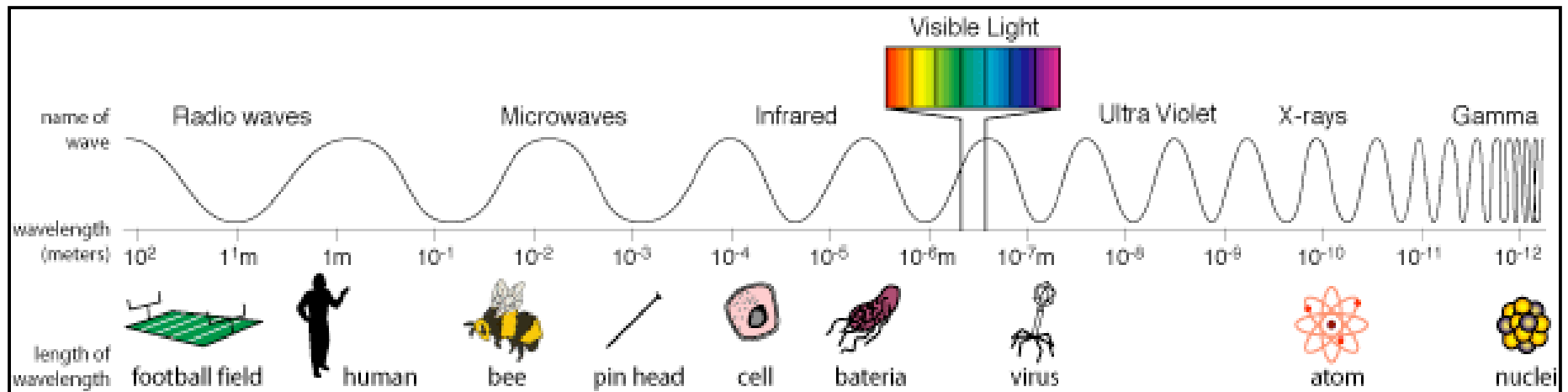


# Introduction to Radio Astronomy

- Sources of radio emission
- Why radio astronomy is different from optical astronomy
- Radio telescopes - collecting the radiation
- Processing the radio signal
- Radio telescope characteristics
- Radio spectra characteristics
- Observing radio sources

# Sources of Radio Emission

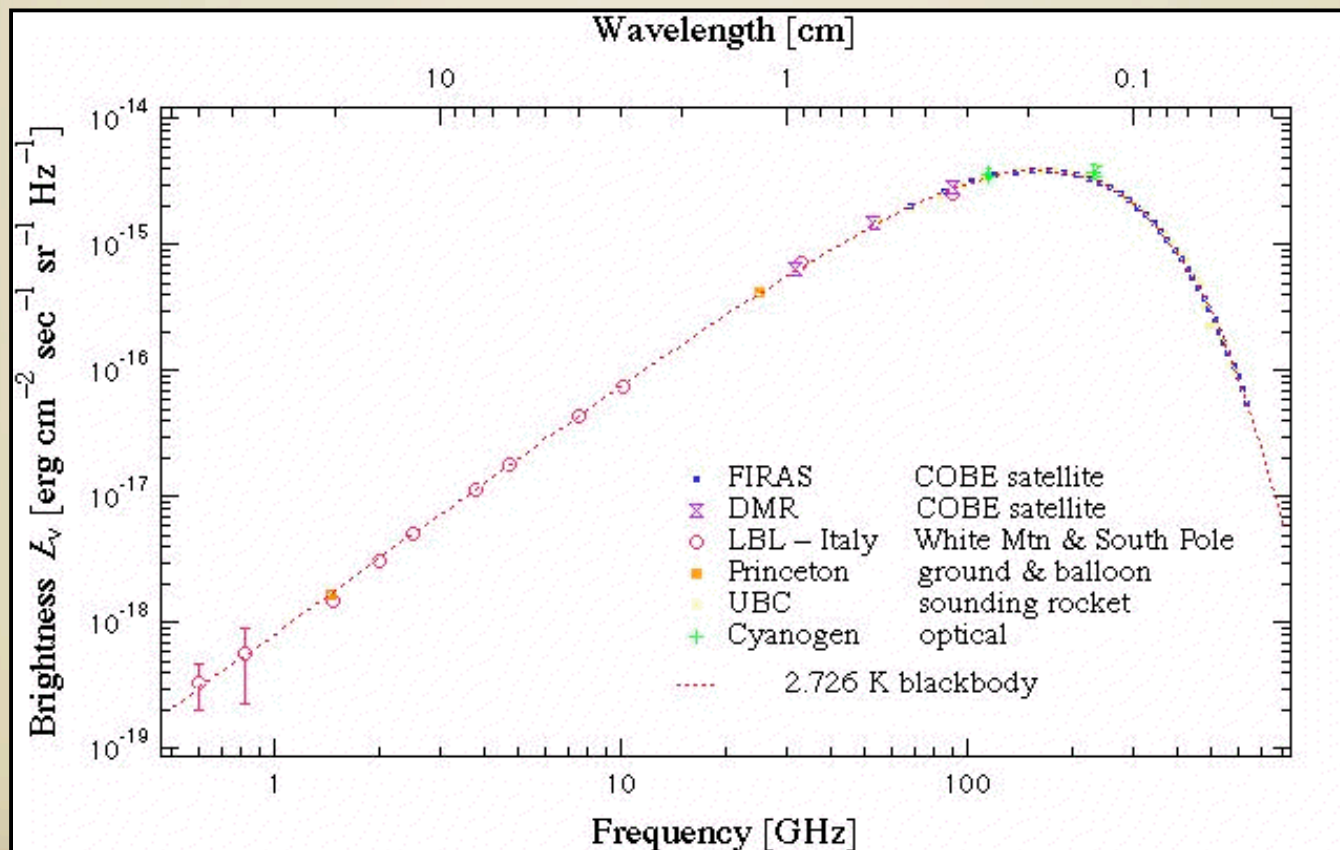
- Blackbody (thermal)
- Continuum sources (non-thermal)
- Spectral line sources



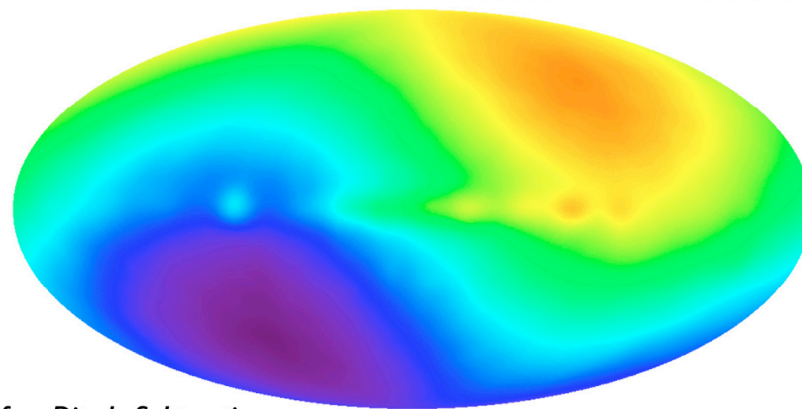
# Blackbody Sources:

The cosmic microwave background, the planets

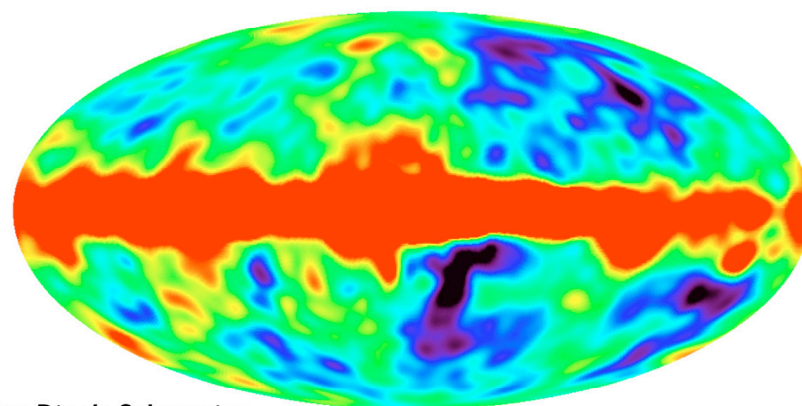
- Obs in cm requires low temperature:  $\lambda_m T = 0.2898 \text{ cm K}$
- Flux = const  $\times \nu^\alpha \times T$
- For thermal sources  $\alpha$  is  $\sim 2$  (flatter for less opaque sources)



