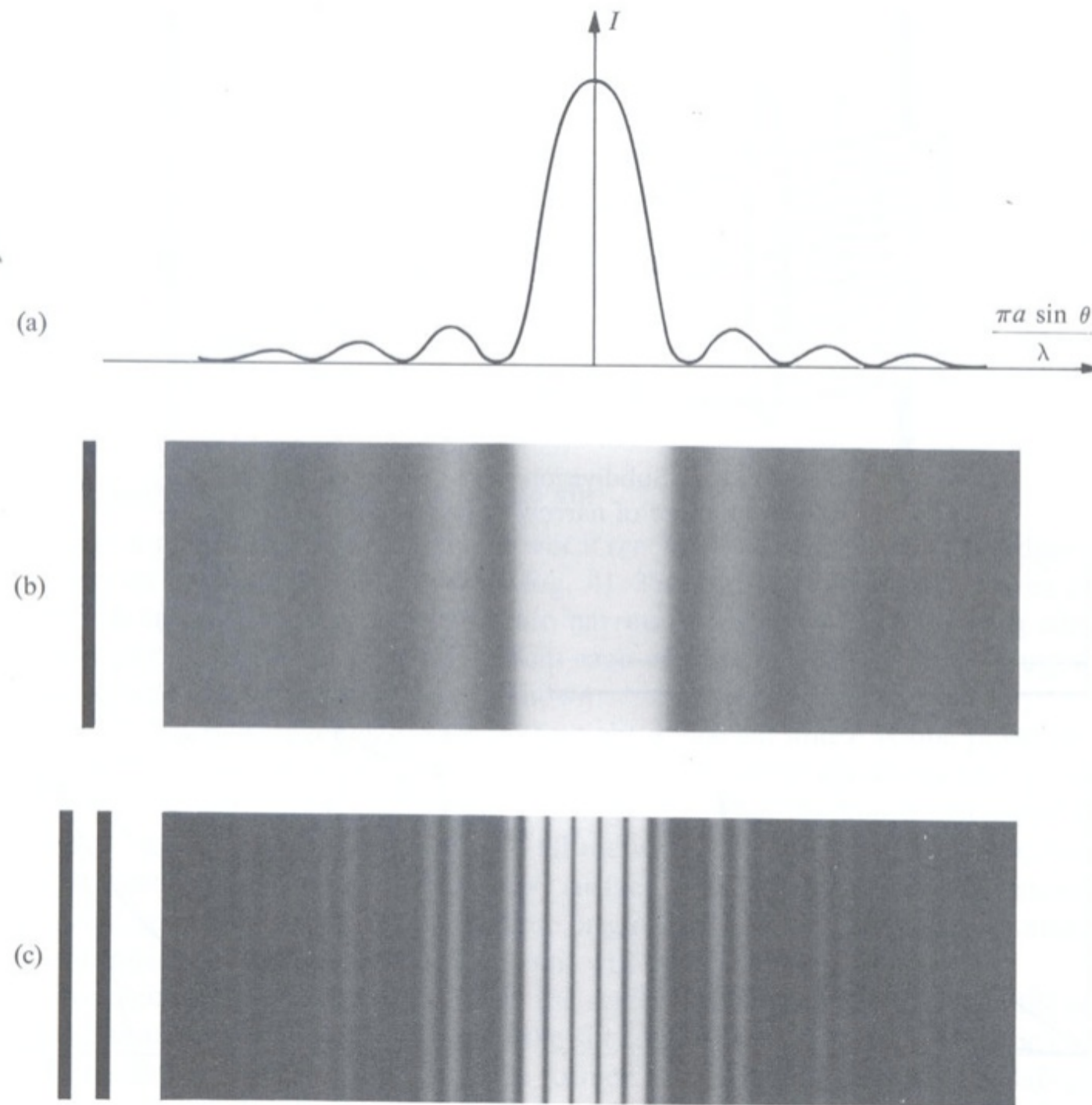
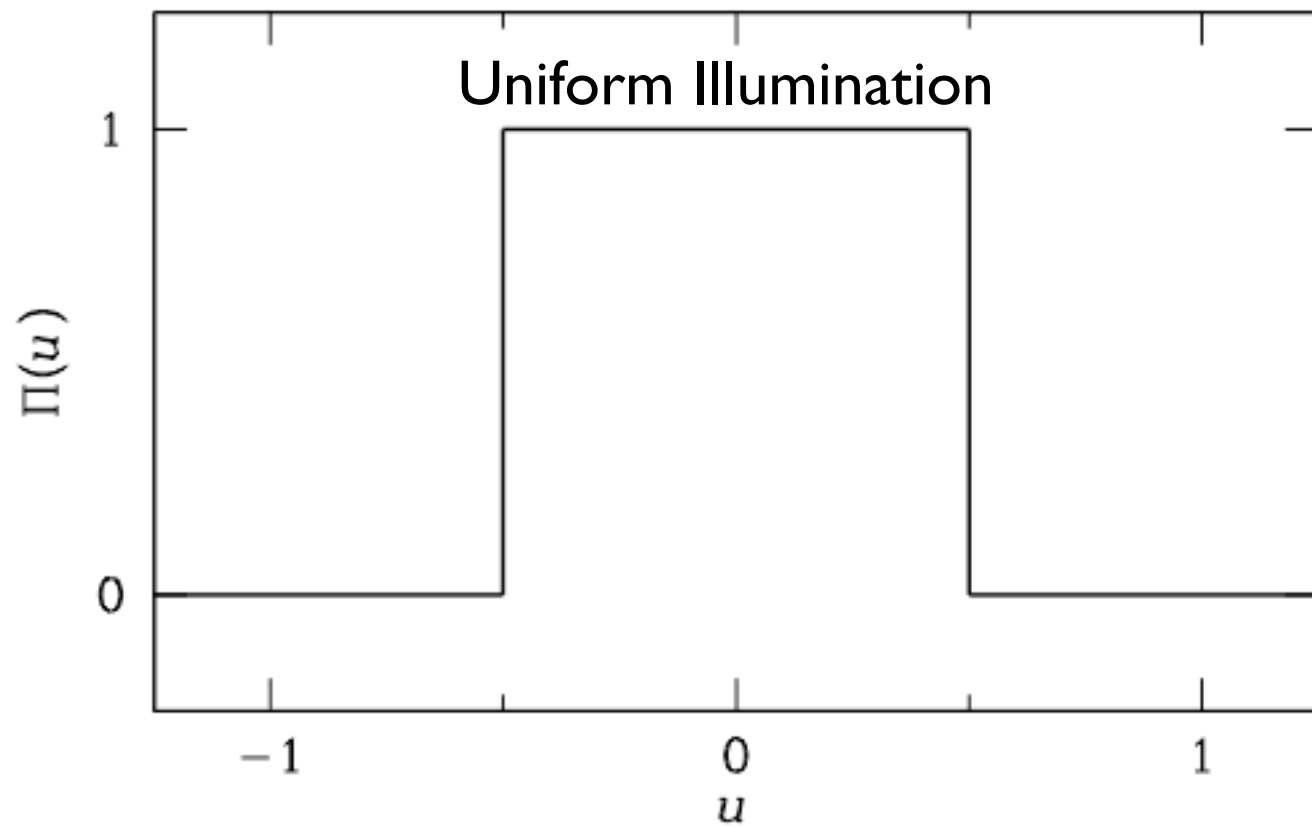


Fig. 41-28. (a) Intensity distribution. (b) Photograph of the Fraunhofer diffraction pattern of a single slit. (c) Fraunhofer diffraction pattern of a double slit.

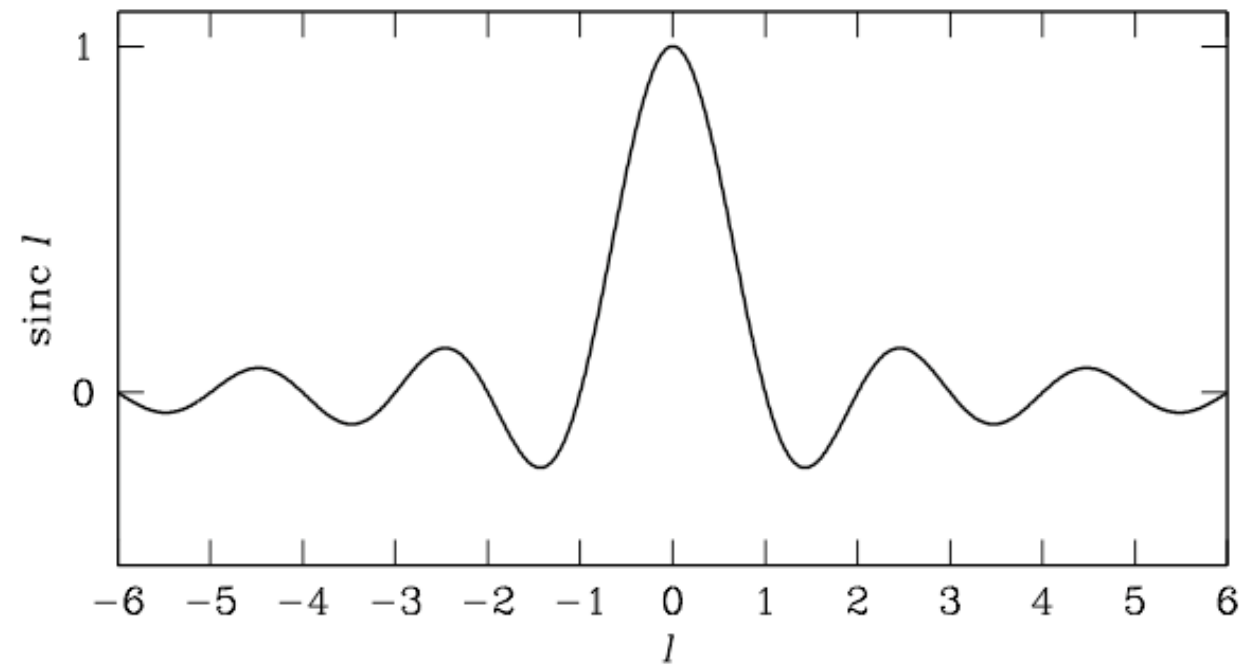
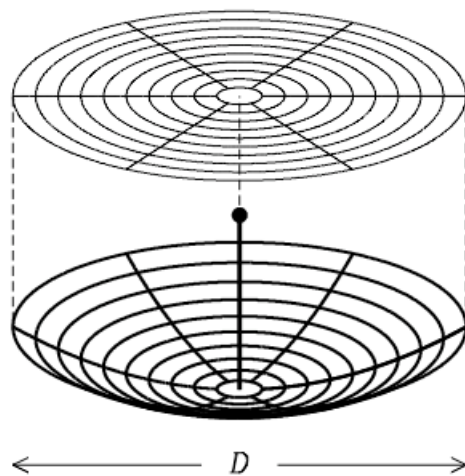


