
Radio astronomy (I): Measuring the radio sky

History and techniques of
Radio Astronomy

Topics

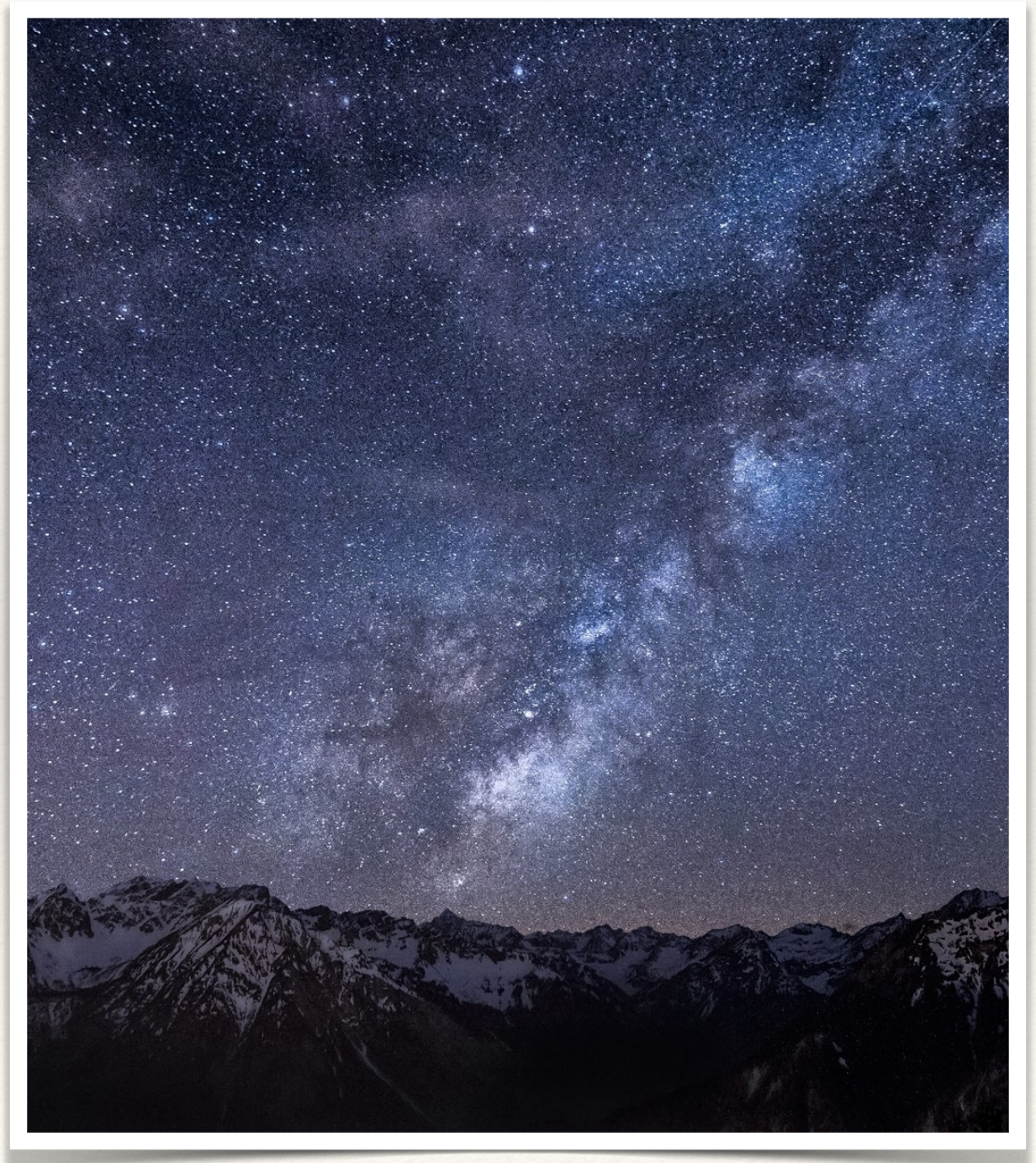
- ❖ Background: the history of radio astronomy
- ❖ Single aperture radio dishes
- ❖ Interferometry

Topics

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Astronomy beyond the optical

- ❖ Astronomy is the oldest science, but for $>95\%$ of history has been entirely optical
- ❖ Modern astronomy is multi-wavelength
- ❖ Radio astronomy was the first time astronomy went 'beyond optical'.







Electricity + Magnetism = ?

- ❖ 1861 — James Clerk Maxwell, Scottish physicist
- ❖ Formulated **Maxwell's Equations**, describing electricity and magnetism

Electricity + Magnetism = ?

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} = \rho$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{J} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t}$$

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$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$$

Electromotive force in a
circuit
depends on magnetic flux
enclosed



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Electromotive force in a
circuit
depends on magnetic flux
enclosed

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}$$

Changes in electric current
depend on magnetic field

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{J} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t}$$

Electricity + Magnetism = Waves?

Physicists already knew the ‘wave equation’:

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} = c^2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}$$

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$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} = c^2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}$$

With some mathematical manipulation,
Maxwell’s equations re-arrange to

$$\mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 E}{\partial t^2} = \frac{\partial^2 E}{\partial x^2}$$

$$\mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 B}{\partial t^2} = \frac{\partial^2 B}{\partial x^2}$$

... the wave equation!

Electricity + Magnetism = Waves?

So, electric and magnetic fields travel in waves!

How fast?

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} = c^2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}$$

$$\mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 E}{\partial t^2} = \frac{\partial^2 E}{\partial x^2}$$

$$c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}}$$

$$= 2.9979 \times 10^8 \text{ m s}^{-1}$$

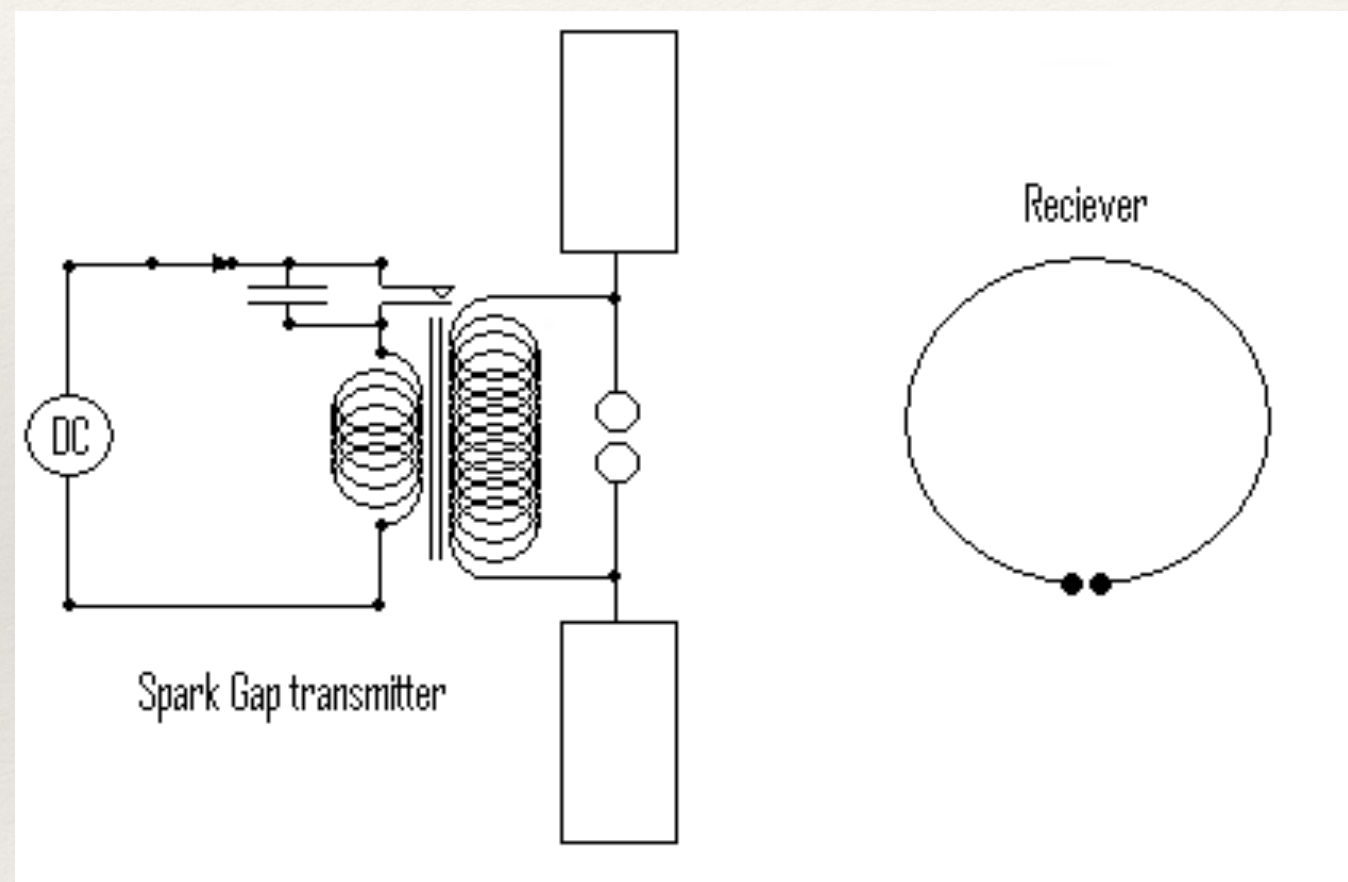
Light is an electromagnetic wave...