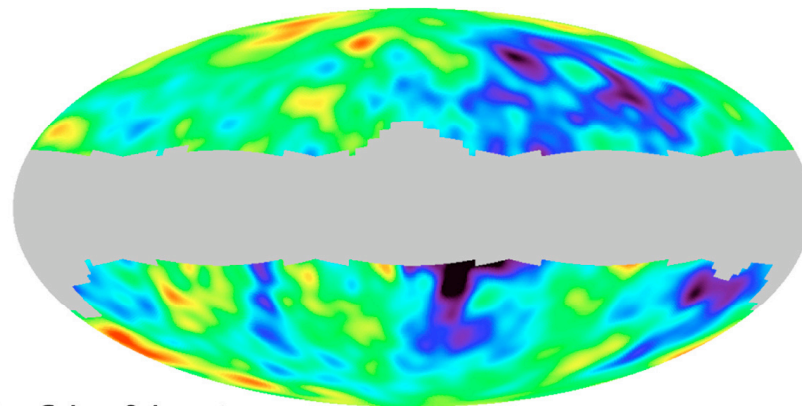
## DMR 53 GHz Maps



*Before Dipole Subtraction*



*After Dipole Subtraction*



*After Galaxy Subtraction*

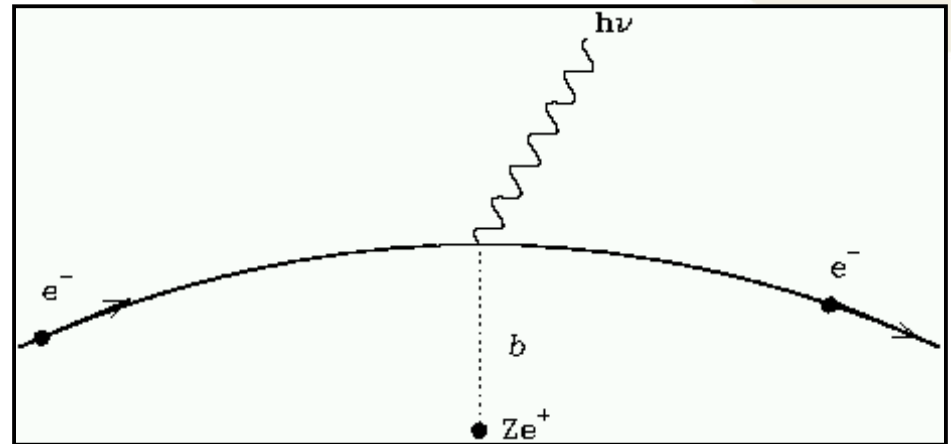


# Continuum (non-thermal) Emission:

Emission at all radio wavelengths

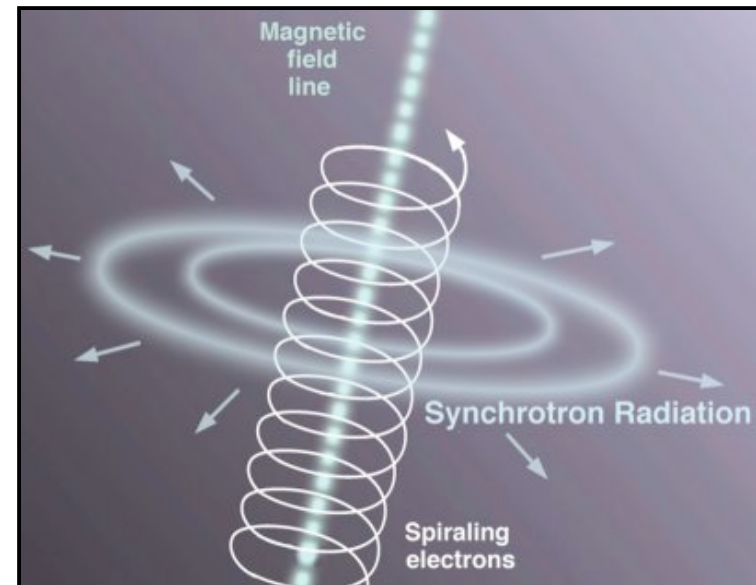
Bremsstrahlung (free-free):

Electron is accelerated as it passes a charged particle thereby emitting a photon

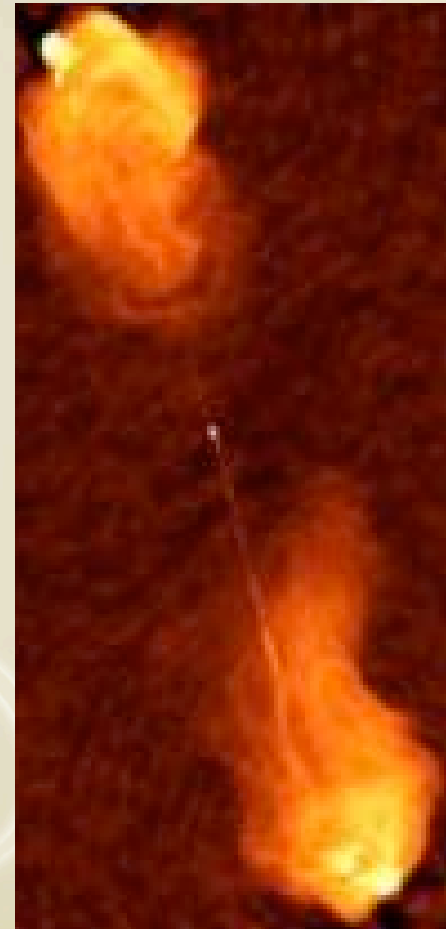


Synchrotron:

A charged particle moving in a magnetic field experiences acceleration and emits a photon



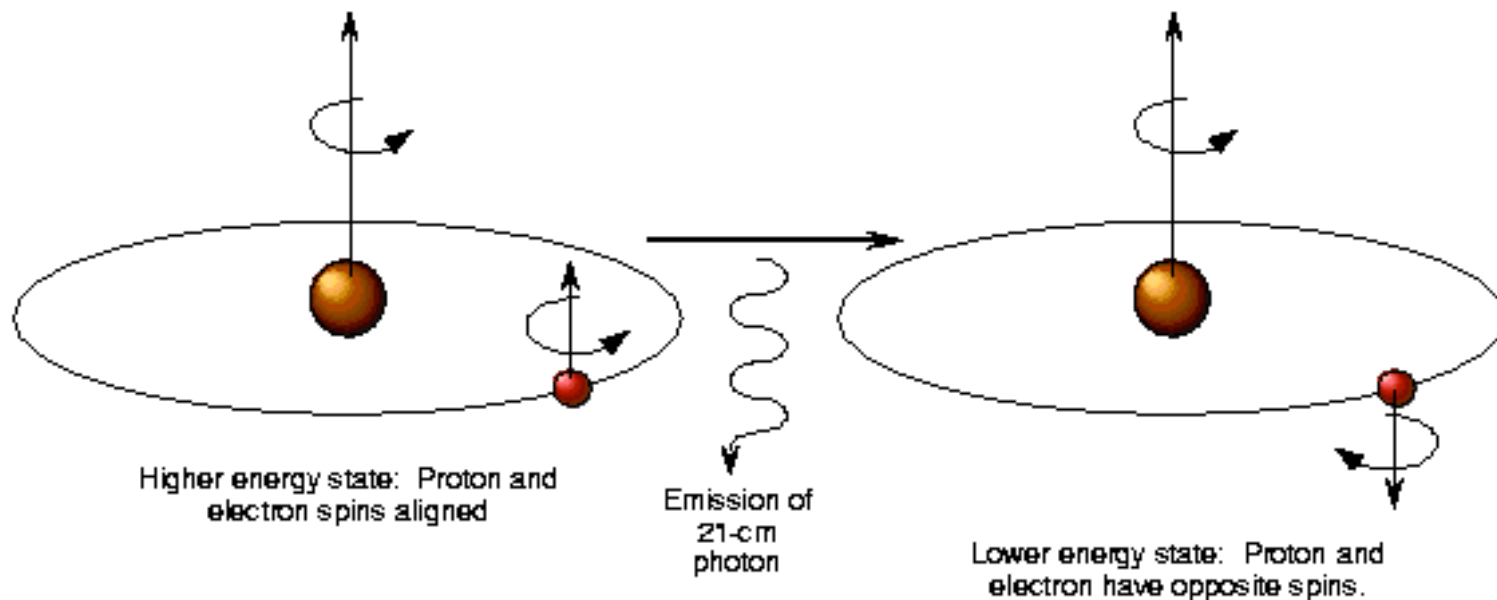
# Sources of Continuum Emission



# Radio Emission Lines

- Neutral hydrogen (HI) spin-flip transition
- Recombination lines (between high-lying atomic states)
- Molecular lines (CO, OH, etc.)