"Boxcar" Function

FT

"Sinc" Function

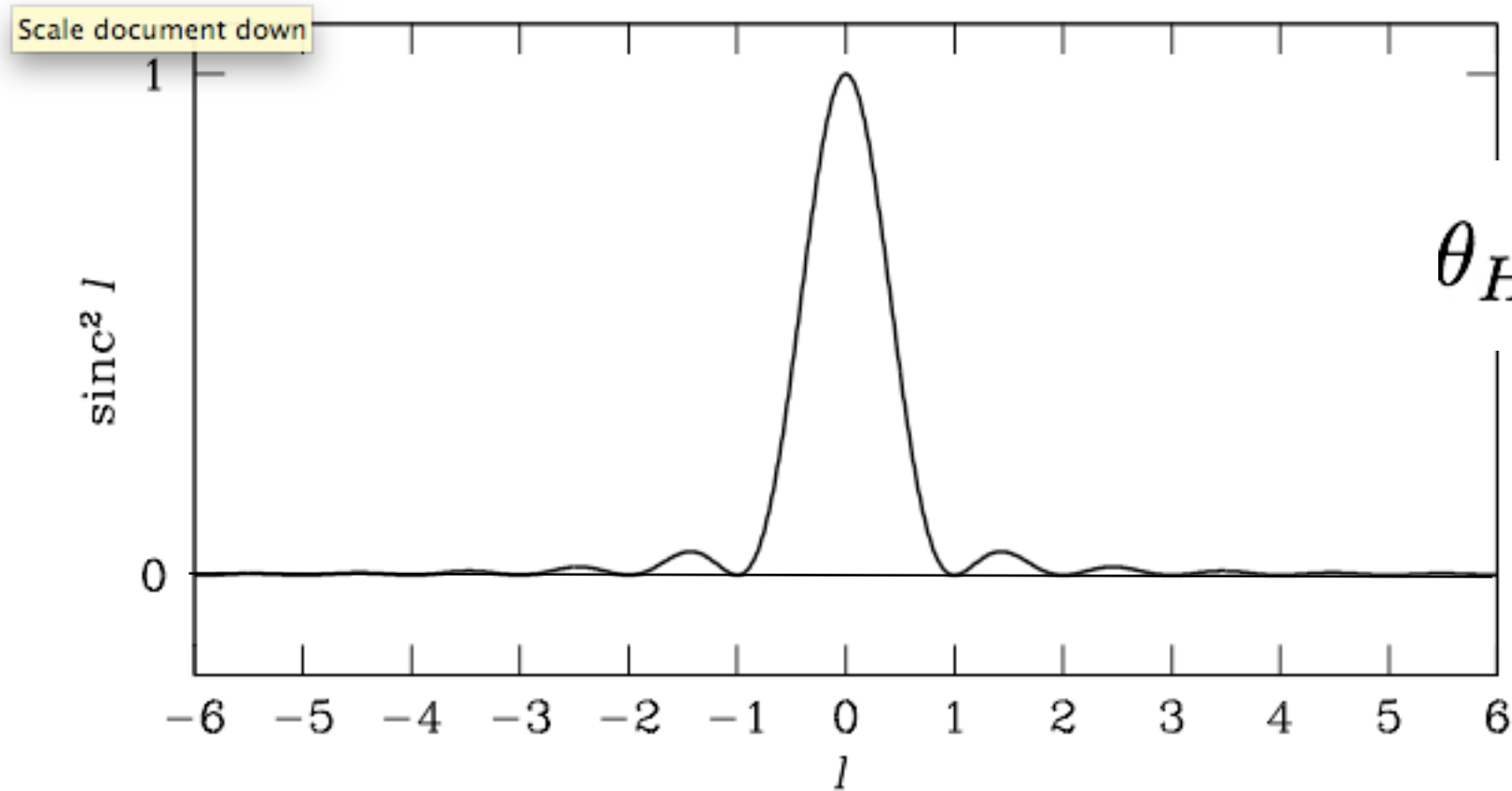
Aperture
Plane



The function $\text{sinc}(l) \equiv \sin(\pi l)/(\pi l)$ is the Fourier transform

For Uniform Illumination

$$P(\theta) \propto \text{sinc}^2(\theta D/\lambda)$$



$$\theta_{HPBW} \approx \frac{\lambda}{D}$$

The power pattern of a uniformly illuminated unit ($D/\lambda = 1$) aperture. For large ($D \gg \lambda$) apertures, the zeros at $l = \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$ appear at the angles $\theta = \pm \lambda/D, \pm 2\lambda/D, \dots$