So, there should be other types of electromagnetic wave, at other wavelengths.

This discovery paved the way to the existence of radio astronomy

1887 – Hertz checks Maxwell's predictions

“Hertzian Waves”

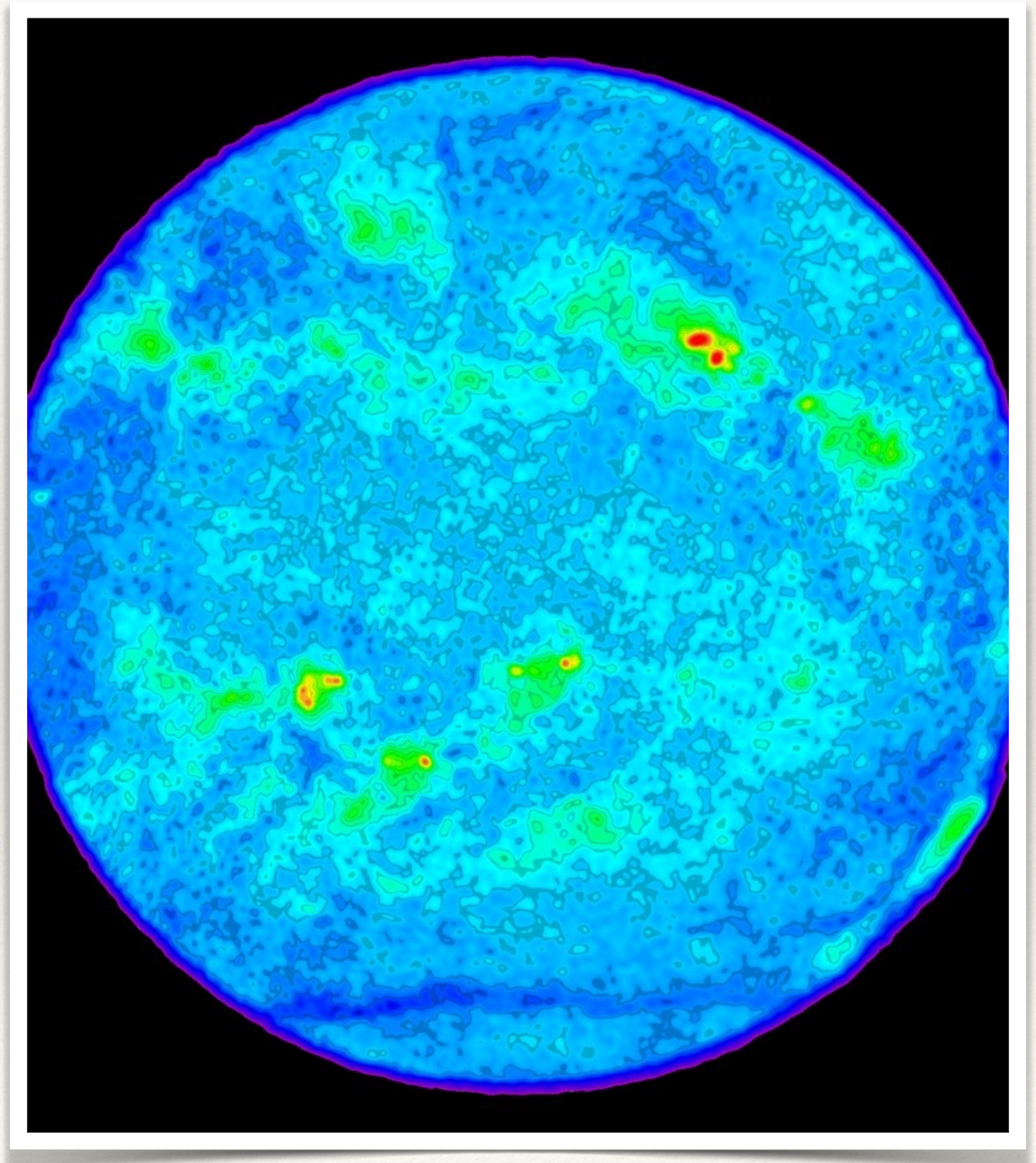


Discovered EM waves, wavelength $\sim 60\text{cm}$.

Hertz: “This has no practical purpose”

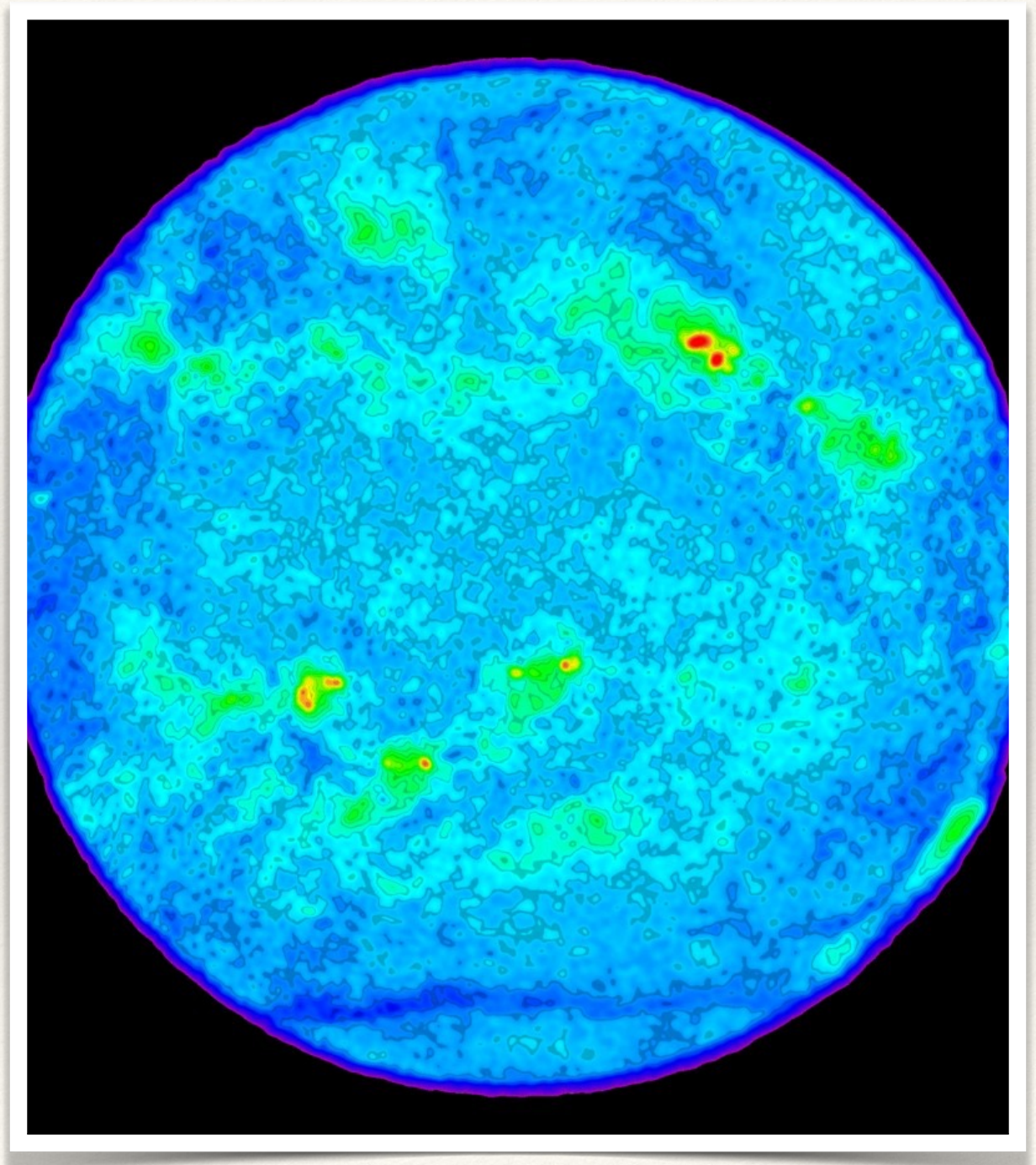
Can we see the Sun?