Formation of the 21-cm Line of Neutral Hydrogen

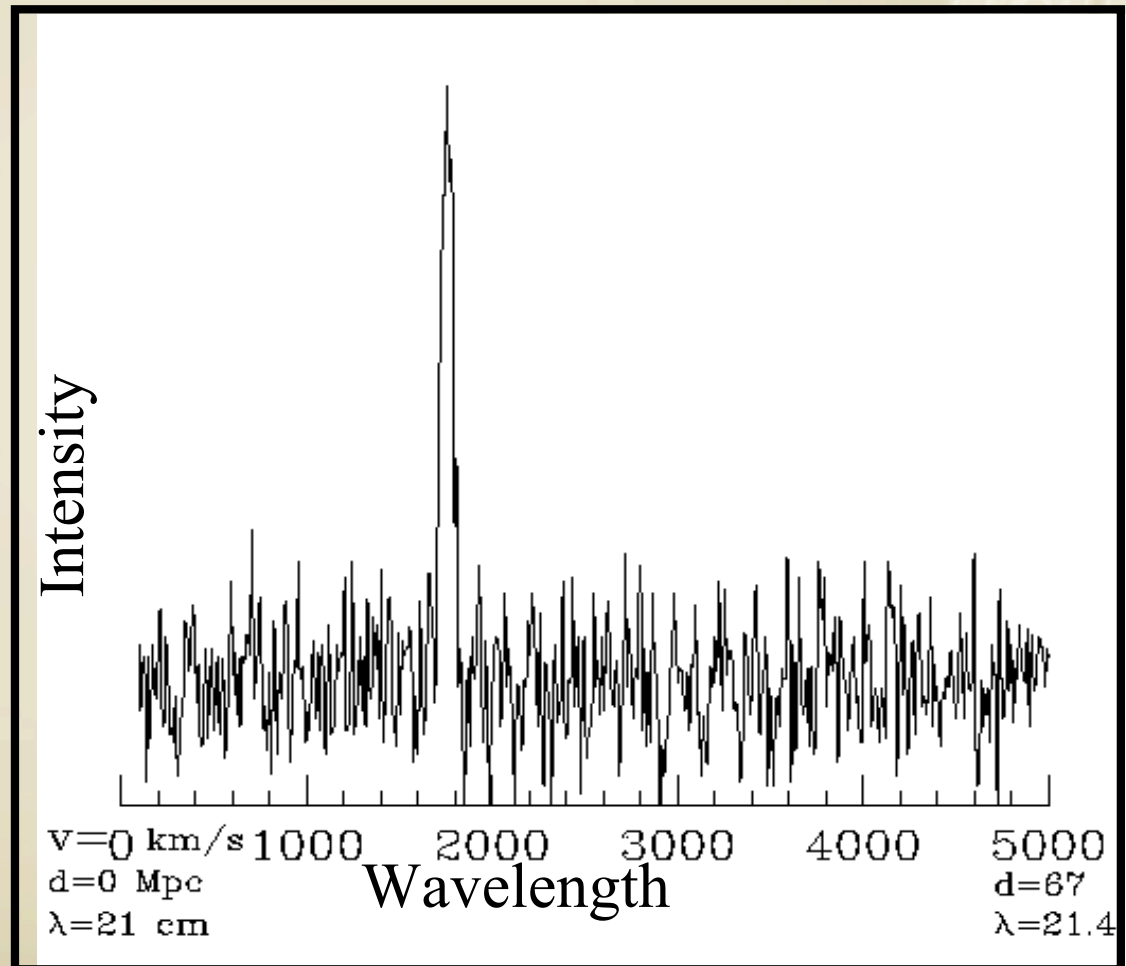


# 21 cm Line of Neutral Hydrogen

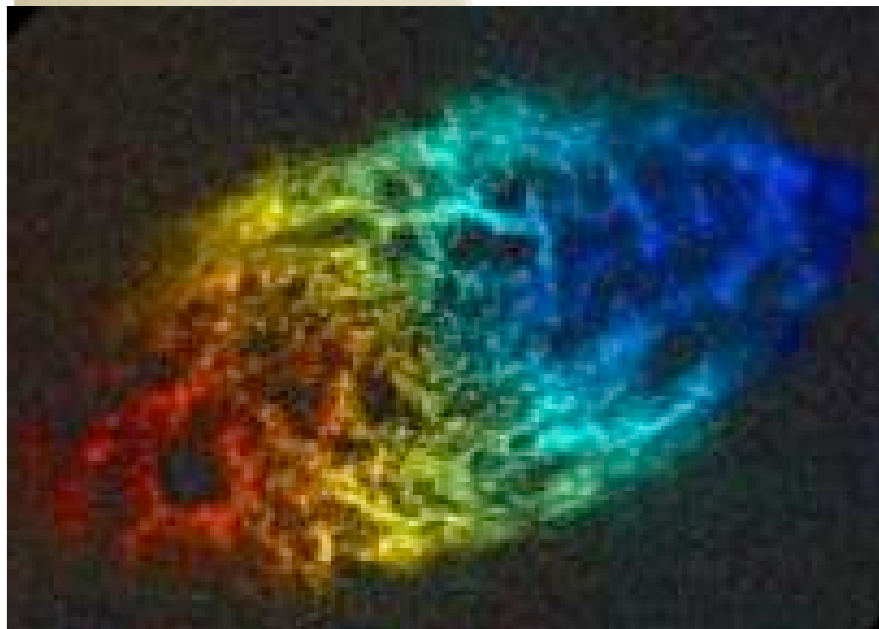
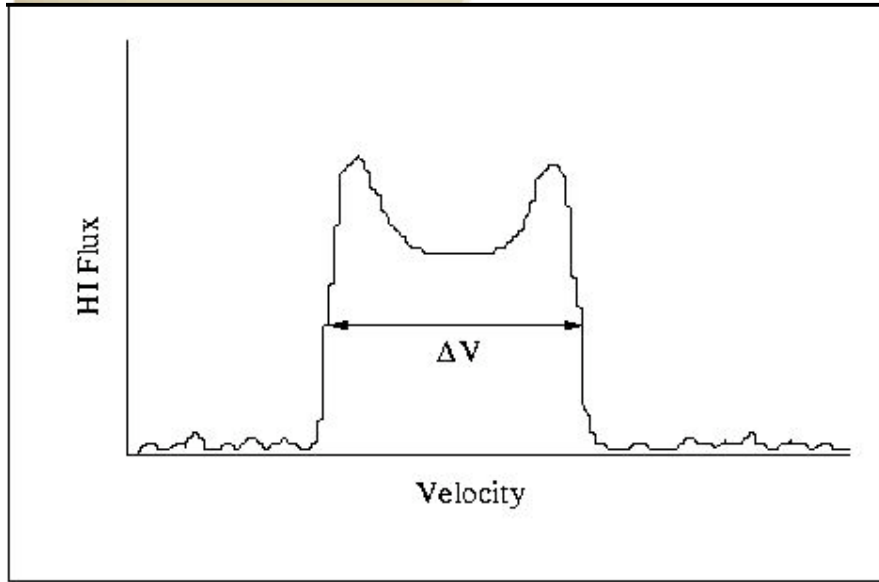
Not only are  $\lambda$ ,  $\nu$ , and  $E$  equivalent, but for the most part velocity and distance are as well.

$$z = \frac{\lambda - \lambda_0}{\lambda_0} = \frac{\Delta\nu}{c}$$

$$d = v / H_0$$



# 21cm Line of Neutral Hydrogen, cont.



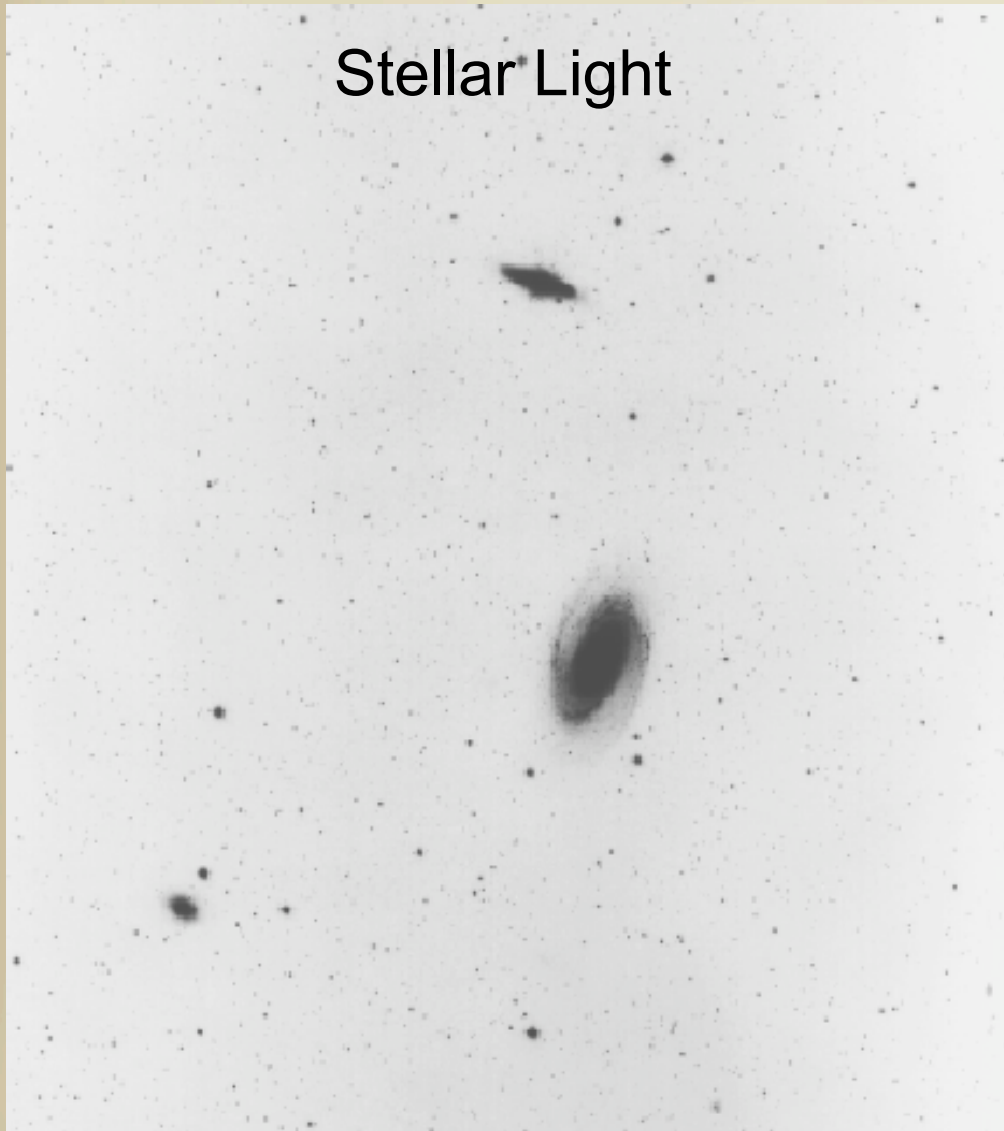
- HI spectral line from galaxy
- Shifted by expansion of universe (“recession velocity”)
- Broadened by rotation