Airy rings

Main Beam and Sidelobes

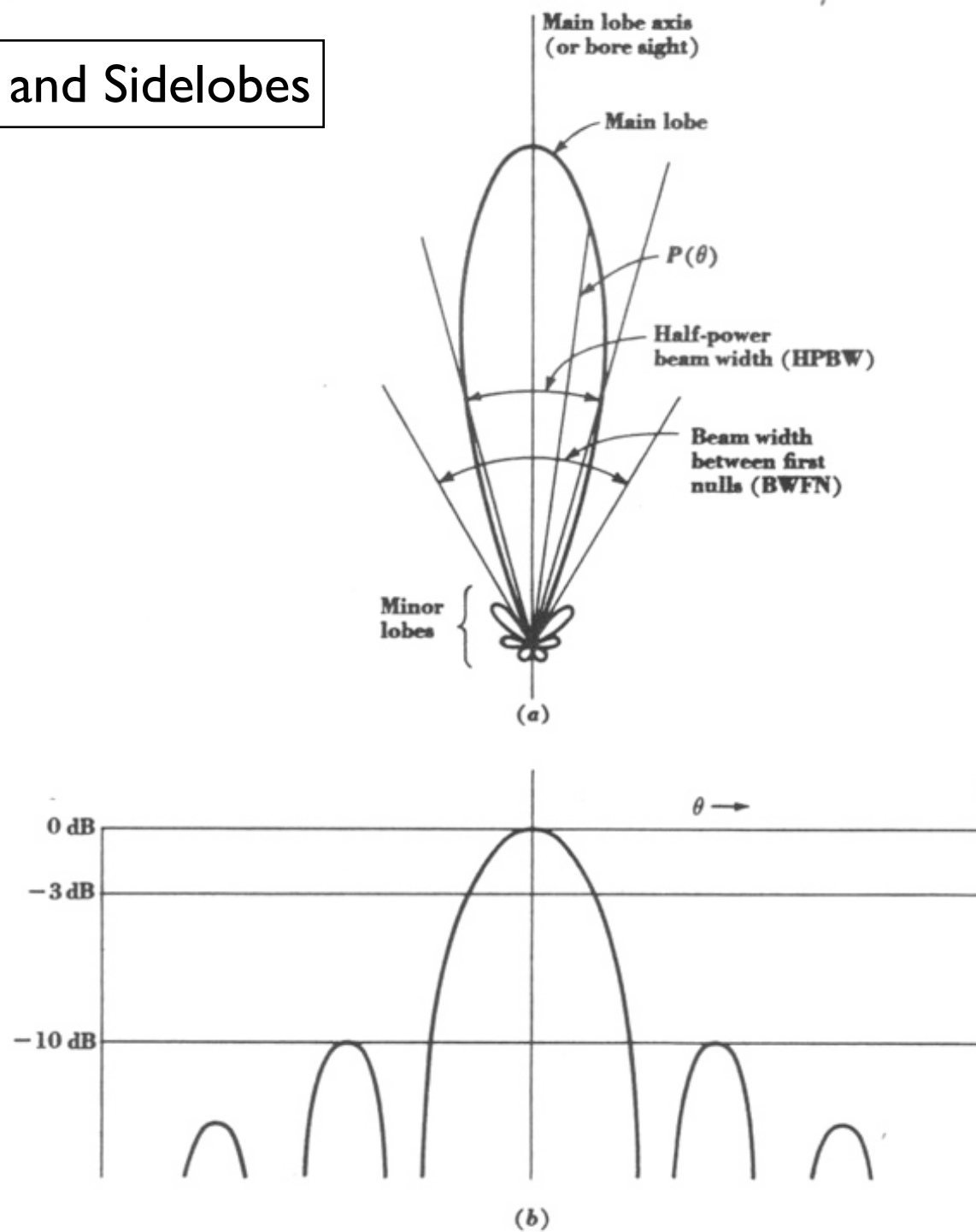


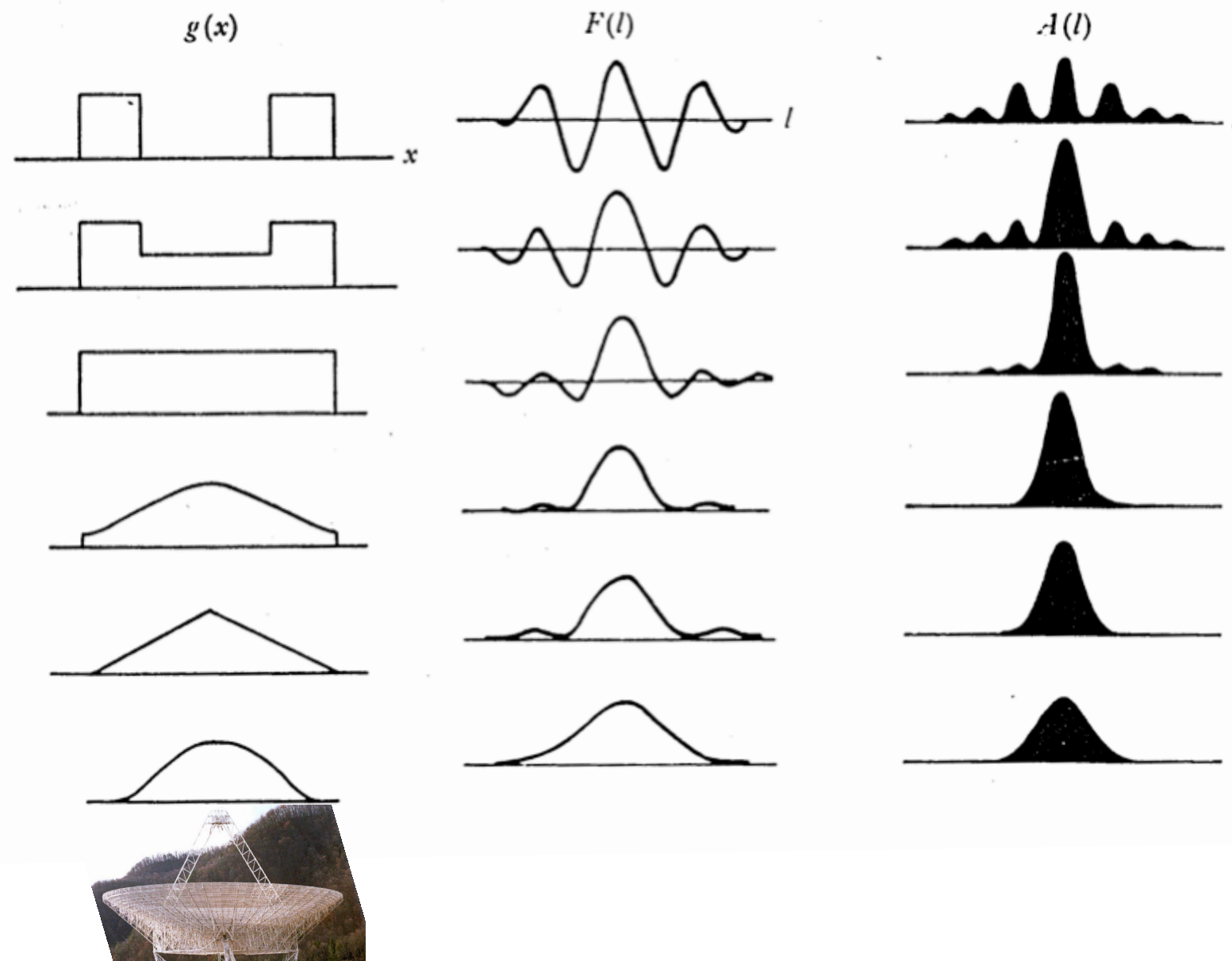
Fig. 6-1. (a) Antenna pattern in polar coordinates and linear power scale;
(b) antenna pattern in rectangular coordinates and decibel power scale.

$$\eta_{mb} = \frac{\Omega_{mb}}{\Omega_a}$$

Main Beam Efficiency

(from Kraus 1966)

Fig. 2.7. A selection of gradings $g(x)$ for a line antenna, the field patterns $F(l)$ and effective areas $A(l)$.



- In the far field, the electric-field pattern, f , of an aperture antenna is the Fourier transform of the electric field illuminating the aperture. And the power pattern, P , is the square of the modulus of f .

$$W_m = \frac{A_e}{2} \int_{4\pi} I_\nu(\theta, \phi) P_\nu(\theta, \phi) d\Omega \quad \text{Watts Hz}^{-1}$$

for a point source $W_m = kT_a = \frac{1}{2}A_e S_\nu$

$$T_a/S_\nu = \frac{A_e}{2k} 10^{-26} \text{ (K Jy}^{-1}\text{)}$$

(an A_e of 2760 m² gives 1.0 K/Jy)

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What is A_e ?