- ❖ Thomas Edison (1890) tried to detect the Sun (using millions of tonnes of magnetite ore as the core of an induction coil) and failed.



Can we see the Sun?

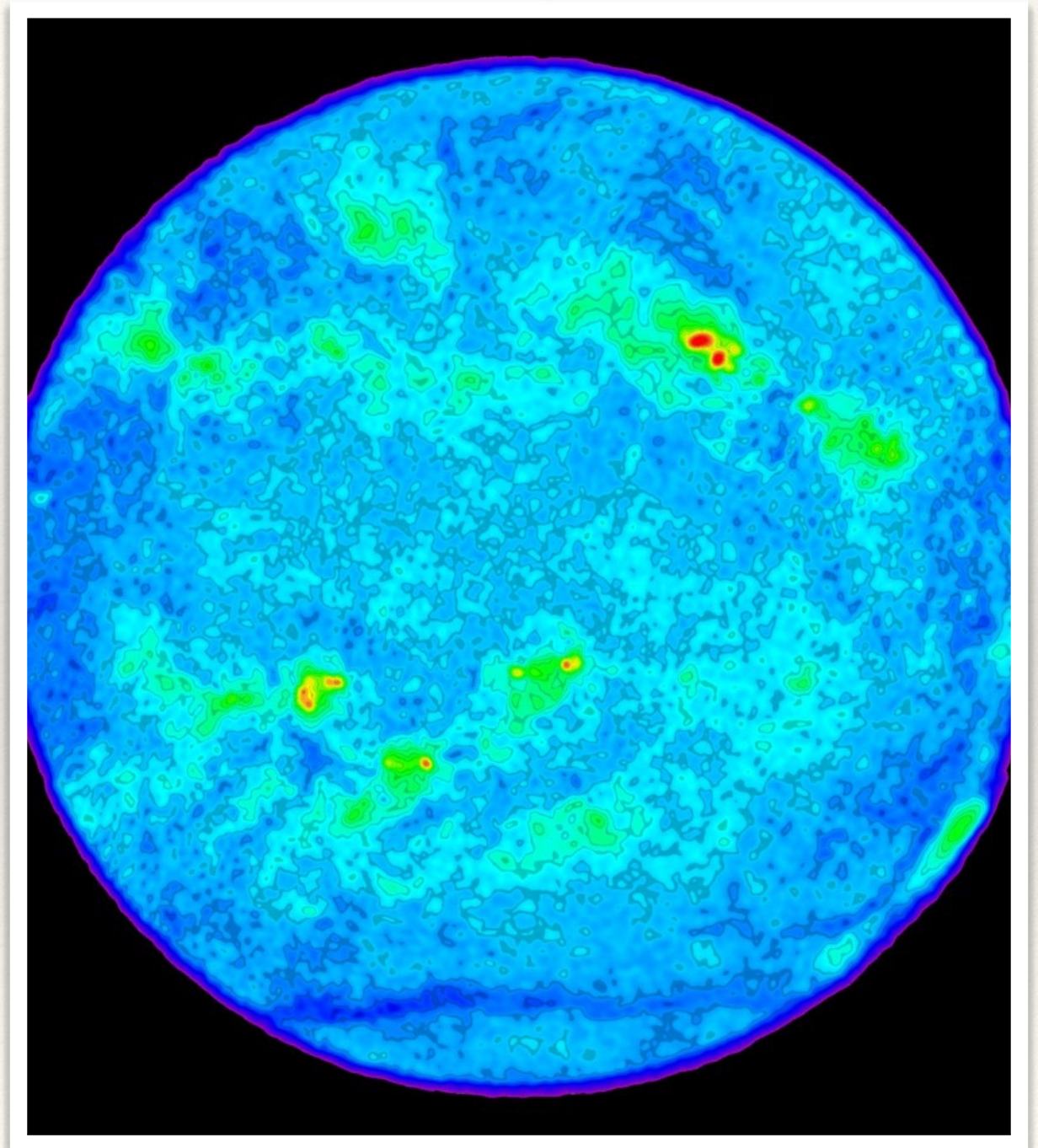
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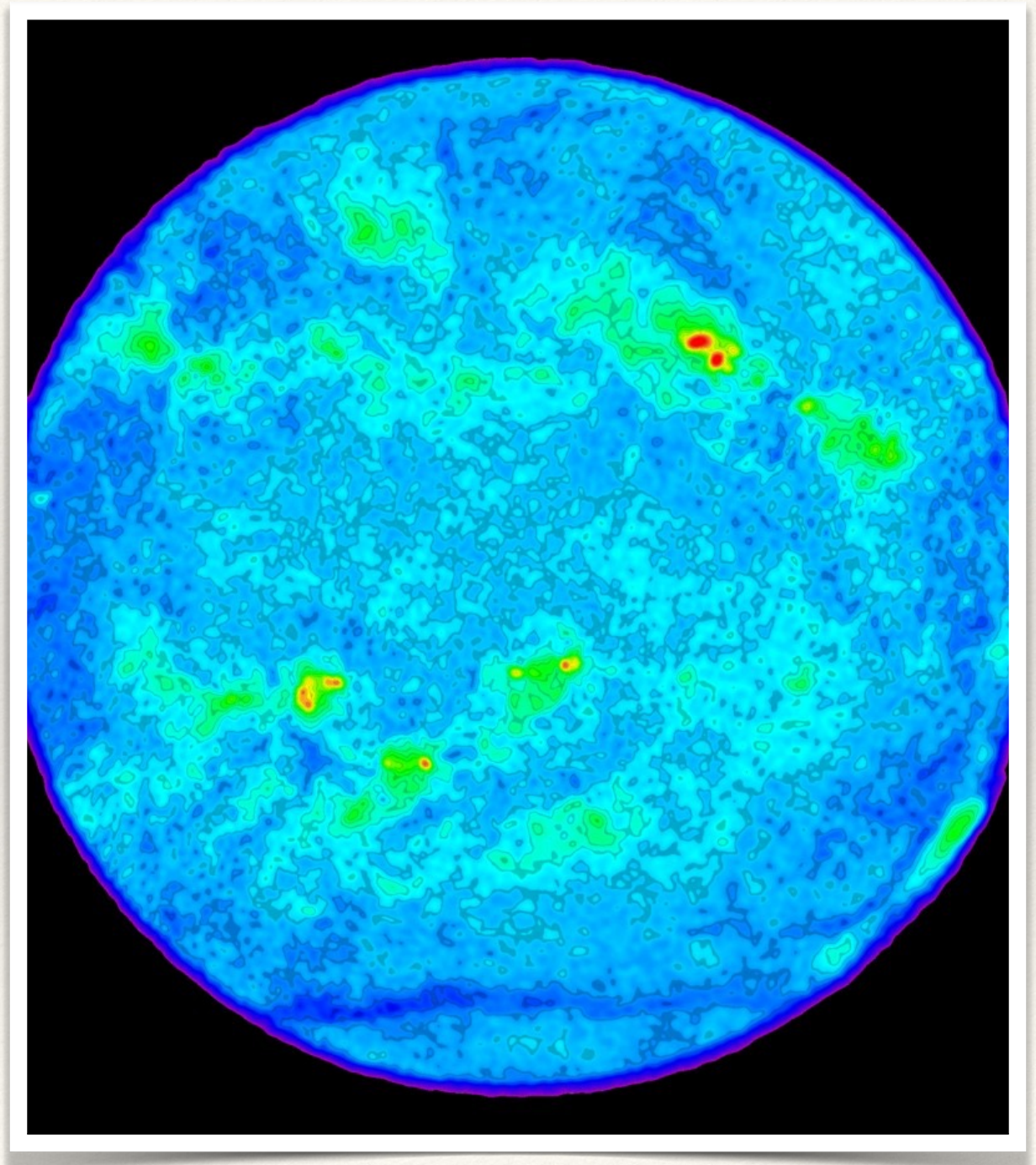
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Tried sunshine today on coherer...
couldn't swear to proper sun effect..
May be intermittent or weak