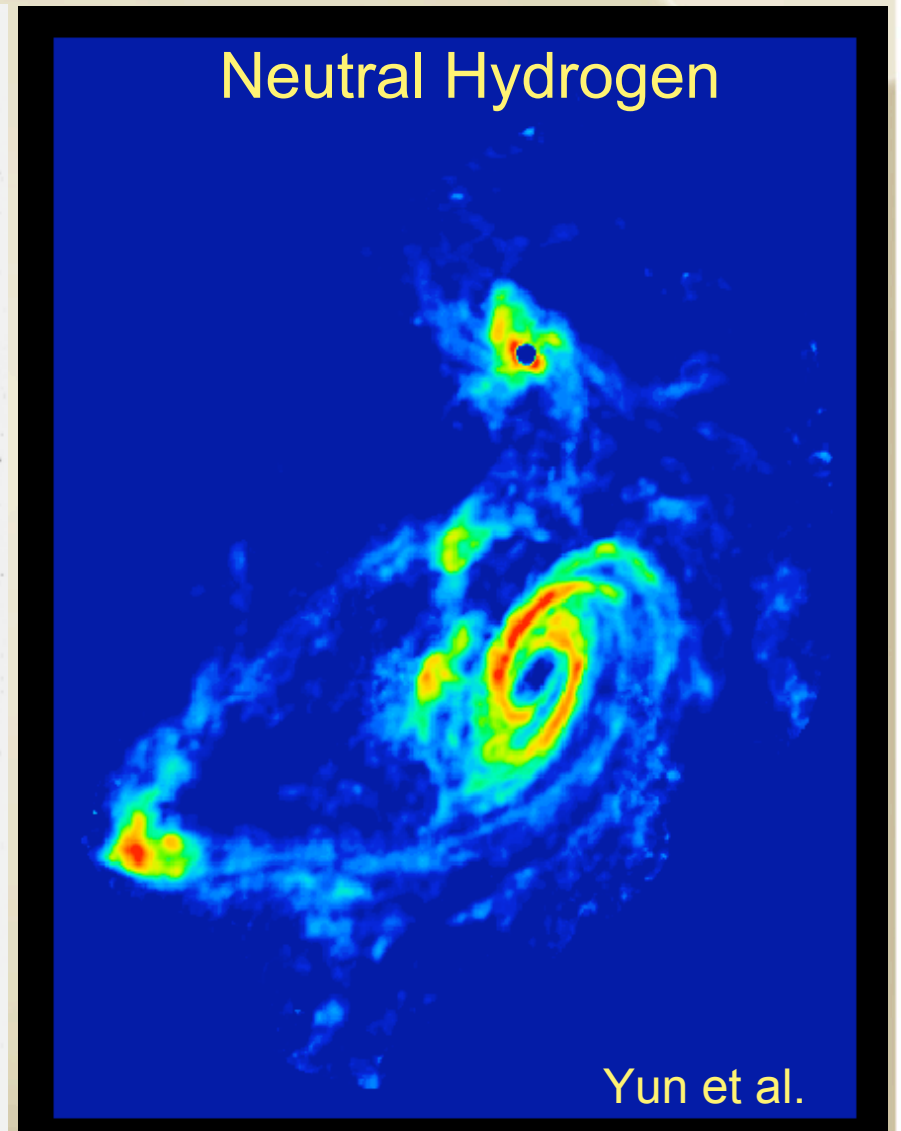
# 21 cm Line Emission:

The M81 Group

Stellar Light



Neutral Hydrogen



Yun et al.



# Radio vs Optical Astronomy

- Primary difference is, well, wavelength

$$\lambda_{\text{radio}}/\lambda_{\text{optical}} \sim 10^5 - 10^6$$
$$\lambda_{21\text{cm}}/\lambda_{5500\text{\AA}} = 3.8 \times 10^5$$

- This ratio of wavelengths also effects the resolution. The 305m Arecibo telescope is equivalent to a .8mm optical telescope!:

$$\vartheta = \lambda/D$$

$$D_{21\text{cm}}/D_{5500\text{\AA}} = \lambda_{21\text{cm}}/\lambda_{5500\text{\AA}}$$

# Radio vs Optical Astronomy

- This difference in resolution means radio telescopes are diffraction limited
- The resolution is a function of aperture (telescope size) not seeing
- Resolution given by:

$$\vartheta = 1.22(\lambda/D)$$

$$\vartheta_{21 \text{ cm, Arecibo}} \sim 2.9'$$

- Radio telescope arrays allow for high res. observations not possible with a single dish

# Radio Signal Detection

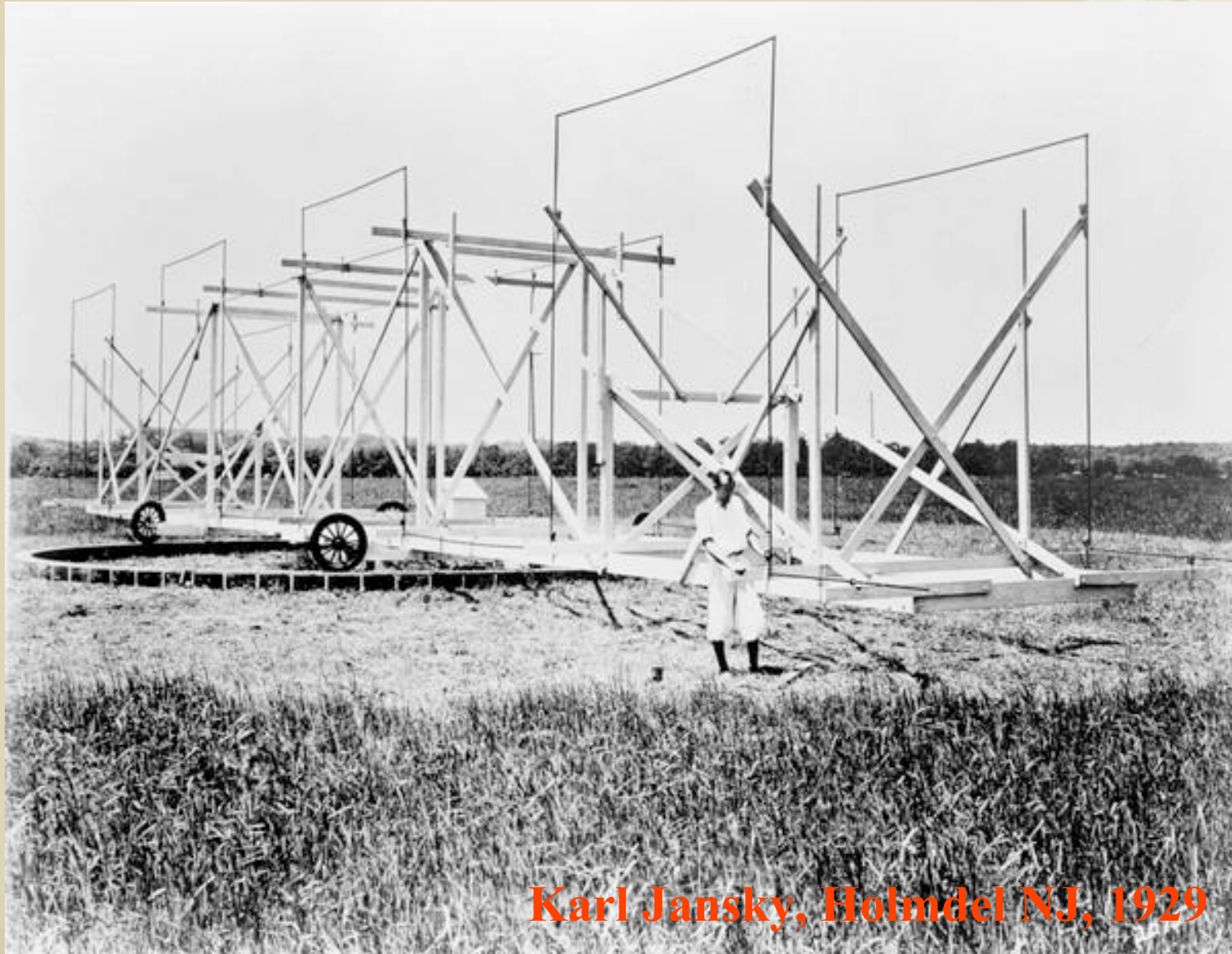
- Signal detected as a wave rather than a photon in contrast with optical
  - The receivers (detectors) are on order the size of incoming waves
- Wave detection preserves phase information:

$$V=V_0\sin(\omega t-\phi)$$

$V_0$  is amplitude,  $\phi$  is the phase

- Phase info. makes interferometry easy

# Radio Telescopes

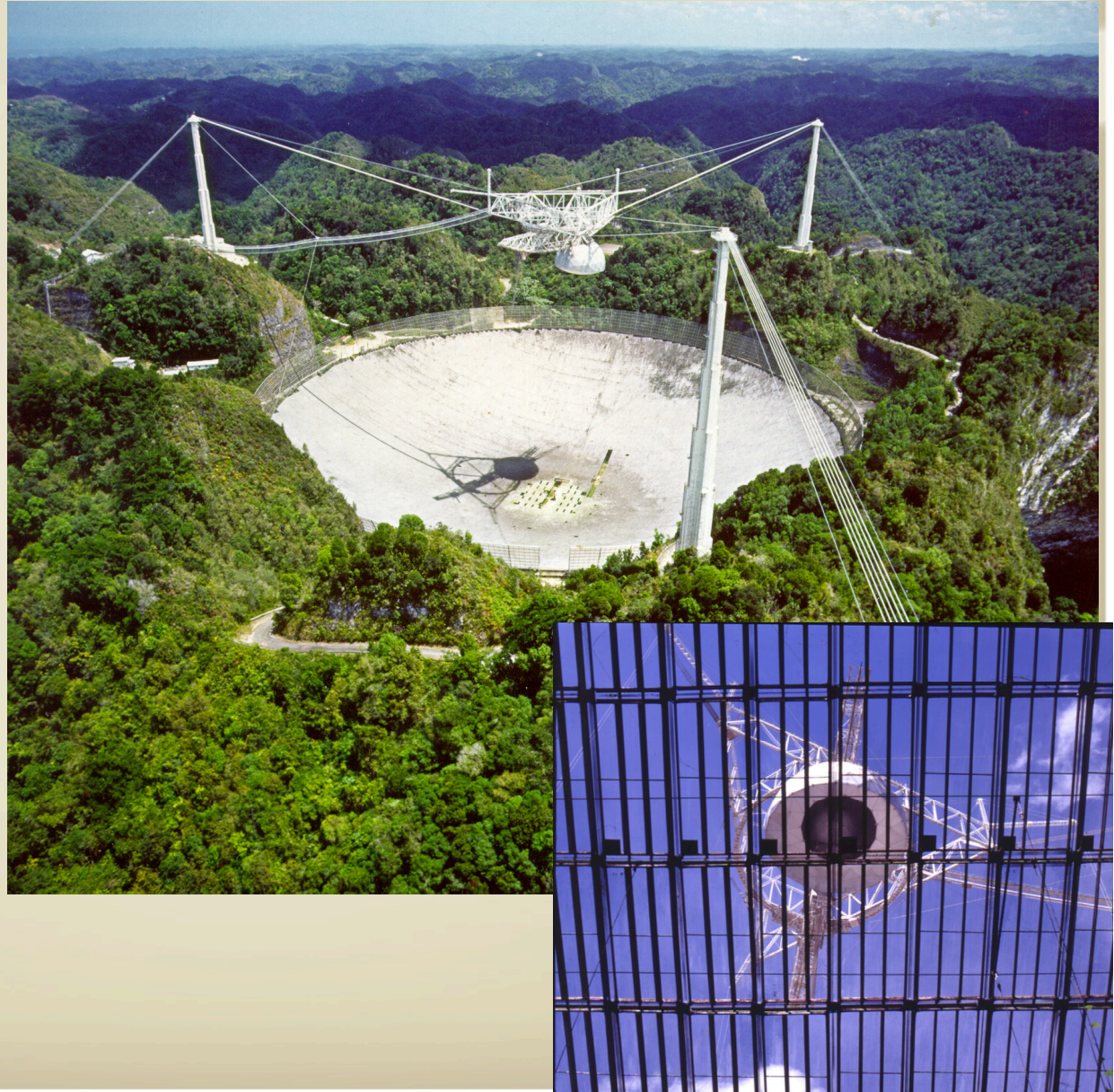


**Karl Jansky, Holmdel NJ, 1929**



# Radio Telescope Components

- Reflector(s)
- Feed horn(s)
- Low-noise amplifier
- Filter
- Downconverter
- IF Amplifier
- Spectrometer