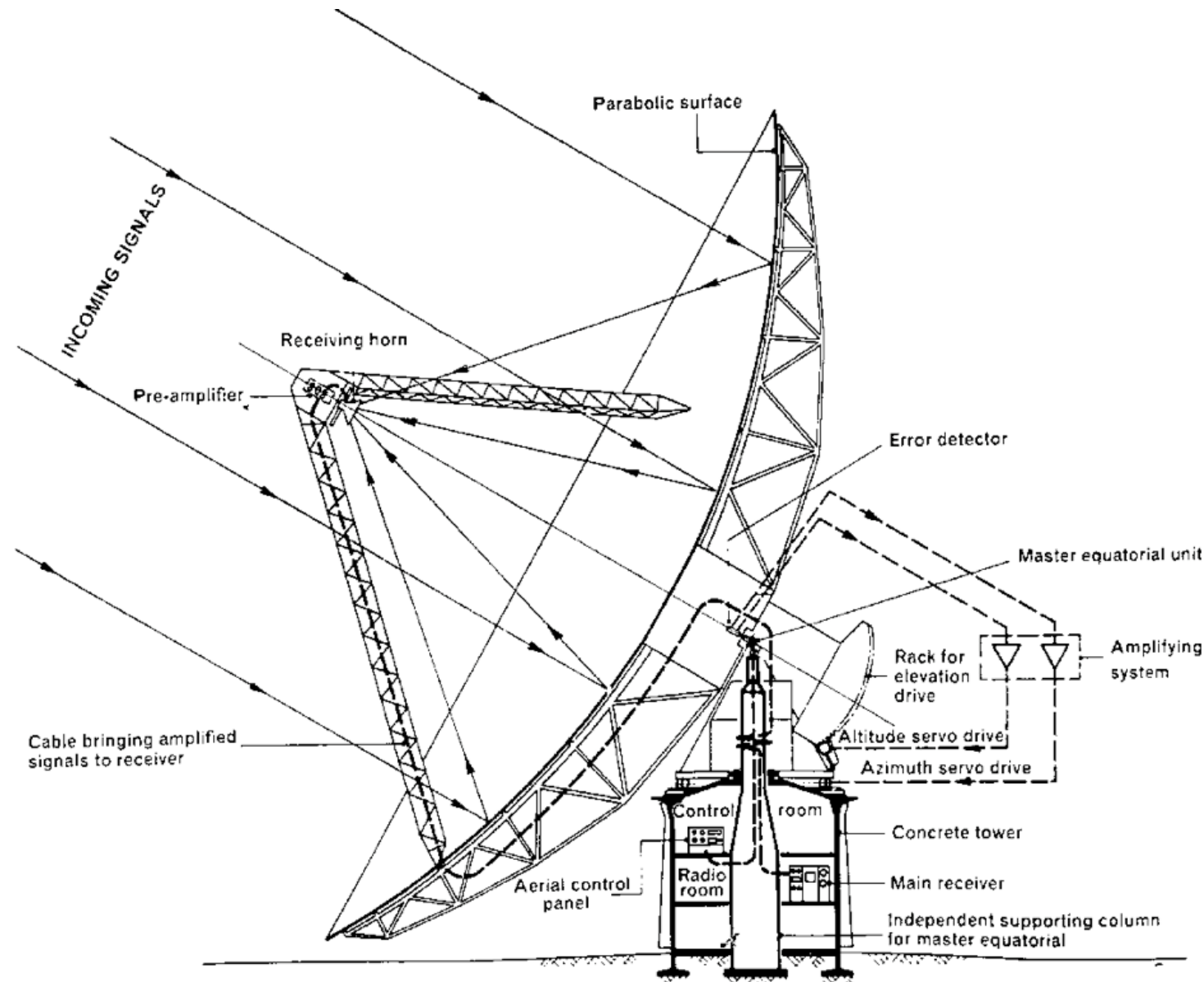
Geometric Area

$$A_g = \pi r^2 \text{ (m}^2\text{)}$$

Effective Area

$$A_e = \eta_a A_g \text{ (m}^2\text{)}$$

$$\eta_a < 1.0$$



Geometric Area

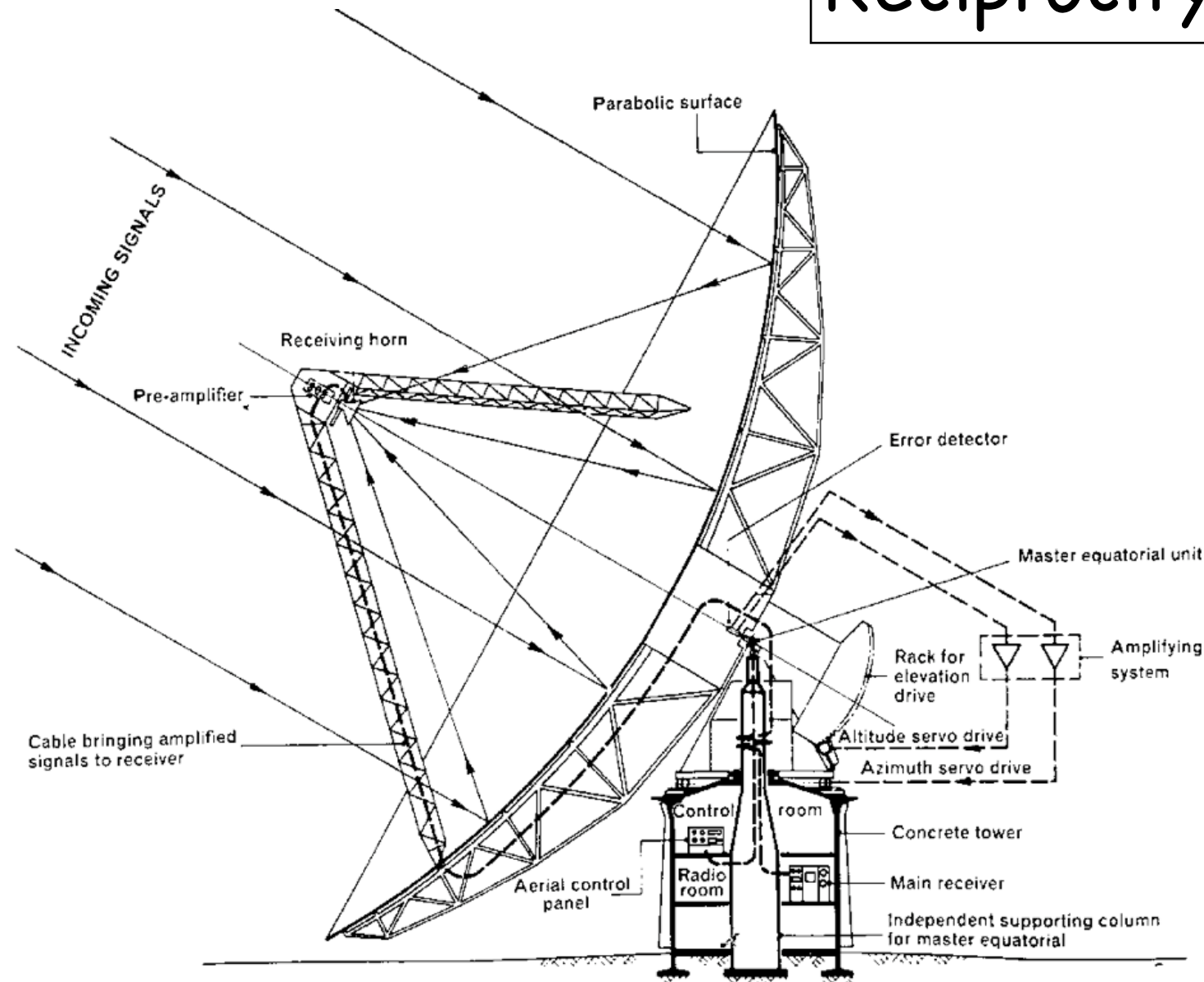
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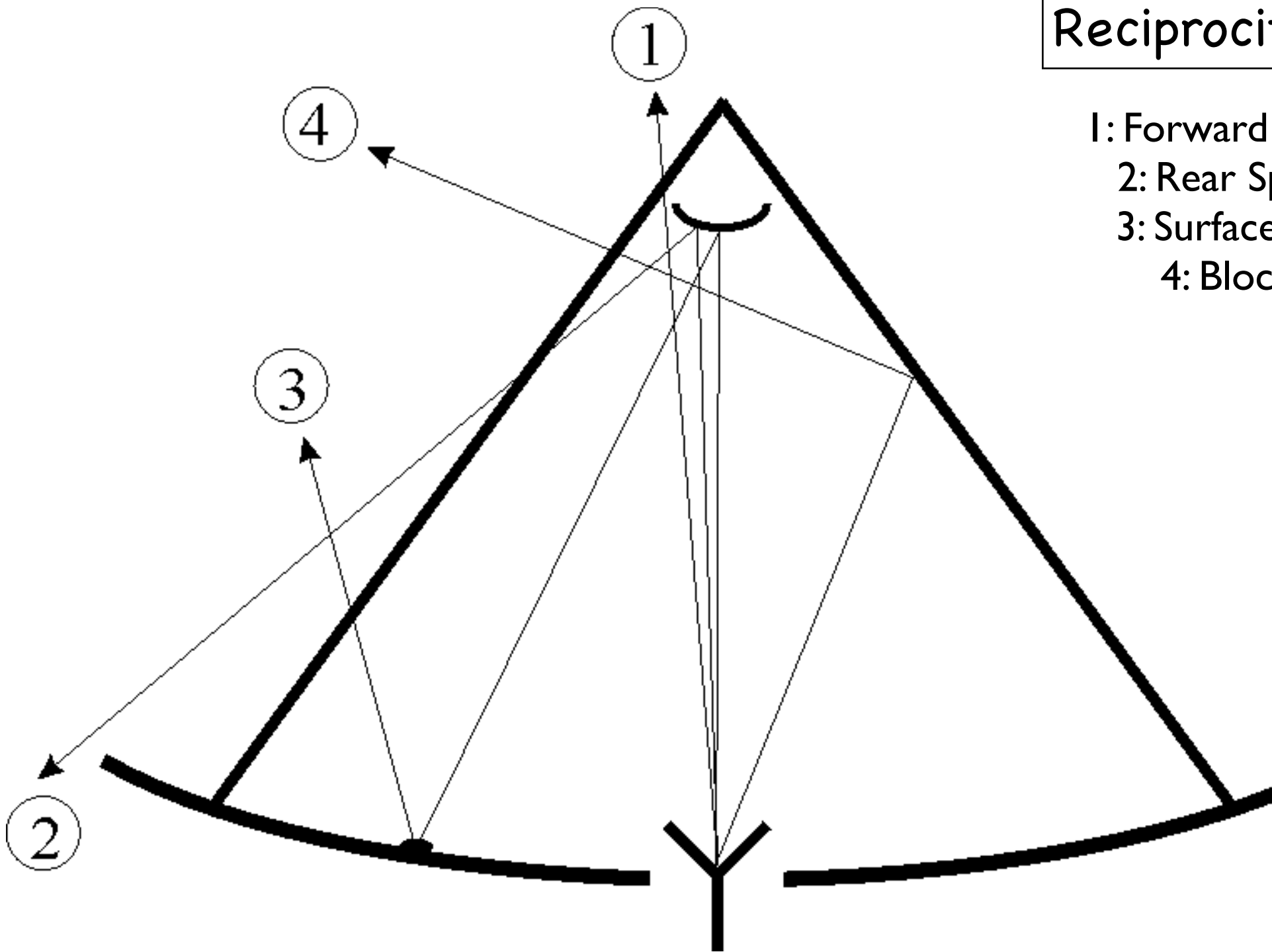
$$\eta_a < 1.0$$