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- ❖ Charles Nordmann tried (1902), from Mont Blanc at 3100m... no result.



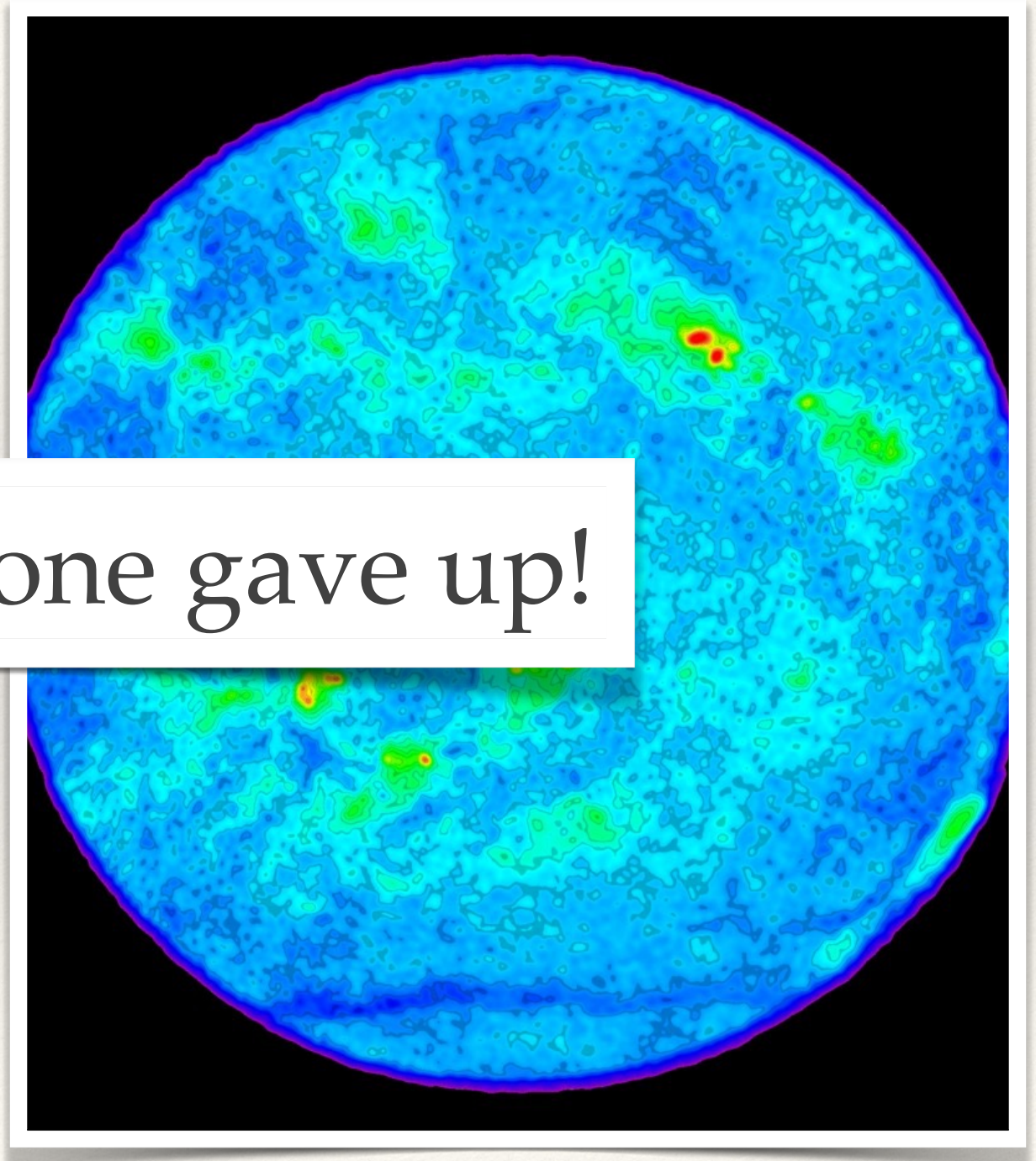
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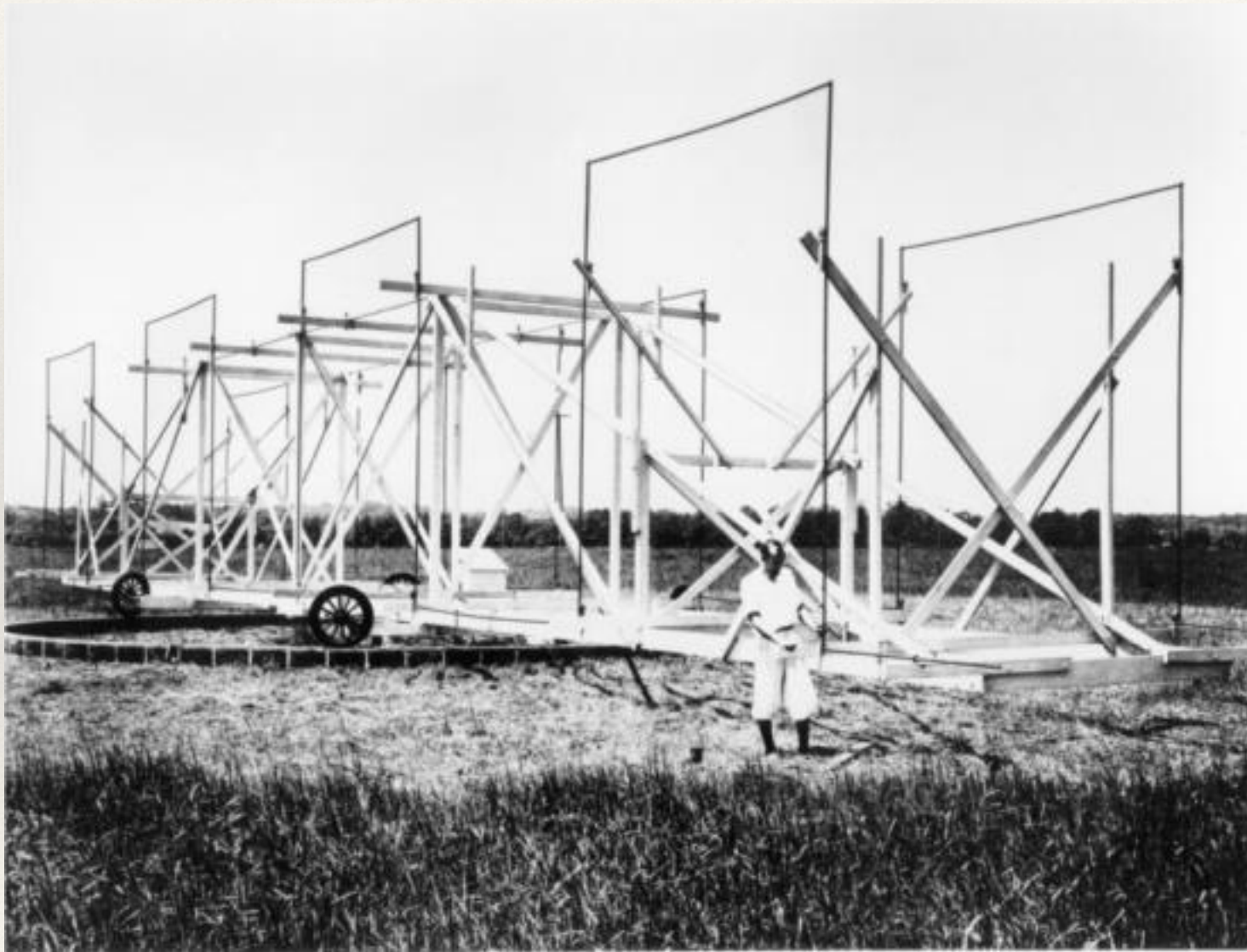
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Then... everyone gave up!