# Feedhorn

Hardware that takes the signal from the antenna to the electronics

Array of 7 feedhorns on the  
Arecibo telescope - ALFA

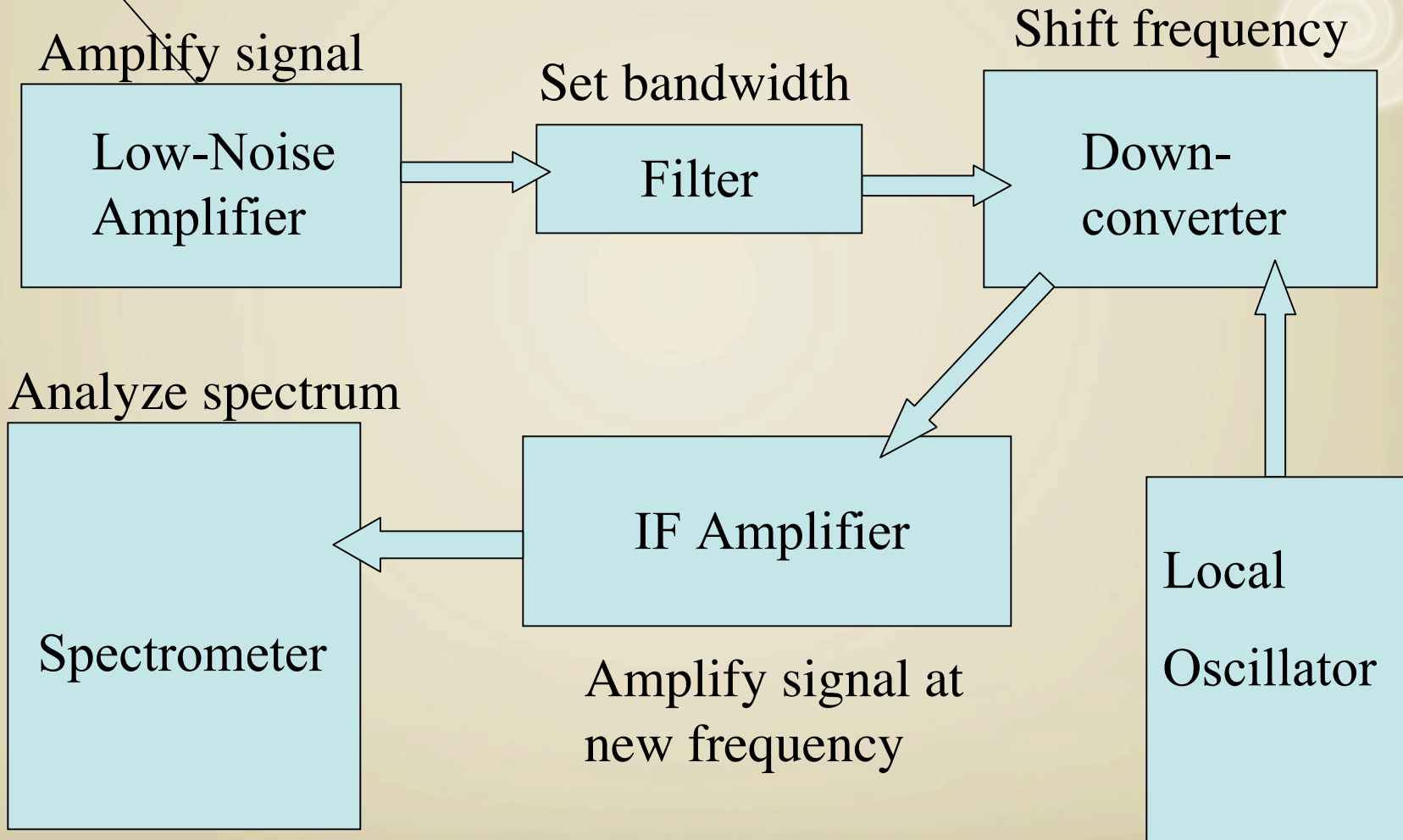


Typical cm-wave feedhorn

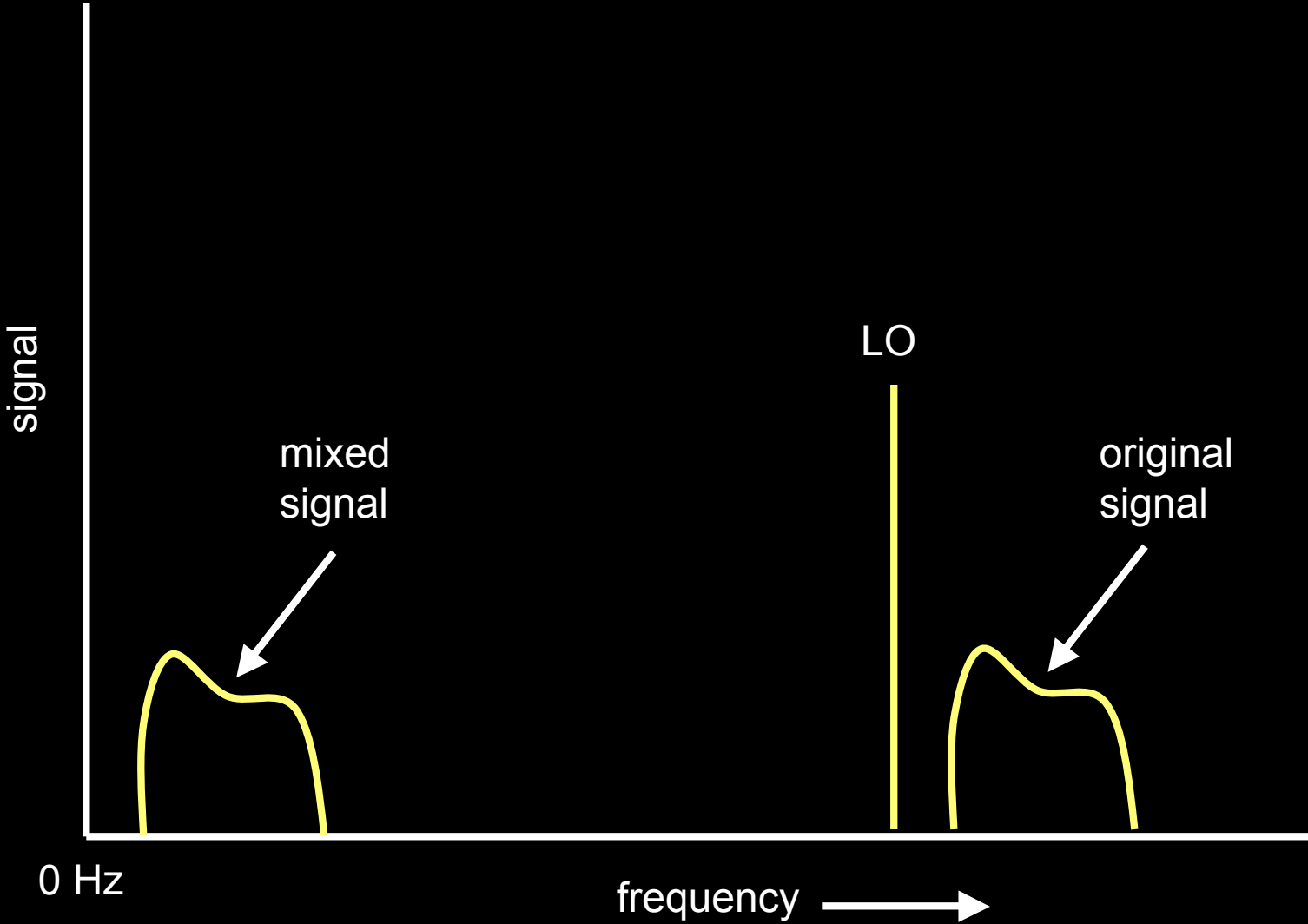




# Signal Path



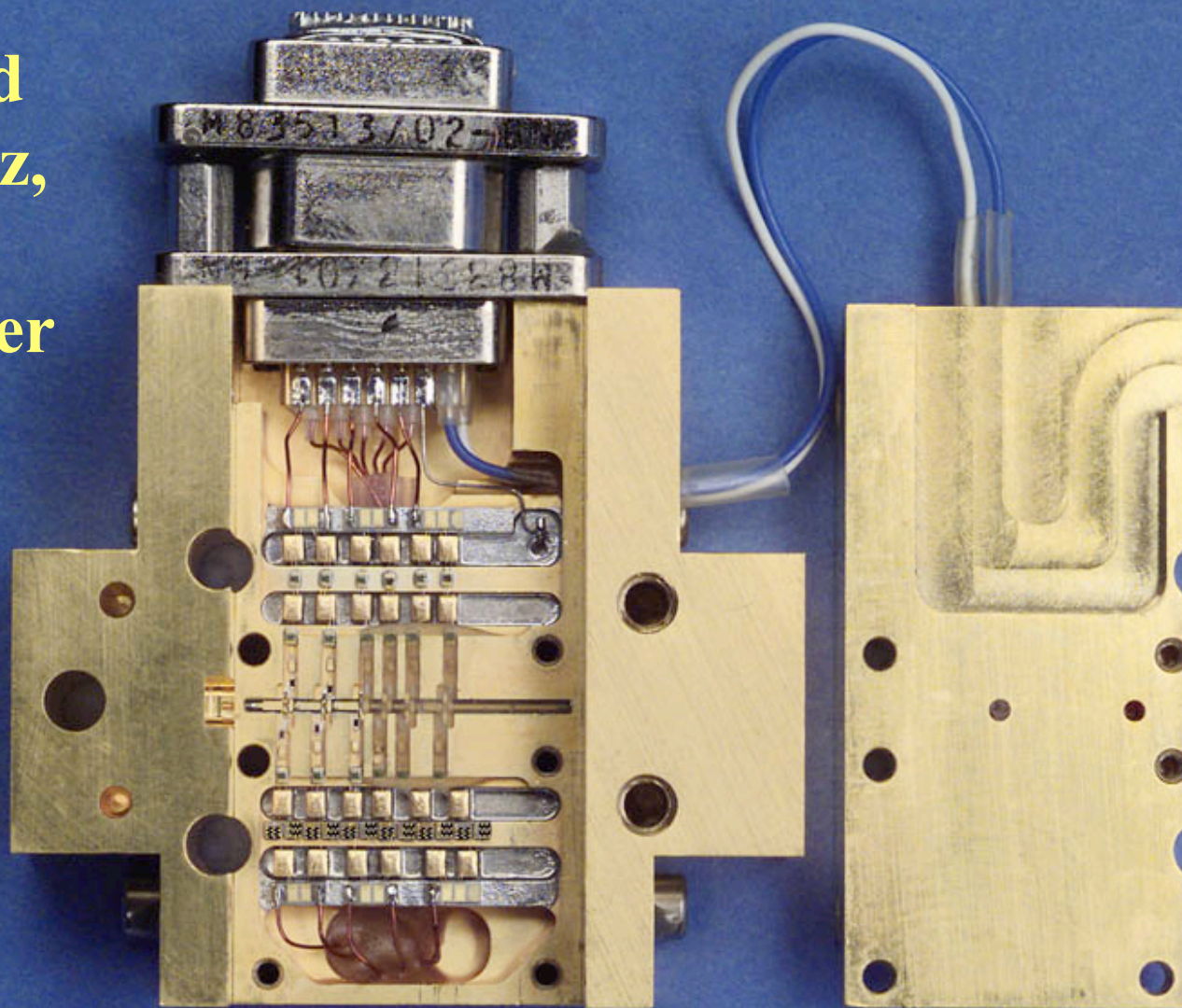
# Mixers



# The Signal Path

- Strong amplification and stable receivers are required since the signal is much smaller than the thermal receiver noise.
- Switching techniques are often employed to monitor and correct for variations in amplifier gain
  - switching between sky and a reference source
  - between object and ostensibly empty sky
  - in frequency between a frequency of interest and a neighboring passband.
- Downconversion of the signal is necessary because smaller frequencies are much more convenient for the electronics