Reciprocity: $f(t) = f(-t)$



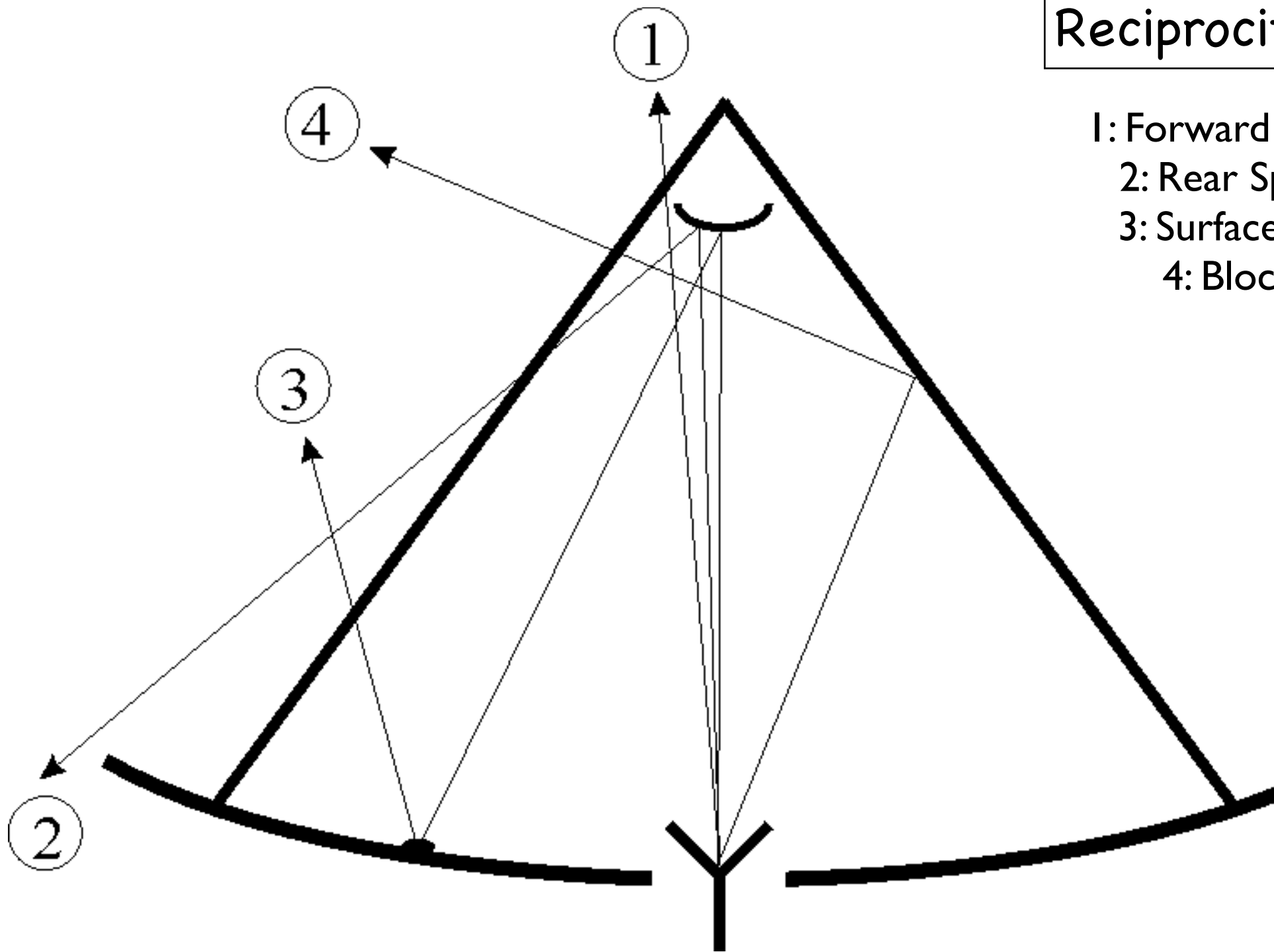
Reciprocity in action

- 1: Forward Spillover
- 2: Rear Spillover
- 3: Surface defect
- 4: Blockage



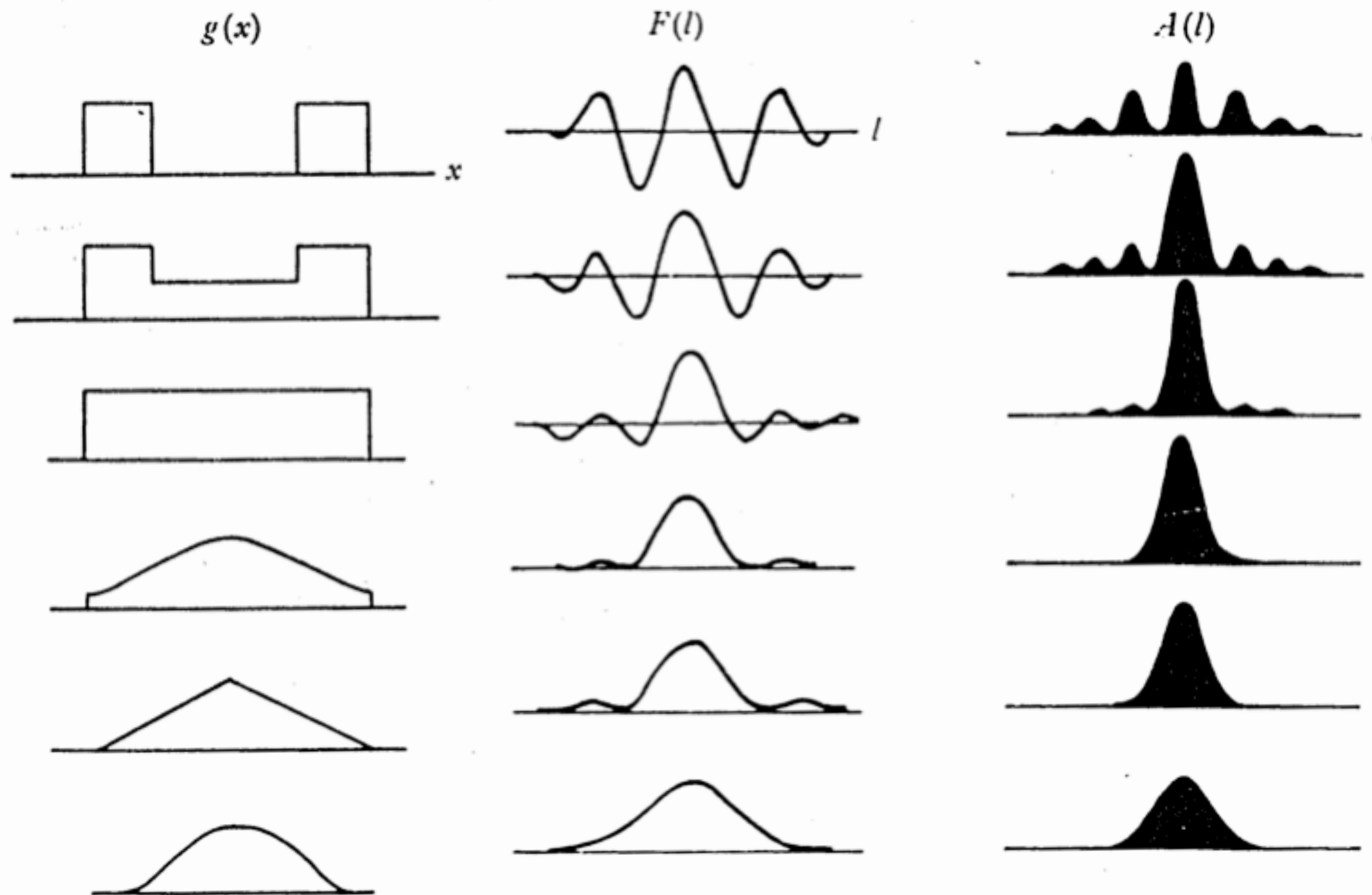
Reciprocity in action

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Diffractive Optics:
 $4\text{m at } 5000\text{\AA} = 8 \times 10^6 \lambda$
 $100\text{m at } 21\text{cm} = 475 \lambda$

Fig. 2.7. A selection of gradings $g(x)$ for a line antenna, the field patterns $F(l)$ and effective areas $A(l)$.



Spillover wastes power and can increase the noise, so taper the illumination

Table 2. Effects of Feed Taper for the GBT at 5 GHz

Edge Taper (dB)	Aperture Efficiency %	T_{spill} forward K	rear K
-12	70.0	0.4	2.6
-13	69.9	0.4	2.2
-14	69.3	0.4	1.9
-15	68.4	0.3	1.6
-16	67.3	0.2	1.4
-17	66.1	0.2	1.2

from S. Srikanth (1992)