1935- Jansky detects... something



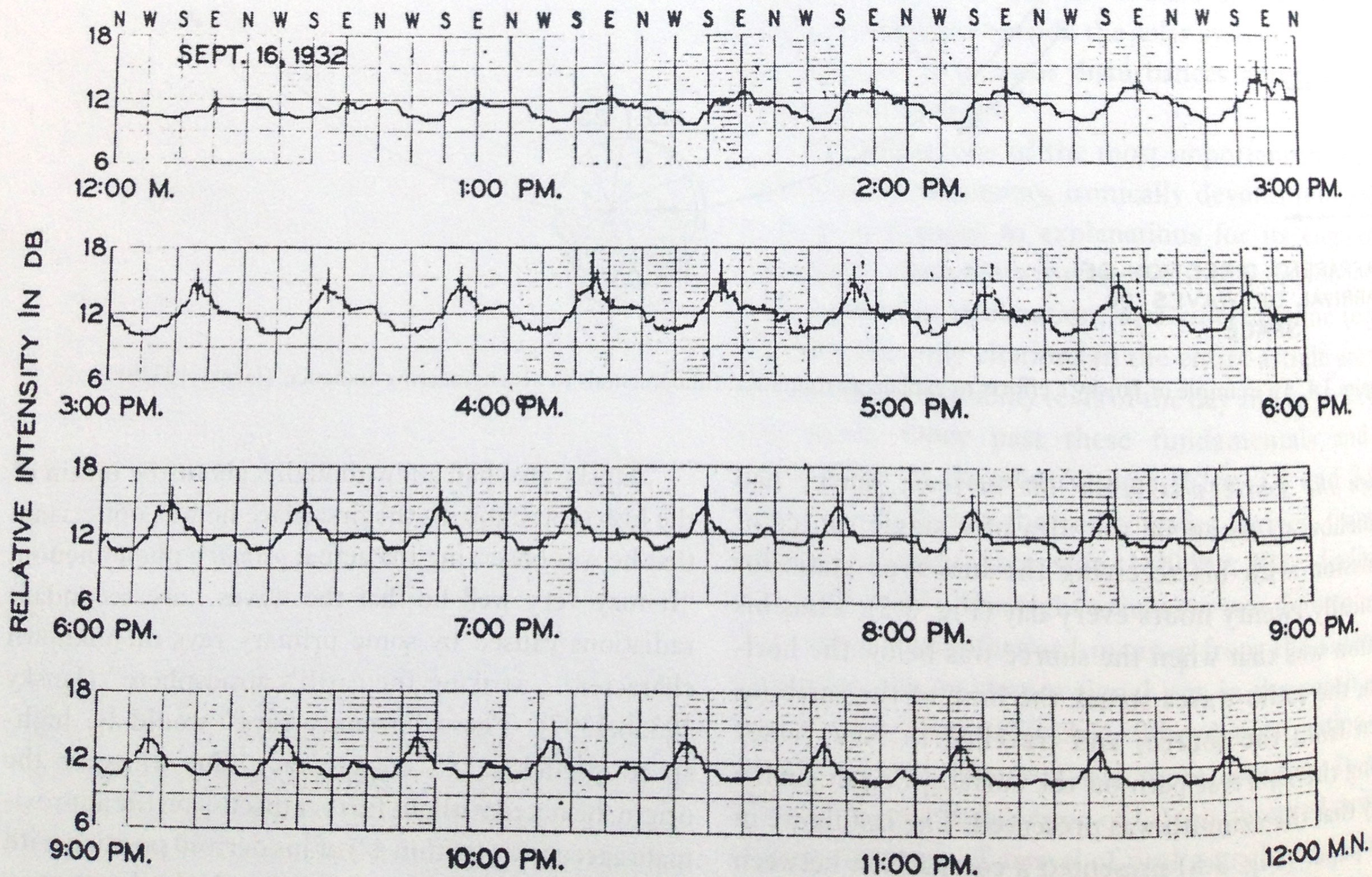
- ❖ Karl Jansky, “father of Radio Astronomy”, worked for Bell Labs
- ❖ Discovered ‘hiss-type static’ at 20Mhz, which varied — almost, but not quite — on a 24 hour period.

1935- Jansky detects the Galactic centre

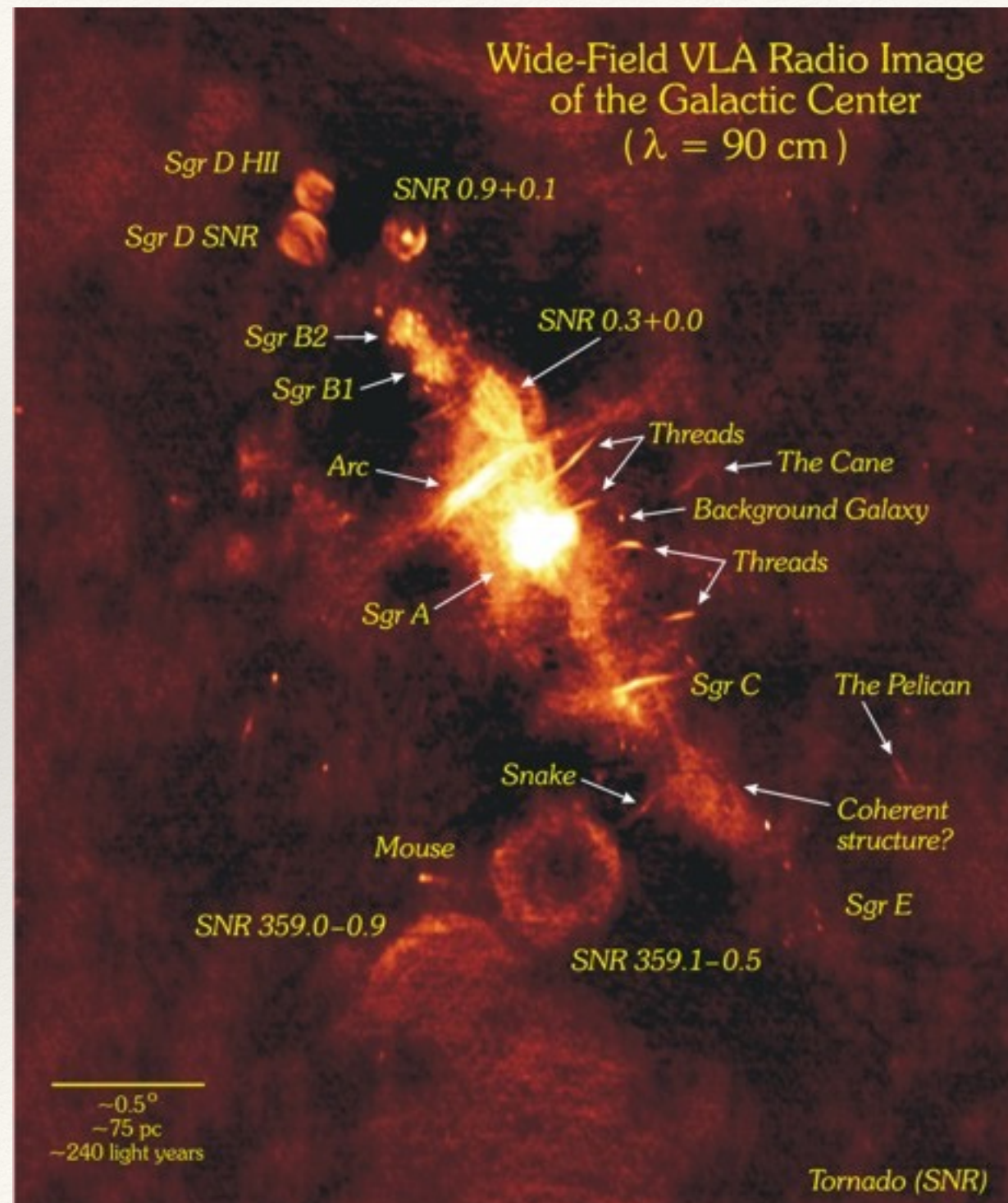
❖ Karl Jansky, “father of

“The stuff, whatever it is, comes from something not only extraterrestrial, but from outside the Solar System... there’s plenty to speculate about, isn’t there?”