W-band  
(94 GHz,  
4 mm)  
amplifier

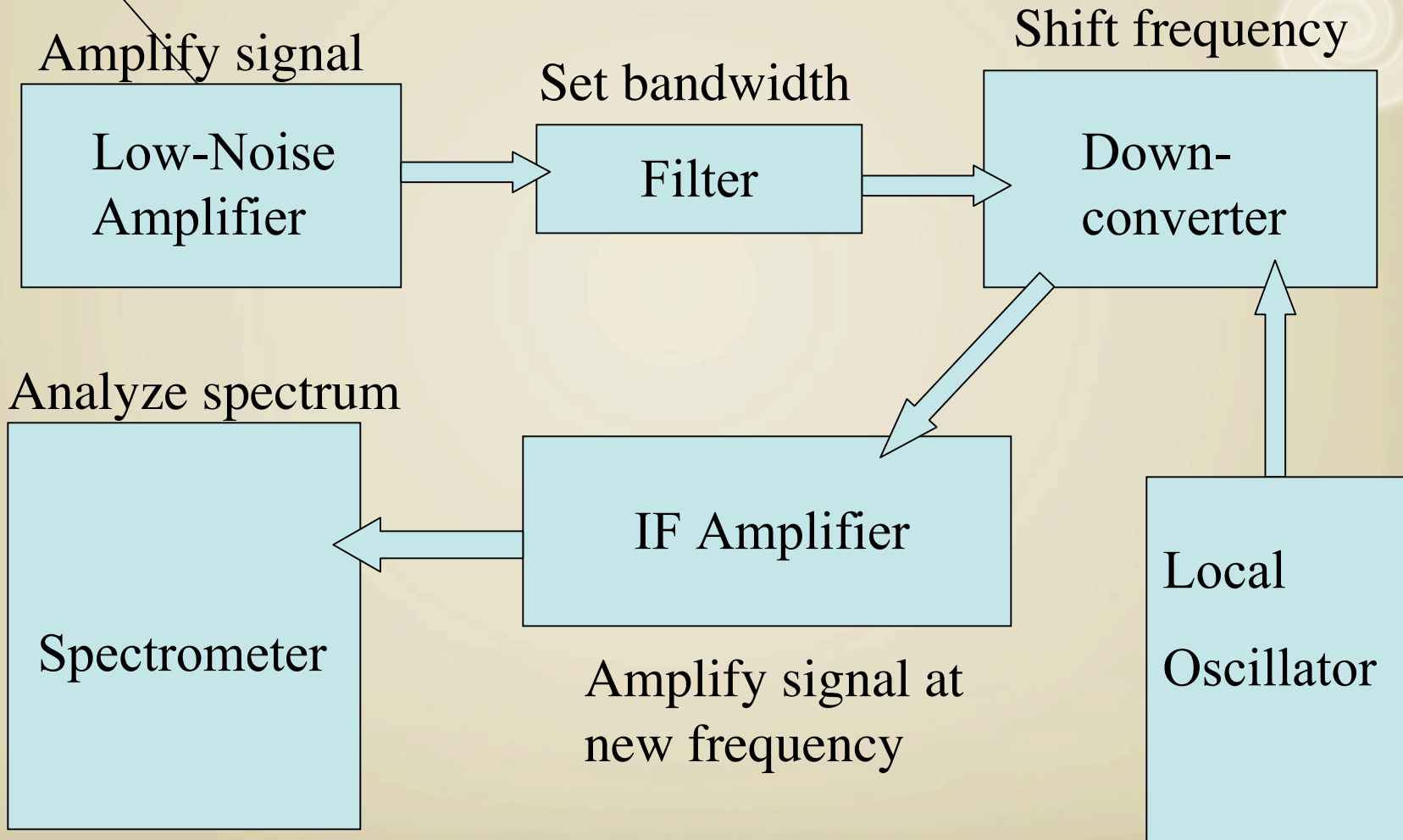


W-20

25 mm



# Signal Path



# Autocorrelation Spectrometer

Or how we actually make sense out of the signal

- Measures the fourier transform of the power spectrum
- Special-purpose hardware computes the correlation of the signal with itself:

$$R_n = N^{-1} \sum_1^N [v(t_j)v(t_j+n\delta t)]$$

where  $\delta t$  is *lag* and  $v$  is signal voltage; integer  $n$  ranges from 0 to  $(\delta t \delta f)^{-1}$  if frequency channels of width  $\delta f$  are required

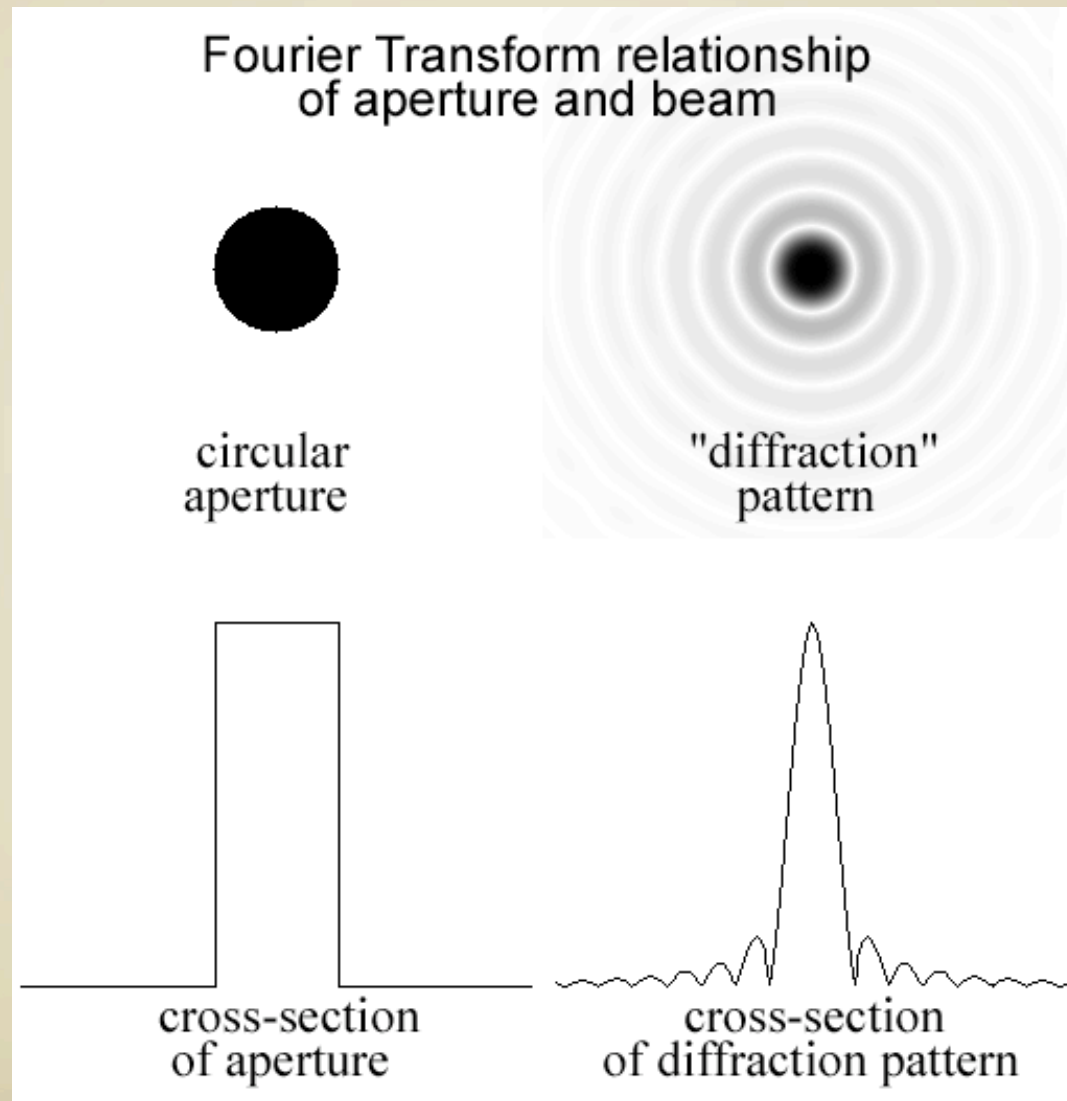
- Power spectrum is discrete Fourier transform (FFT) of  $R_n$



# Spectral Resolution

- The spectral resolution in a radio telescope can be limited by several issues:
  - integration time (signal-to-noise)
  - filter bank resolution (if you're using a filter bank to generate a power spectrum in hardware)

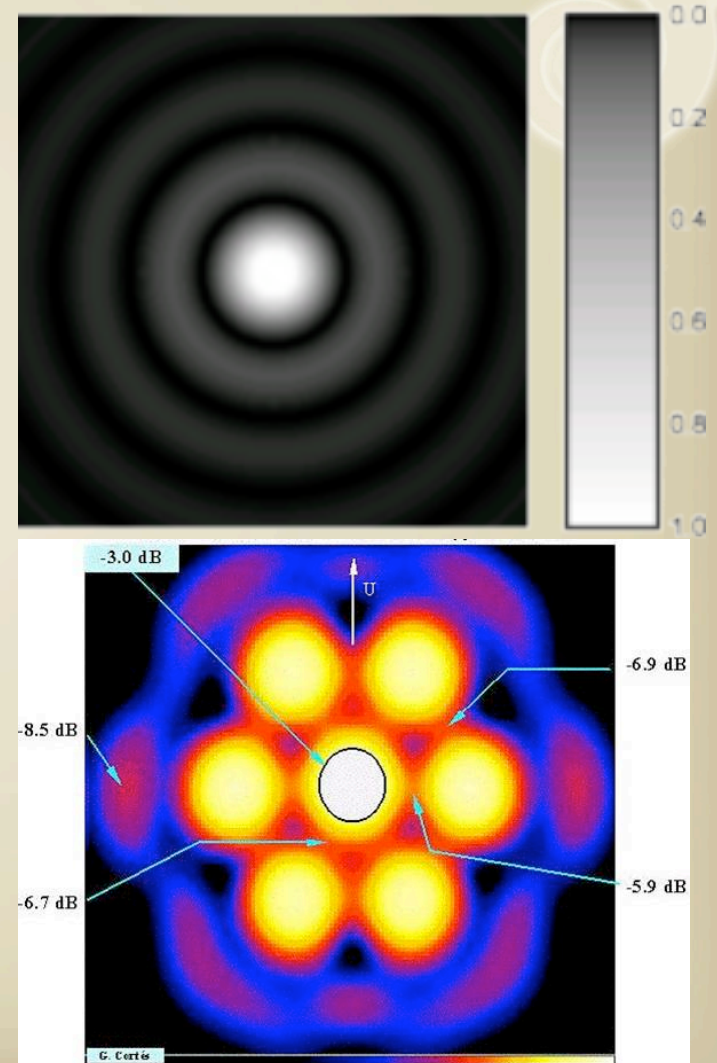
# Fourier Transforms and Beam Patterns



# Radio Telescope Characteristics

## beam and sidelobes

- Diffraction pattern of telescope  
 $\sin\theta = 1.22 (\lambda/D)$
- Diffraction pattern indicates sensitivity to sources on the sky
- Uniformly illuminated circular aperture: central beam & sidelobe rings
- FWHM of central beam is called the *beamwidth*
- Note that you are sensitive to sources away from beam center