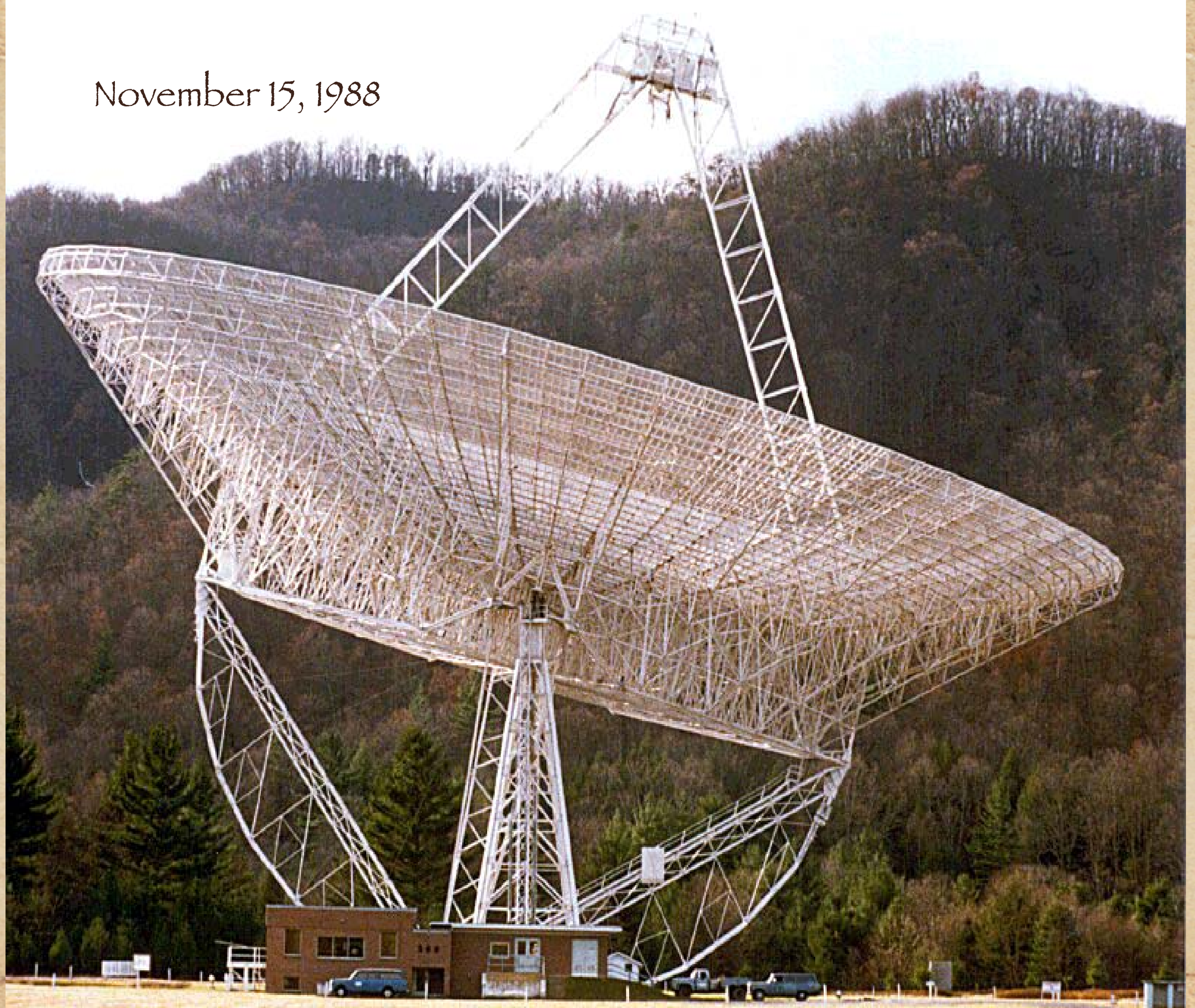




9-28-66



November 15, 1988

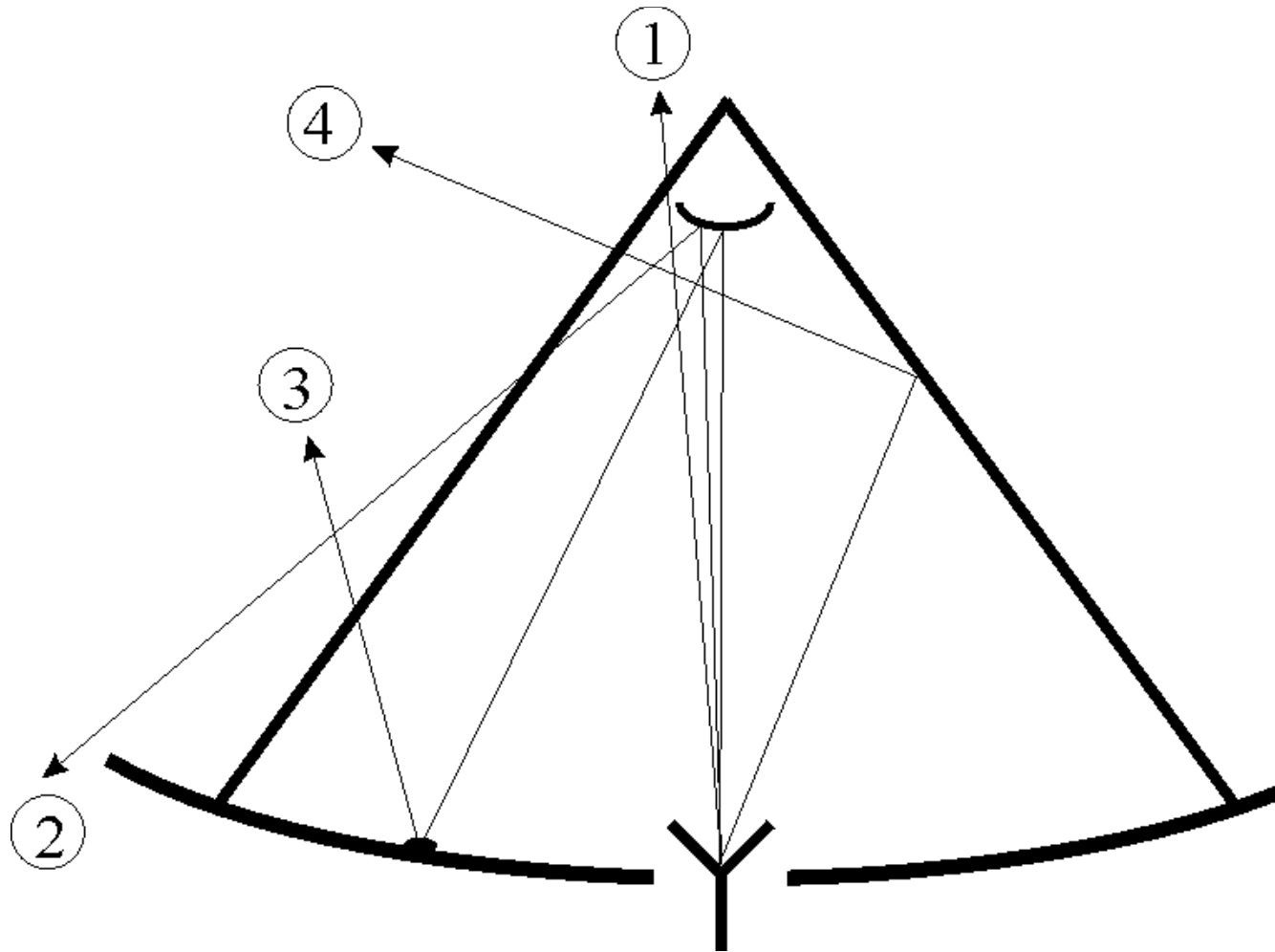


November 16, 1988





Effects of surface errors -- phase errors



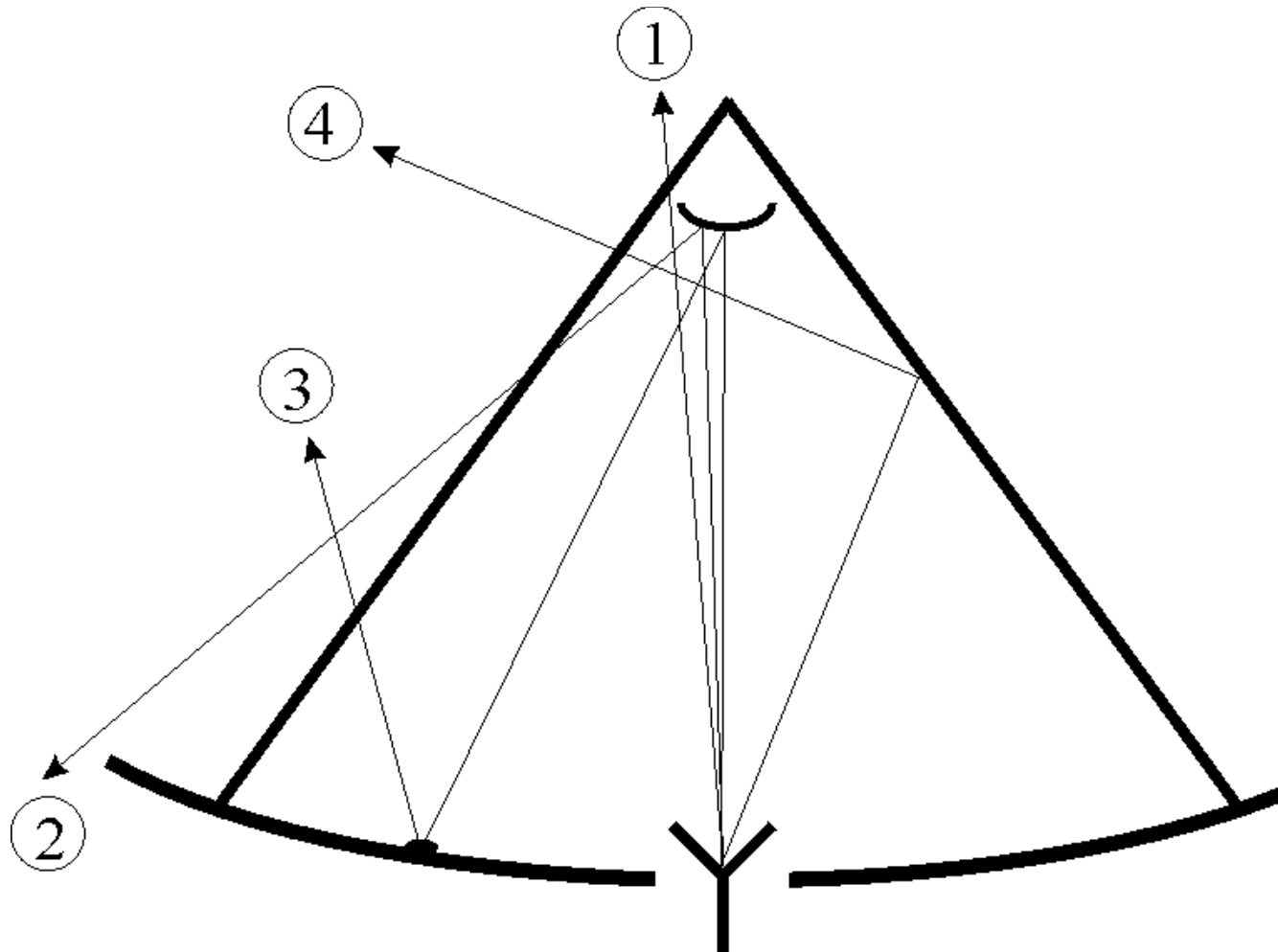
Scatter power out of main beam
Create a sidelobe
Reduce A_e

Ruze equation for rms error σ

$$\epsilon = e^{-(4\pi\sigma/\lambda)^2}$$

A_e reduced by factor of 2 for $\sigma = \lambda/16$

Effects of surface errors -- phase errors



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Create a sidelobe
Reduce A_e

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A_e reduced by factor of 2 for $\sigma = \lambda/16$

Where does it go?

Atm phase errors

Radio Astronomical Signals must be distinguished from a background of naturally occurring “noise”

$$T_{\text{sys}} = T_{\text{receiver}} + T_{\text{atm}} + T_{\text{spill}} + \dots$$

Sources of Noise

$$T_{\text{atm}} \approx 300(1 - e^{-\tau_{\text{atm}}})$$

$$\tau_{\text{atm}} \approx \frac{\tau_{\text{zen}}}{\cos(za)}$$

$$T_{\text{cmb}} = 2.7 \text{ K}$$

$$T_{\text{spill}} = 300 \eta_{\text{spill}} \text{ K}$$

$$T_{\text{receiver}} = 10 - 100 \text{ K}$$

Measurement error arising from noise

$$\sigma_{rms} = \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum (y_i)^2 \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\sigma_{rms} = \frac{aT_{sys}}{(\Delta\nu \Delta t n_{pol})^{\frac{1}{2}}}$$

Example: detect the HI line from a cloud with $N_H = 2 \times 10^{18}$ and FWHM = 20 km/s.