— on a 24 hour period.



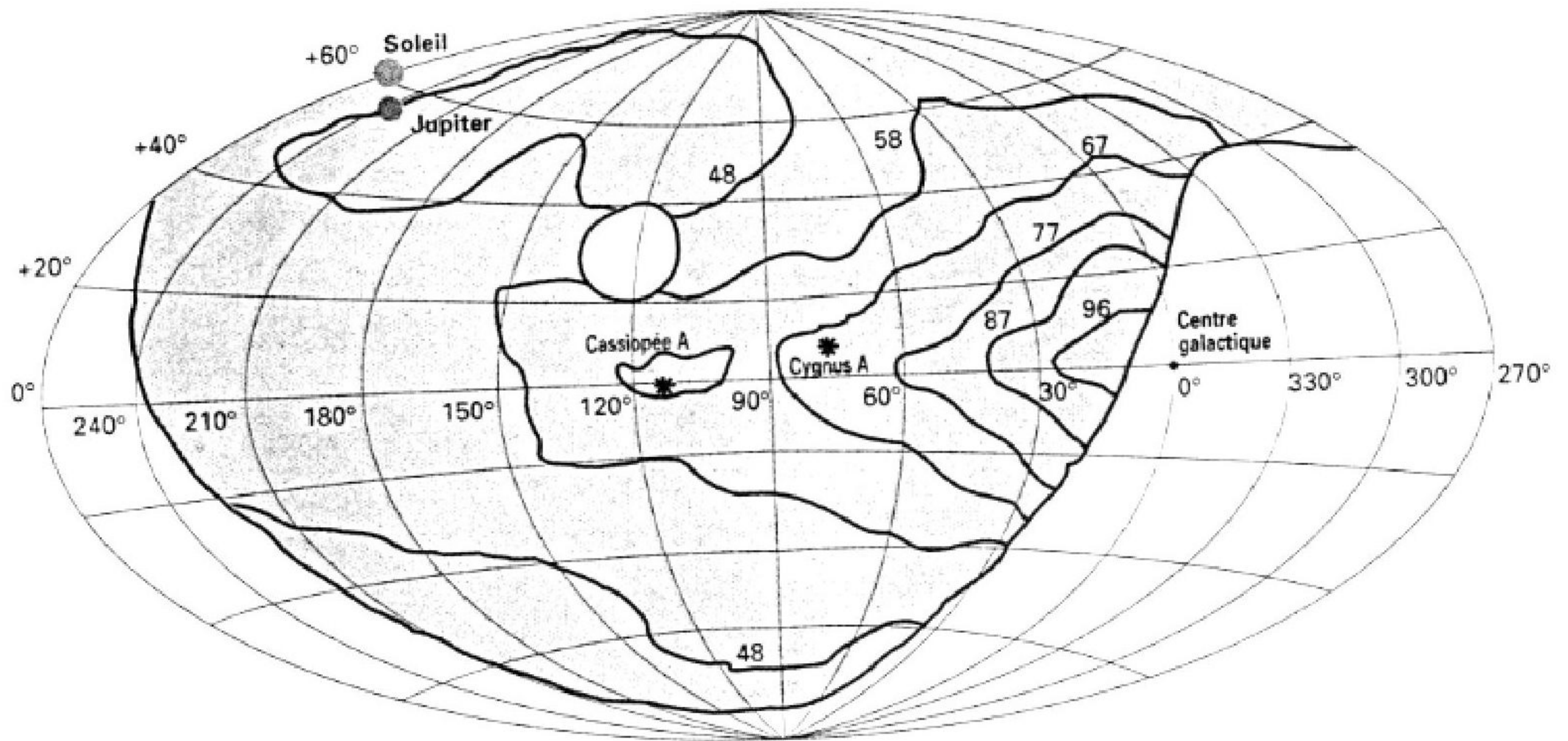
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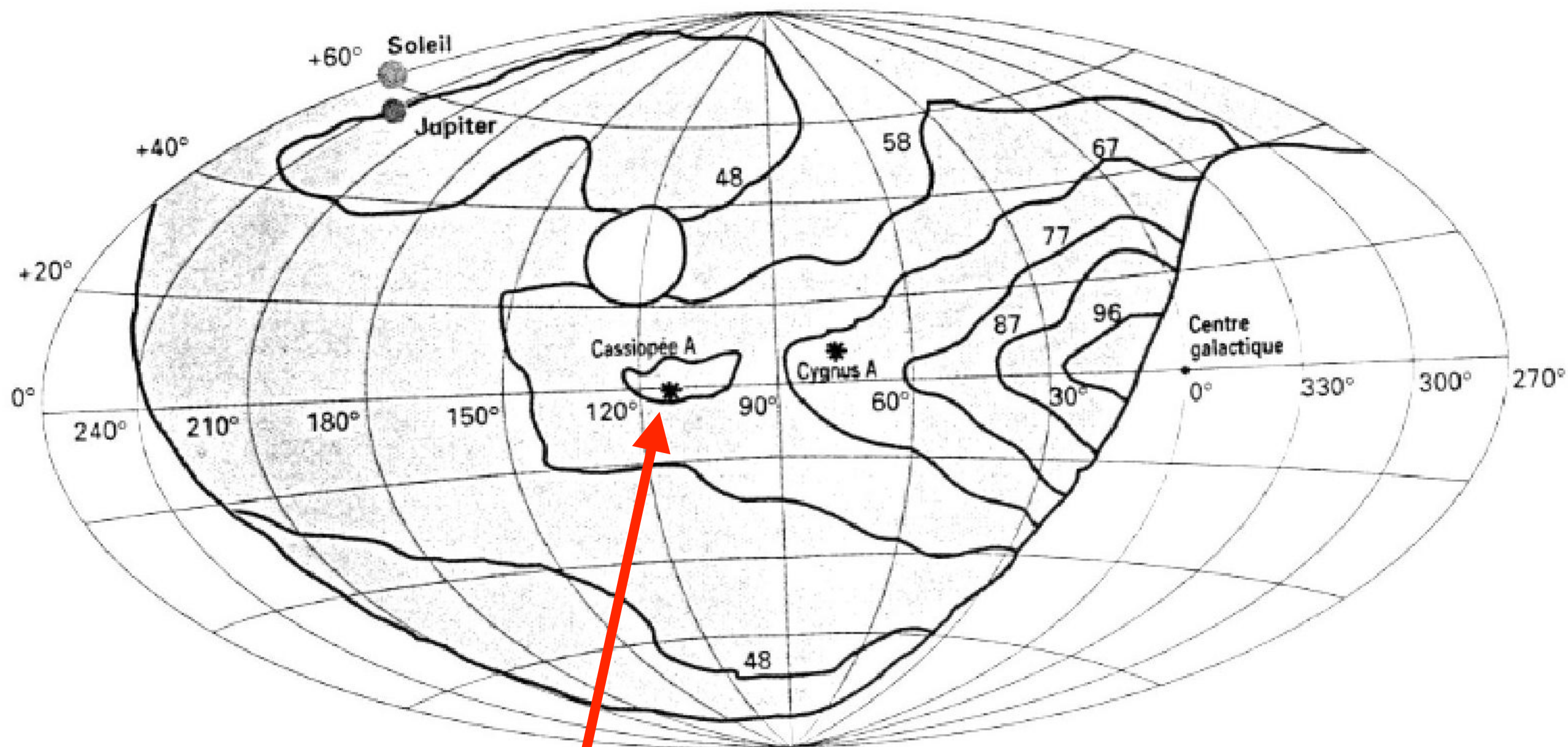
Radio astronomy blossoms

- ❖ Grote Reber (1911 - 2002) single-handedly developed radio astronomy in the 30's and 40's
- ❖ Jansky worked at Bell Labs... Grote Reber built the largest radio dish in the world in his Chicago back yard.