# Radio Telescope Characteristics

## power and gain

- The power collected by an antenna is approximately:

$$P = S \times A \times \Delta\nu$$

$S$  = flux at Earth,  $A$  = antenna area,  $\Delta\nu$  = frequency interval or bandwidth of measured radiation

- The gain of an antenna is given by:

$$G = 4\pi A / \lambda^2$$

- Aperture efficiency is the ratio of the effective collecting area to the actual collecting area

# Radio Telescope Characteristics

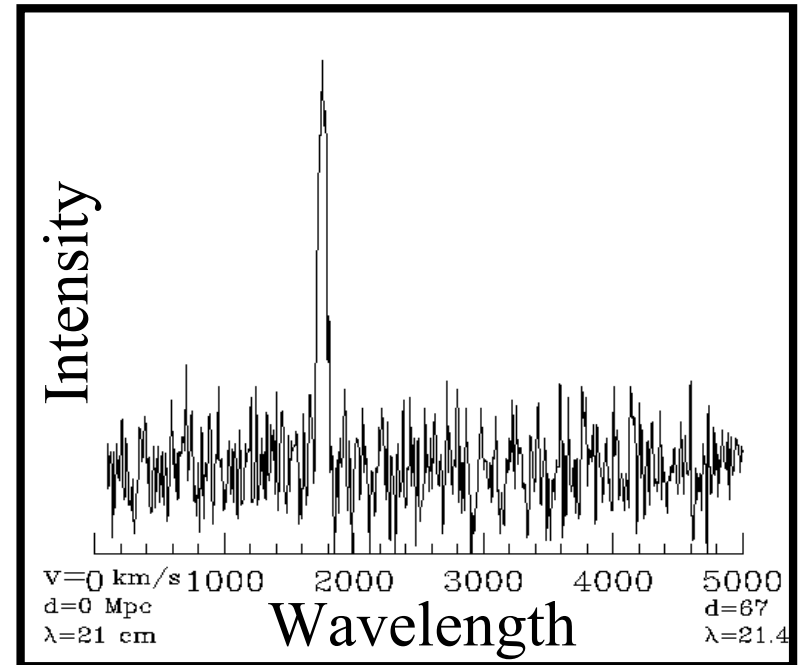
## sensitivity

- **Sensitivity** is a measure of the relationship between the signal and the noise
- **Signal:** the power detected by the telescope
- **Noise:** mostly thermal from electronics but also ground radiation entering feedhorn and the cosmic microwave background. Poisson noise is ALWAYS important. Interference is also a HUGE problem (radar, GPS, etc.)

# Radiometer Equation

$$T_{rms} = \alpha T_{sys} / \sqrt{\Delta\nu t}$$

- $T_{rms}$  = rms noise in observation
- $\alpha \sim (2)^{1/2}$  because half of the time is spent off the source
  - off-source = position switch
  - off-frequency = frequency switch
- $T_{sys}$  = System temperature
- $\Delta\nu$  = bandwidth, i.e., frequency range observed
- $t$  = integration time





# Radio Telescope Characteristics

## semantics

- **Preferred unit of flux density:** (requires calibration) is Jansky:

$$1\text{Jy} = 10^{-26} \text{ W m}^{-2} \text{ Hz}^{-1}$$

- **Brightness:** Flux density per unit solid angle. Brightness of sources are often given in temperature units

# Radio Telescope Characteristics

## Temperatures

In radio astronomy power is often measured in temperature - the equivalent temperature of a blackbody producing the same power

- **System temperature:** temperature of blackbody producing same power as telescope + instrumentation without a source
- **Brightness temperature:** Flux density per unit solid angle of a source measured in units of equivalent blackbody temperature
- **Antenna temperature:** The flux density transferred to the receiver by the antenna. Some of the incoming power is lost, represented by the aperture efficiency

# Radio Telescope Characteristics

## polarization

- H I sources are un-polarized
- Synchrotron sources are often polarized –  $\mathbf{E}$ -field in plane of electron's acceleration
- Noise sources (man-made interference) are often polarized
- Each receiver can respond to one polarization – one component of linear or one handedness of circular polarization
- Usually there are multiple receivers to observe both polarization components simultaneously

# Parameterization of Polarization

- Linear  $E_x$  and  $E_y$  with phase difference  $\phi$

- Stokes' parameters:

$$I = E_x^2 + E_y^2$$

$$Q = E_x^2 - E_y^2$$

$$U = 2E_x E_y \cos\phi$$

$$V = 2E_x E_y \sin\phi$$

- Unpolarized source:  $E_x = E_y$  and  $\phi = 0$
- Un-polarized  $Q = 0$ ,  $V = 0$ , and  $I = U$ ;
- Stokes'  $I =$  total flux (sum of x and y polarizations)

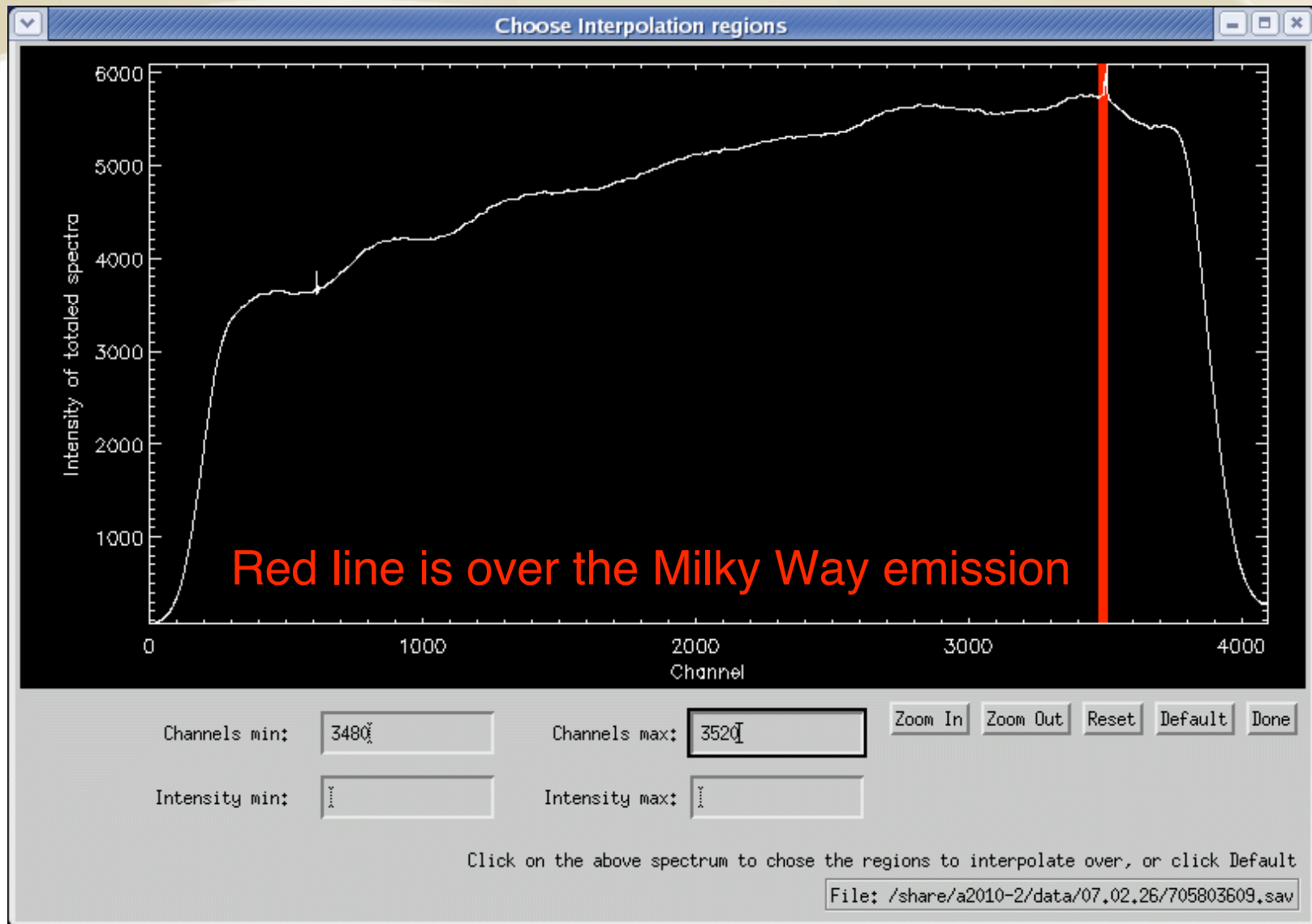
# Baselines and Observing Schemes

- Instrumental effects cause variations in the baseline that are often much larger than the signal that we want to measure
- We need to find a way to observe with and without the source but without changing the instrumental effects
- We usually accomplish the above with either beam (position) switching or frequency switching



# Baselines

Raw baseline shape for a 21 cm observation with Arecibo



# Baselines and Observing Schemes

- Instrumental effects cause variations in the baseline that are often much larger than the signal that we want to measure
- We need to find a way to observe with and without the source but without changing the instrumental effects
- We usually accomplish the above with either beam (position) switching or frequency switching

# ALFALFA Observing Technique:

## HI 21 cm Observing in Action

- **Drift scan:** telescope is fixed, the position change is driven by the rotation of the Earth
- Baseline shape is removed using spectra that are adjacent in time and space
- Because the telescope does not move, the systematic noise does not change making the data easier to correct