Expected $T_L = 0.05$ K

$$\sigma = \frac{20}{(5 \times 10^3 \text{ (Hz)} \Delta t 2)^{\frac{1}{2}}}$$

$$\Delta t = (0.2/\sigma)^2 \text{ (s)}$$

Blockage

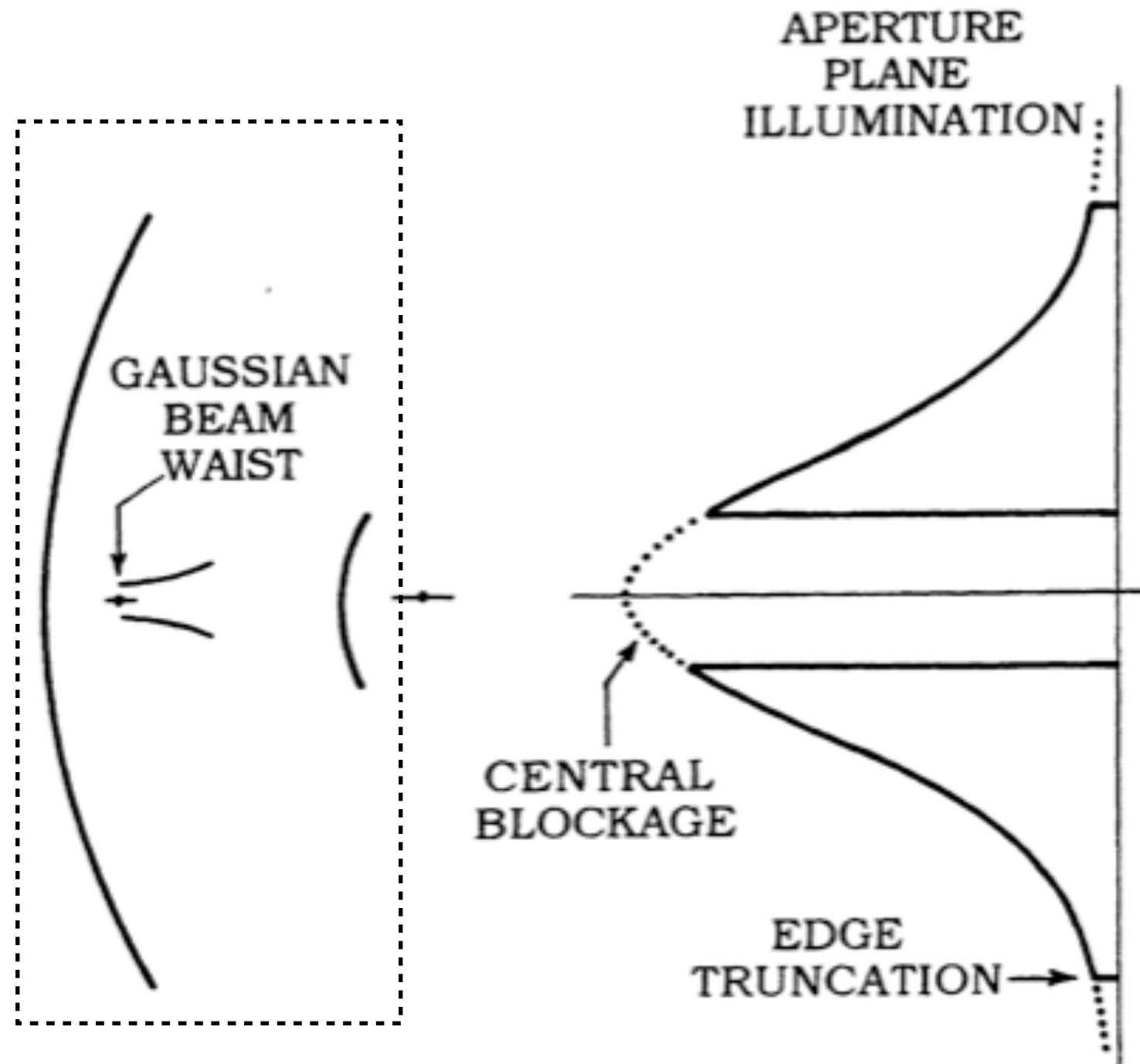
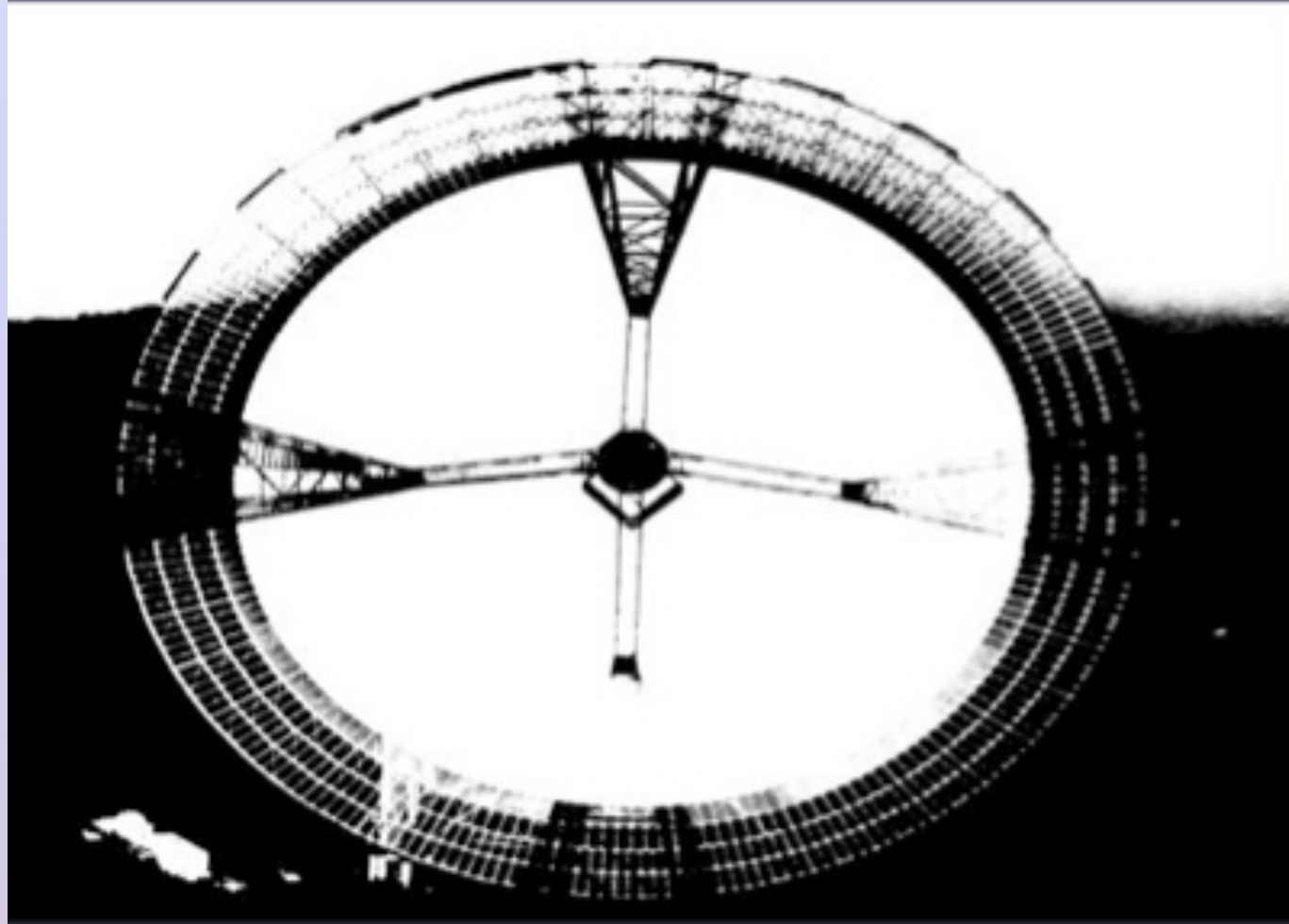


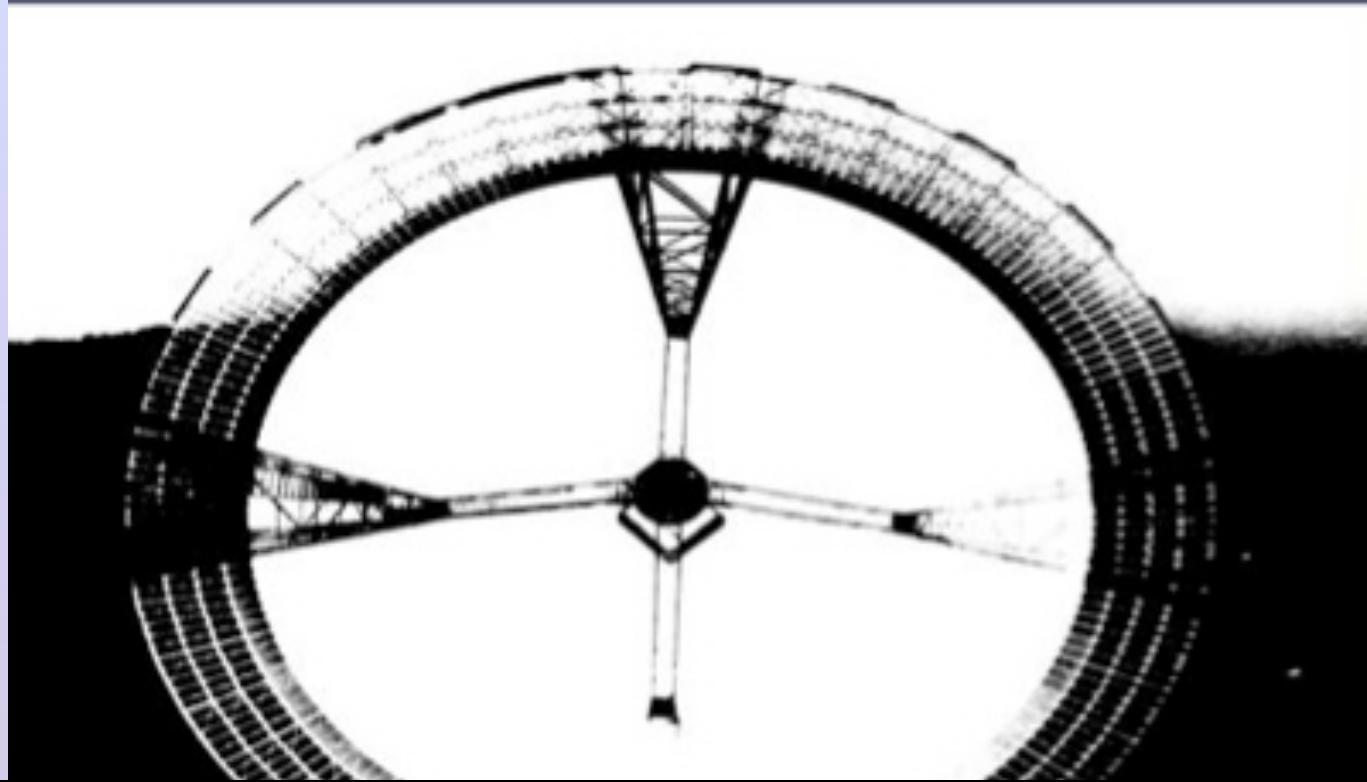
Figure 2. Schematic of the aperture plane with a Cassegrain reflector system.