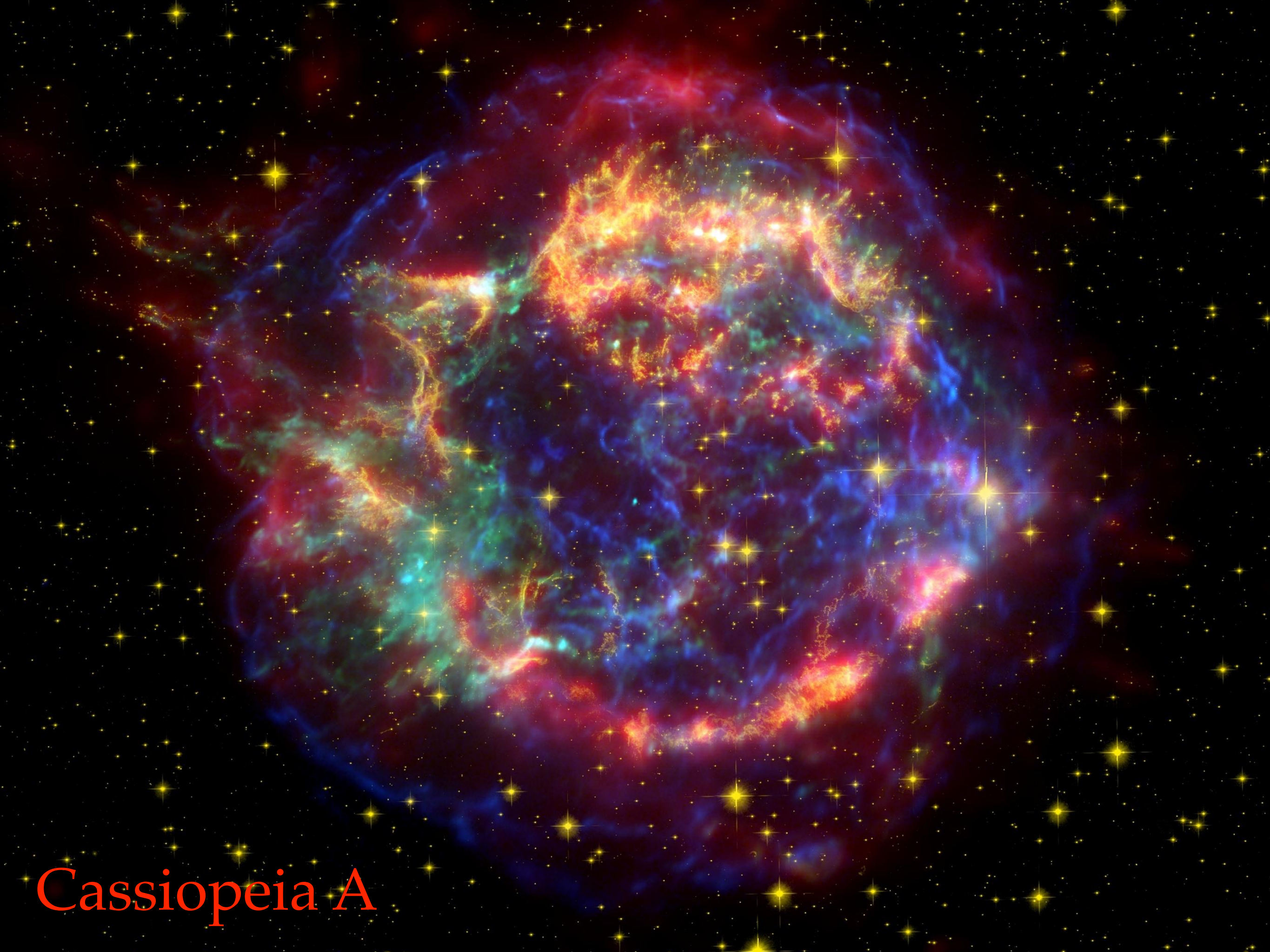




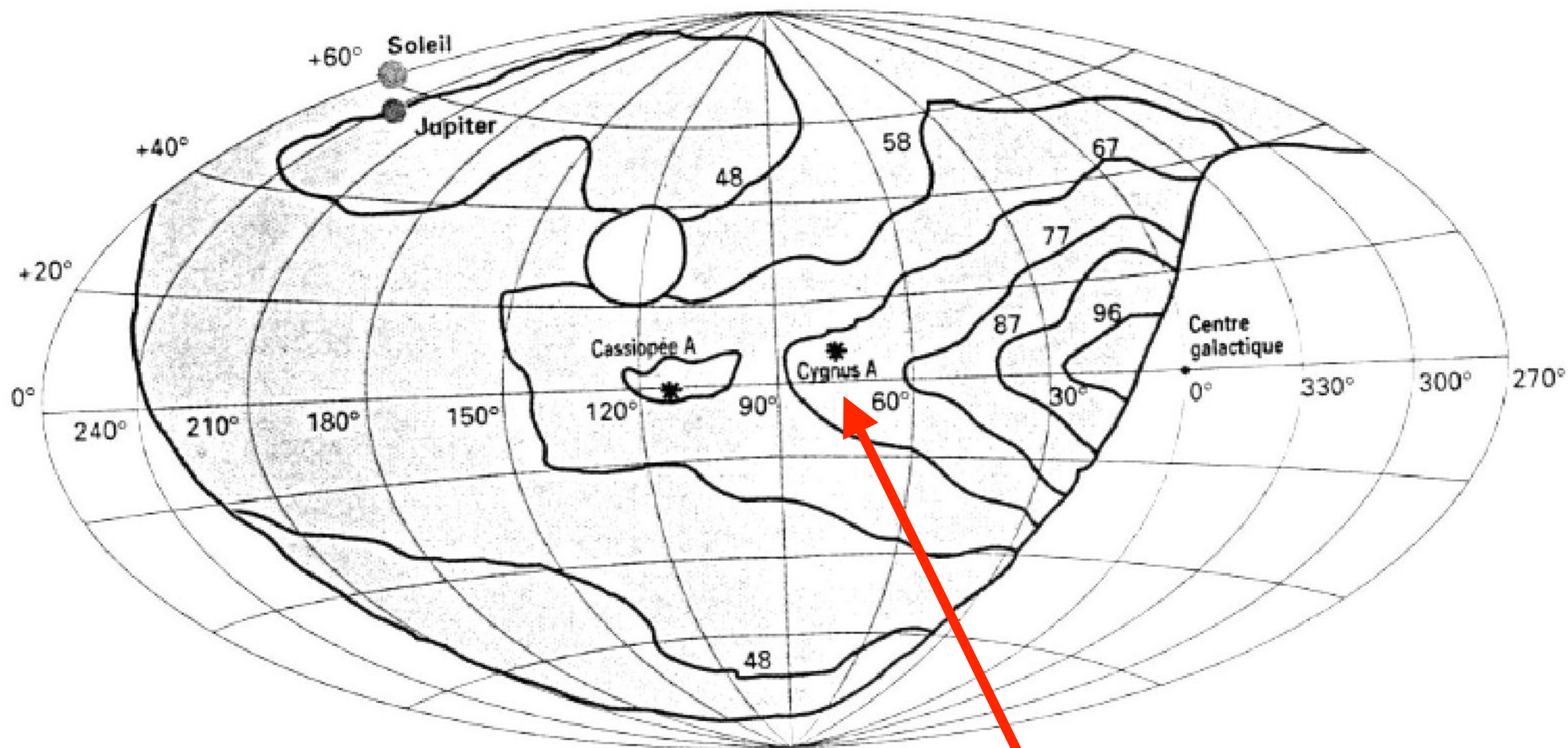
Grote Reber's map of the radio sky at 160 Mhz



