

Beam forming and phased array feeds The technology behind ASKAP's wide field of view Aidan Hotan



Outline

- Antenna optics review
- Introduction to phased arrays in radio astronomy
- Using a phased array as a feed for a dish antenna
- Beam formation methods
- Beam characterisation
- Beam maintenance
- Useful beam footprints for astronomy
- A footprint tiling scheme for large-area surveys
- Future possibilities



Dish antennas and the diffraction limit

- The spatial resolution that can be achieved by an imaging system is governed by the size of the light-gathering aperture
 - This limit is rarely approached at optical wavelengths, but in radio astronomy it is typically what defines the primary beam of a telescope
- The Airy pattern associated with diffraction due to a circular aperture is also the intensity profile (beam) of a uniformly-illuminated reflector
 - Fun maths fact the Airy pattern is a Bessel function of the 1st kind with order one
 - The central peak of the Airy pattern is well approximated by a 2D Gaussian
- There is an inverse relationship between aperture size and the extent of the diffraction pattern
 - Large antennas have lots of gain but also a small field of view

Directivity and amplification



Visualising the diffraction limit

0.0

0.2

0.4

0.6

0.8

1.0

- Diffraction calculations apply to a single wavelength
 - Beam size scales with frequency
- Diffraction causes significant sidelobes away from the main axis
 - These can be suppressed with tapered illumination (see later)



Image: Airy disk structure for a 2D circular aperture; Wikimedia Commons

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Dish antenna feeds

- A feed is responsible for converting free-space waves into guided waves
 - The simplest configuration is a single feed placed at the focus on the optical axis
- A feed is itself an antenna!
 - It will impose its own radiation pattern on the reflector (known as illumination)
- Feeds are typically less sensitive to radiation coming from the edges of the dish, compared to the centre
 - Truly uniform illumination requires an immediate cut-off at the reflector boundary
 - In practice we must balance efficiency against spill-over and side-lobe levels



Antenna feed located at dish focus

Feed illumination & tapering



Near-uniform illumination

Tapered illumination

Under-illumination



The Gaussian primary beam approximation

- We often approximate the illumination pattern as a 2D Gaussian
 - Neglecting aperture blockage, reflections from support struts, etc.
- The (voltage) beam of a reflecting antenna is the 2D Fourier transform of its aperture illumination pattern
 - The Fourier transform of a Gaussian is another Gaussian, so tapered illumination acts to suppress side-lobes
 - Using a Gaussian profile for primary beam correction is usually a good starting point
 - True beam patterns may differ and can be predicted using electromagnetic simulations or measured using techniques such as holography
- Knowing the primary beam is key to obtaining an accurate flux scale and polarisation characteristics
 - For an interferometer, source position depends on visibility phases, not the primary beam



Do we need a dish?

- Reflecting antennas have some useful properties, but other technologies can be used, especially at low frequencies
 - Long wavelengths can be efficiently received using non-solid apertures
- Aperture arrays & phased arrays
 - Collecting area consisting of many low-gain elements combined



How do phased arrays work?

- Consider a 1D line of identical antennas with hemispherical radiation pattern, spaced by half a wavelength
- In the far field, all signals overlap and add together
 - From overhead all wavefronts add in phase, but from the side, everything cancels
- Directivity (gain) increases with the number of elements



Destructive interference (adding out of phase)



How do we steer a phased array?

- We can steer the beam away from vertical by applying a phase gradient across the elements before addition
 - We get the same directivity increase, in a different direction
- In this case we only need to adjust phases, but it's possible to apply scale factors too



Image: From Phased Array Antenna Patterns - Part 1: Linear Array Beam Characteristics and Array Factor by Peter Delos, Bob Broughton, and Jon Kraft



Beam forming vs interferometry

- With an aperture array, each element has a direct view of the sky
 - The combined beam is defined by the element beam, number of antennas and their physical spacing
- Phased array beam formation involves a weighted sum of the elements
 - With unity weight, this will increase gain along the optical axis
 - Non-unity weights can be applied to steer and shape the beam
- Interferometry increases spatial resolution by correlating inputs
 - Correlation is essentially multiplication, with suitable delay tracking
 - Correlation allows a telescope to image the region within its primary beam
- Both beam formation and correlation are frequency-dependent