(from Goldsmith 2002)

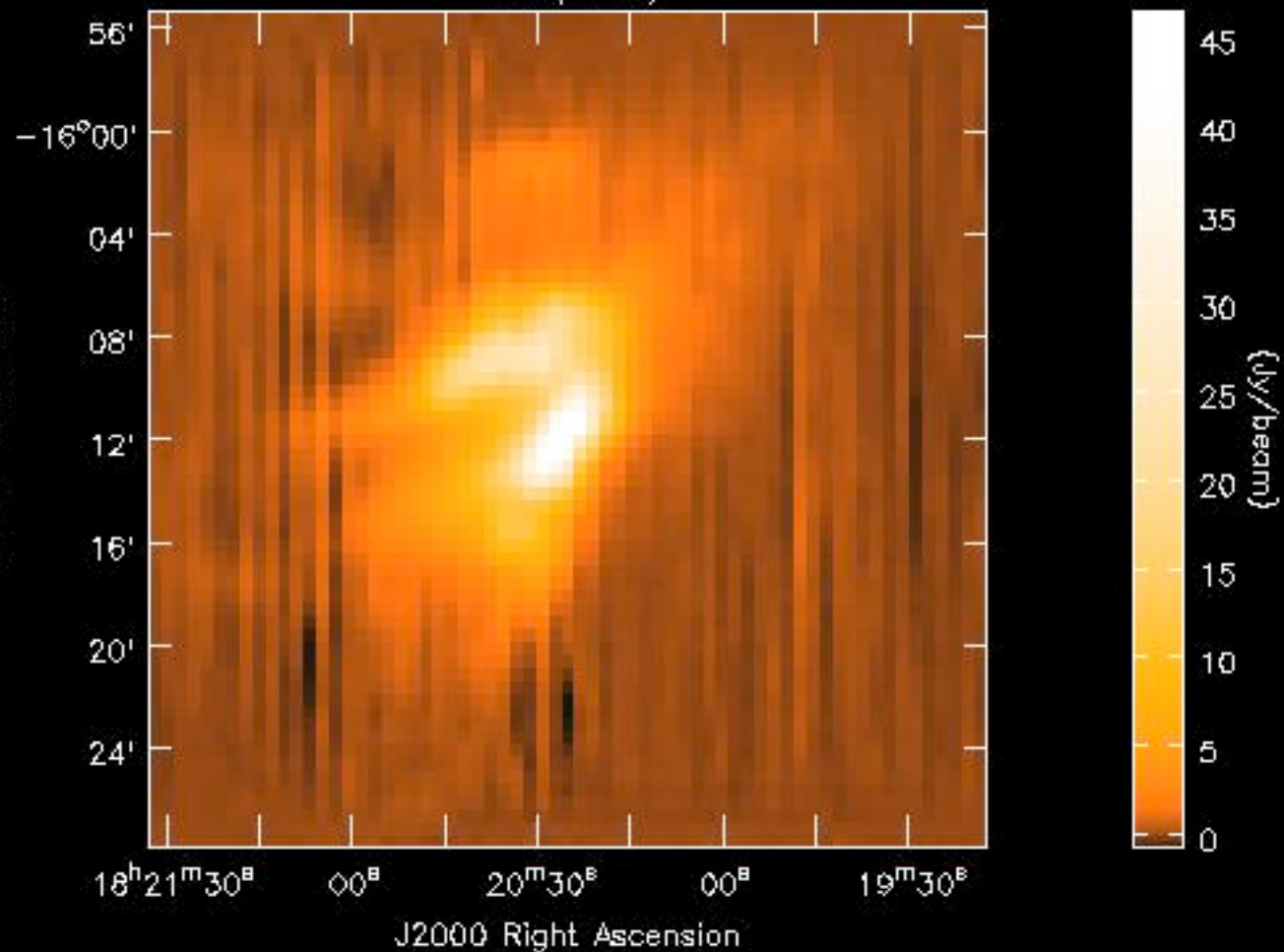
Effects of blockage on dynamic range



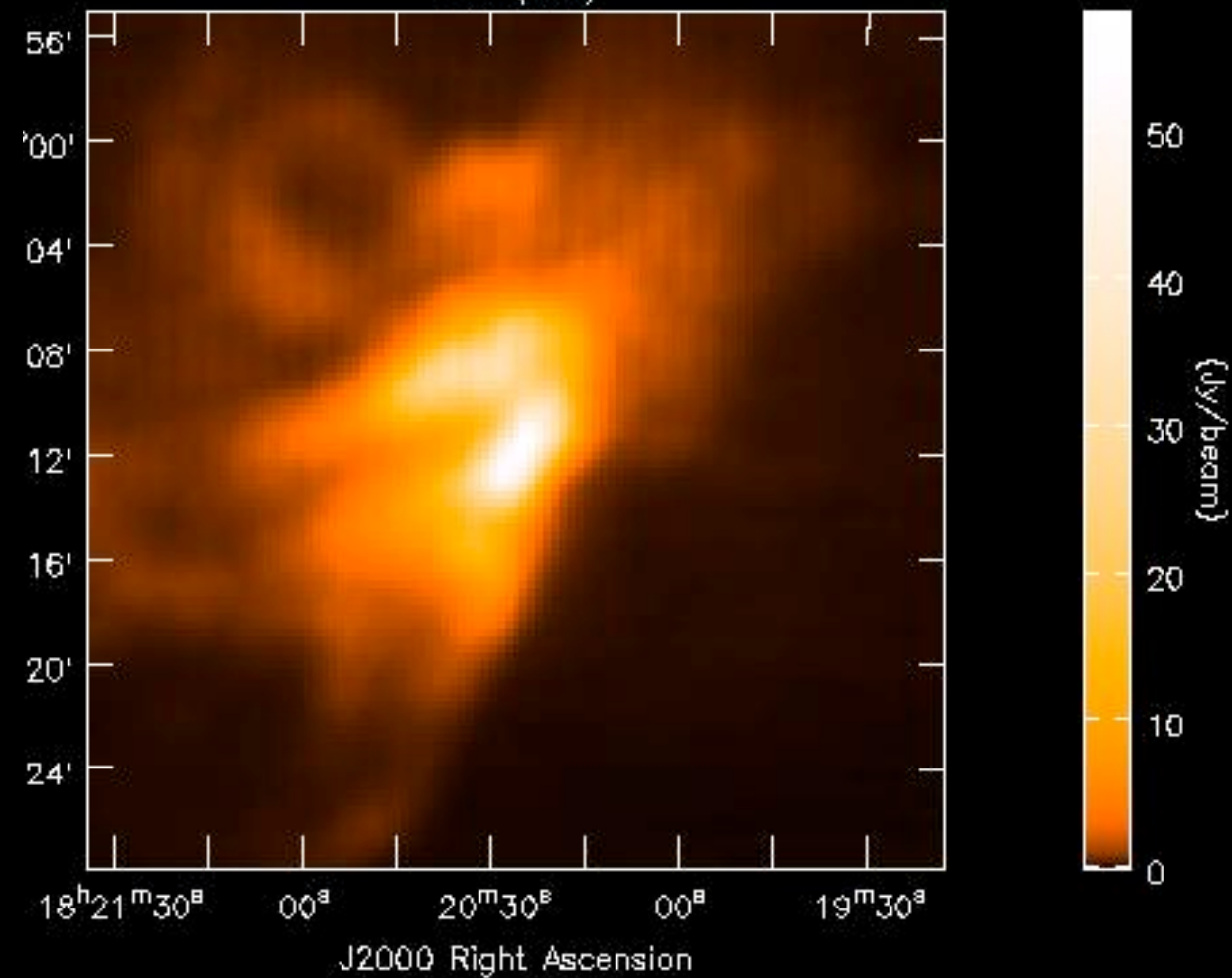
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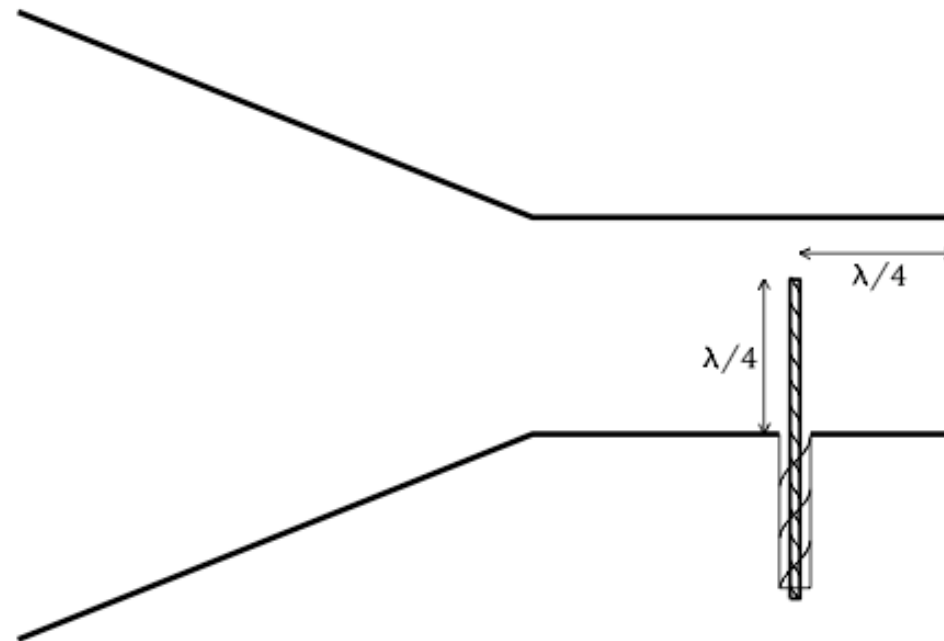
M17 (MPIfR)



M17 (GBT)



The marvelous radio receivers/detectors



Most high-frequency feeds are quarter-wave ground-plane verticals inside waveguide horns. The only true antenna in this figure is the $\lambda/4$ ground-plane vertical, which converts electromagnetic waves in the waveguide to currents in the coaxial cable extending down from the waveguide.



Radio telescope



Talkin' about telescopes

Talkin' about telescopes

A radio telescope must:

Survive
Focus
Point
Track

So it has a

Mount
Surface
Optics
Receiver

Parkes 210-ft







Radio telescope