Beam forming in radio astronomy

- A beam former additively combines receiver elements (while applying complex weights or delays) to produce a new output
 - This can be done in hardware e.g. cables with different lengths to introduce delays on the way to a signal combiner
 - Or digitally by computing a numerical weighted sum post-digitisation
- Beam forming is done *before* correlation
 - Must occur without loss of information and maintain phase coherence
 - Correlation can later be done across beams that point in the same direction







Aperture arrays past and future

- Phased arrays were used at the very beginning of radio astronomy
- Jansky's famous "merry go round" is an example of a dipole array and was used to discover radio emission from the Milky Way
- SKA low will be an aperture array consisting of tiles
 - Several beams are formed using the elements within a tile
 - Beams from different tiles that point in the same direction are correlated

Image: Artist's impression of SKA-low; SKAO



Using a phased array as a dish feed

- The same hardware can fill two roles with different beam weights
 - Illumination of the dish is determined by the beam weights used



The ASKAP chequerboard PAF

- 2D (dual polarisation) array of "bow tie" dipoles on a square grid
- Elements are spaced by 90 mm across roughly 1 m diameter



- Broad frequency coverage, from 700 MHz to 1800 MHz
- Complete sampling of the wavefront in the focal plane
- 188 elements, fed from the corners of the diamonds



Forming beams

- Amplifiers are connected to the inside corners of each dipole pair
- A single conductive patch contributes to several elements
- The signal from each element is digitally sampled and sliced into frequency channels
- Samples from each element are multiplied by their own complex weight
- Weighted voltages are summed to a single number per time sample and frequency channel



Dual orthogonal polarisations

- Polarisation is determined by the orientation of the pair that combines to form an element
- ASKAP PAF elements are linearly polarised
 - Half of the 188 elements are aligned in X, the other half in Y (94 each)
- Beams are formed exclusively from similarly-oriented elements
 - Physical orthogonality is very good by construction
 - In theory it is possible to optimise further using cross-polarisation elements in the beam solutions, with suitable constraints





Multiple simultaneous beams

- We receive ample photons at radio wavelengths
 - Many copies of element signals can be made without loss of quality
- Each set of copies can be combined using different beam weights
 - We can steer several beams in different directions simultaneously!
- PAF beams can be closely packed on the sky
 - Once beams start to overlap, they exhibit correlated noise due to contributions from the same physical elements



Off-axis feeds and the focal plane

- A parabolic reflector will focus plane waves incident along the optical axis to a unique point
- At small angles offset from the optical axis there is still a strong focussing effect, though with some coma distortion
- Off-axis beams are viable, within a decreasing sensitivity envelope
- We can consider the antenna to have a focal plane





Tracking with offset beams

- Alt-Az telescope drives can track a sky position, but not with constant orientation
 - When using on-axis beams, this causes the field to rotate as the antenna tracks
 - When using off-axis beams, it causes the field centre to move!
- ASKAP has a third driving axis that spins the reflector to keep offset beams fixed on the sky





An element-level perspective

- Each PAF element has its own view of the sky via the dish
 - Off-axis elements all see slightly different parts of the sky
- Any composite beam is a linear combination of single element beams
- Element beams are primarily governed by the dish
 - They have a lot of spill-over!



Nuances of beam forming

- PAFs typically use an adaptive beam forming approach
 - Beams are formed in response to measured parameters
- Each element's amplifier has its own complex gain
 - In particular, the phase of each amplifier is independent (though fixed)
 - This means that beam weights are unique to an individual PAF
- Each element emits thermal radiation that is received by its neighbours
 - Adjacent elements do not receive completely independent signals
- Beam forming algorithms can be constrained in many ways, but for ASKAP we use a simple method that optimises sensitivity



Generalised beam forming

• We can express beam forming as a mathematical operation:



Maximum sensitivity beam forming

• Applebaum (1976) derived a simple expression for the weights that maximise sensitivity to an unresolved source:

 $\mathbf{w}_k = \mathbf{R}_n^{-1} \hat{\mathbf{v}}_k$

Noise covariance matrix for the *n* elements

Steering vector (response of individual elements to a point source in the direction of beam *k*)



Noise covariance

- The beam former can compute the Array Covariance Matrix
 - ACM = the correlation of each element with every other element
- There is always some correlation between nearby ports (even between different polarisations)
- The ACM's structure is mostly determined by the PAF's physical geometry



Steering vectors

- Can be measured using single-dish ACM observations
- Recording ACMs while pointed at a strong source yields: $\widehat{\mathbf{R}}_{s+n}$
- The required steering vector is the Eigenvector of the difference corresponding to the dominant eigenvalue λ (see Landon et al. 2010):

$$[\widehat{\mathbf{R}}_{s+n} - \widehat{\mathbf{R}}_n]\mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v}$$

- With an interferometer, we can also measure the steering vector directly by pointing a reference antenna at a strong source
 - This requires sending signals from individual elements to the correlator



Signal covariance

- The quality of the weights is determined by the strength of the reference source relative to the noise matrix
 - In practical terms, we need a very strong source to form beams with ASKAP's 12m dish antennas



Beam weight amplitudes trace out the Airy disk in the focal plane!





Beam forming and frequency dependence

- Antenna optics are naturally frequency-dependent
 - The diffraction properties of a fixed-size aperture depend on wavelength
- Beam forming for ASKAP is done independently on 1 MHz intervals
 - There can be phase and amplitude discontinuities at the interval boundaries
- Calibration should remove these features, but residuals can remain if the bandpass changes slightly
 - We offer wide-interval beam former modes to reduce the chance of a spectral line falling on a boundary



PAF antenna illumination

- A feed horn uses roughly 60% of the dish surface area
 - The illumination pattern of a horn is fixed by its design, but the illumination pattern of a PAF is determined by beam weights
- The maximum sensitivity algorithm tends to favour increased efficiency (~75%) at the cost of higher side-lobes
- The PAF and its supports present a significant aperture blockage
 - 4-fold symmetry can be seen in beam shapes as a result
- Beam weight solutions should be reproducible, but variations can occur
- Optimising for sensitivity leaves other parameters free
 - Side-lobe level, symmetry, etc.











Holography for primary beam mapping

- When new beams are formed, we need to directly measure their shape to ensure accurate primary beam correction
 - This includes all polarisation products for off-axis leakage correction
- A dedicated holography observing mode is used to map beams
 - Point one reference antenna at an astronomical source
 - The others observe a grid of closely spaces positions covering the field of view
 - Extract only the visibilities from the reference antenna to each test antenna
 - Grid and interpolate to obtain the beam map as a function of angular distance



Example beam shapes from holography

- Offset beams are elongated due to coma distortion
- Side lobes have asymmetric structure and high level
- Beam positions can vary from one antenna to the next
 - Beam pointing will absorb fixed mechanical pointing offsets





The lifetime of beam weights

- If nothing changes, a weight solution should last forever
- However, many things can change over time
 - Slow gain drifts due to temperature variation and hardware aging
 - Abrupt changes due to digital delay jumps upon hardware reset
 - Dramatic changes like LNA failure due to lightning strikes
- New beam solutions for ASKAP are derived every few months
- These solutions are also updated before every observation
 - Updates can be done much more quickly than a full solution



On-dish calibration

- The ODC system provides a reference against which we can measure element gain changes
 - Low-power broad-band noise that uniformly illuminates the PAF
- This reference can't determine what the weights should be (since it's in the near field), but it can tell us what has changed





Designing beam footprints for surveys

- Up to 36 beams can be placed anywhere within ASKAP's field of view
- For practical reasons, regularly spaced packing schemes are used
 - Square (larger field of view)
 - Closepack (more uniform sensitivity)
- Adjacent footprints should tesselate neatly



Tiling multiple fields for surveys

- Rectangular footprints stack horizontally and vertically
- We slice the sky into rings of constant declination
- Towards the poles, footprint corners overlap more and more
 - At high latitudes we use a polar cap to maintain survey efficiency
- Roughly 1000-2000 tiles are needed to cover the observable sky (depending on frequency and beam spacing)



Image: Survey tiling; David McConnell, ASKAP observation guide



Future possibilities

- Digital beam forming provides great flexibility (and complexity)
- It may be possible to exert more control over beam properties
 - Additional constraints should be well matched to calibration requirements
 - There would likely be a trade-off with raw sensitivity
- Adaptive nulling could improve interference mitigation
 - Place beam nulls on known sources of RFI (satellites, the Sun, etc.)
 - Requires updating beam weights during an observation



In conclusion

- Phased arrays increase gain using a weighted sum of their elements
- We can feed a dish antenna using a phased array in the focal plane
 - The Airy disk of the dish is imprinted on the feed elements
- Phased array feeds allow control of beam properties, at the cost of complexity in processing and potentially calibration
 - More processing required to form beams and then correlate them
 - Beam weight maintenance and beam shape measurement
- ASKAP's large field of view is made possible by forming 36 simultaneous beams packed regularly into a rectangular area