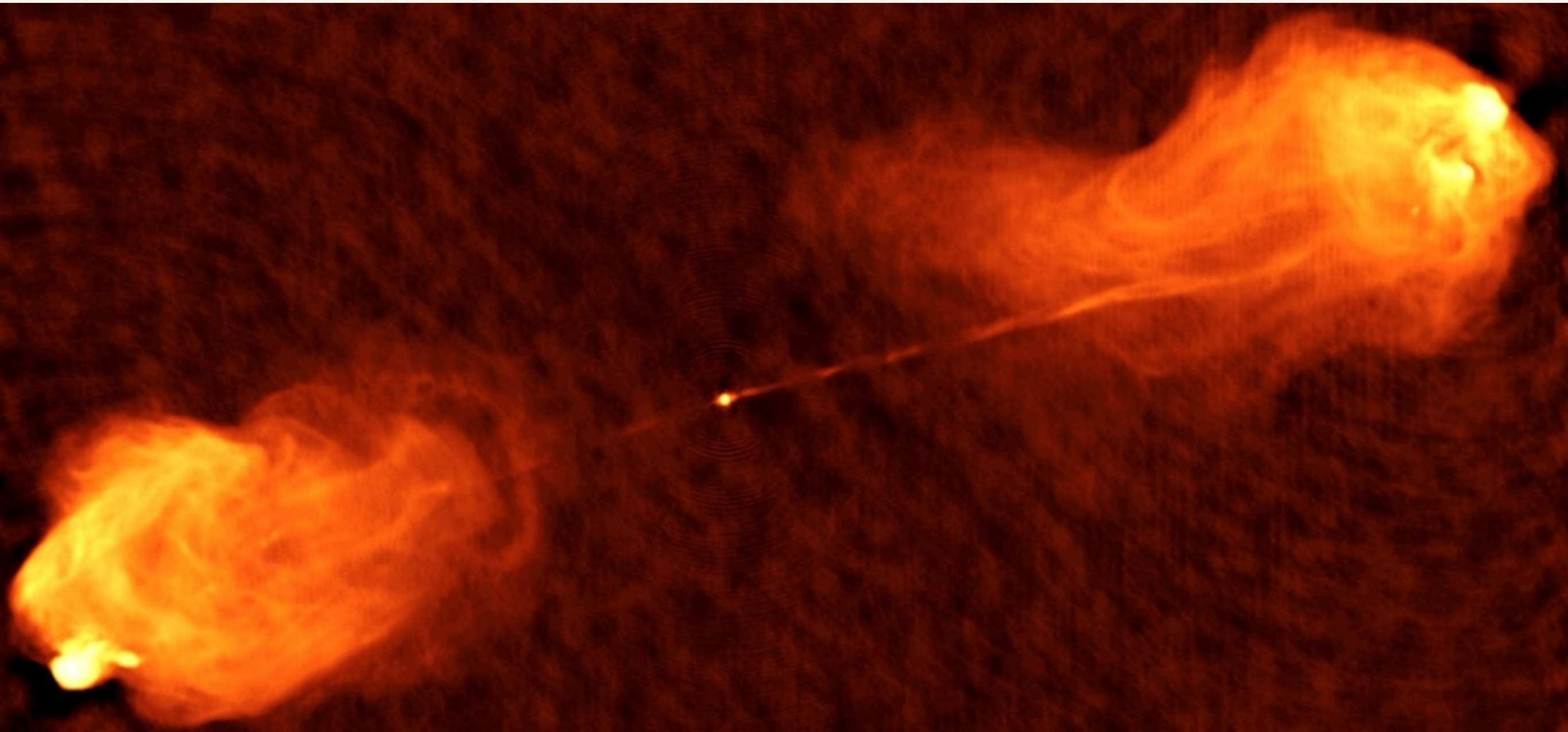
Cassiopeia A



Cassiopeia A



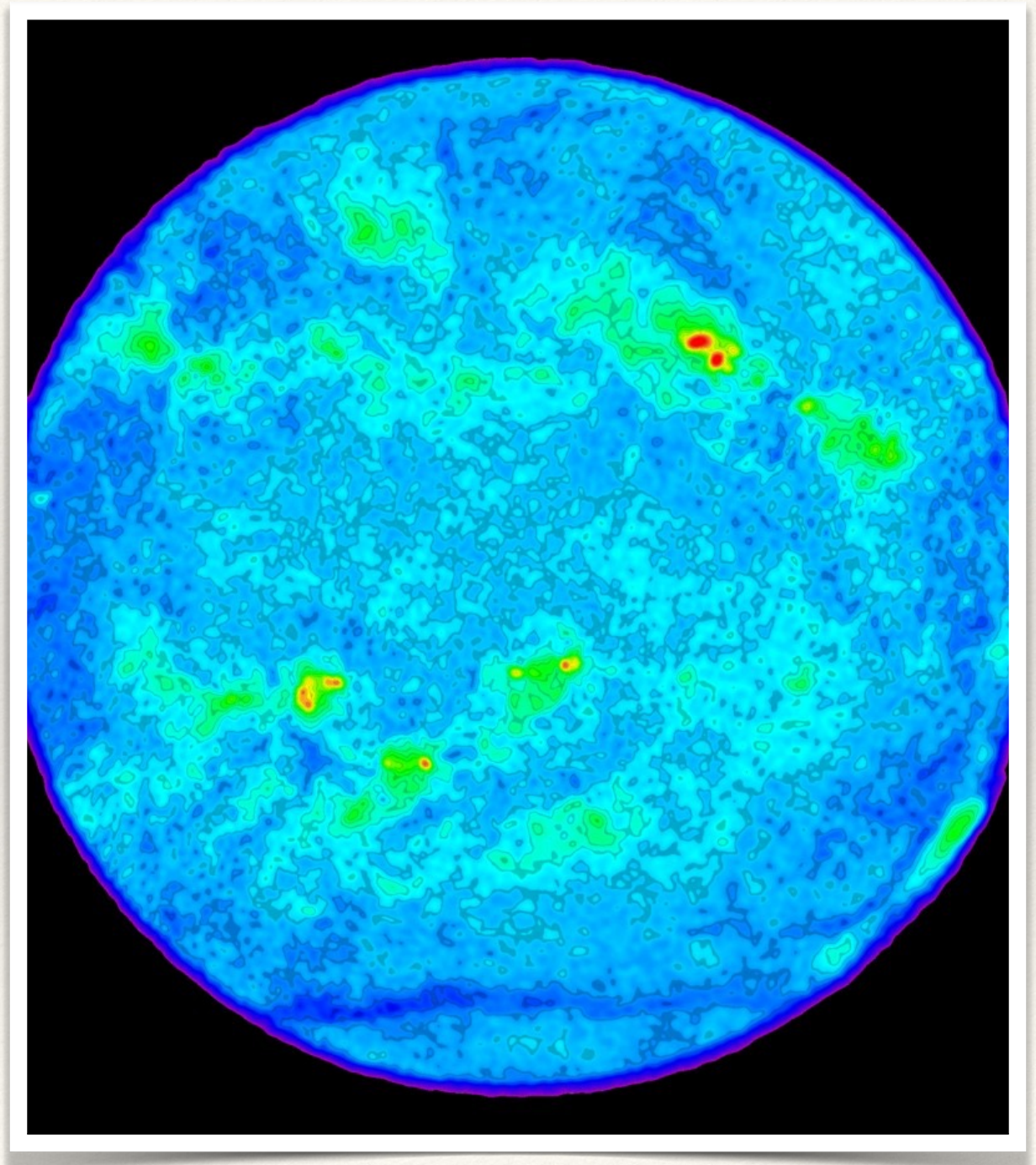
Cygnus A



Cygnus A

Sun finally detected... by accident

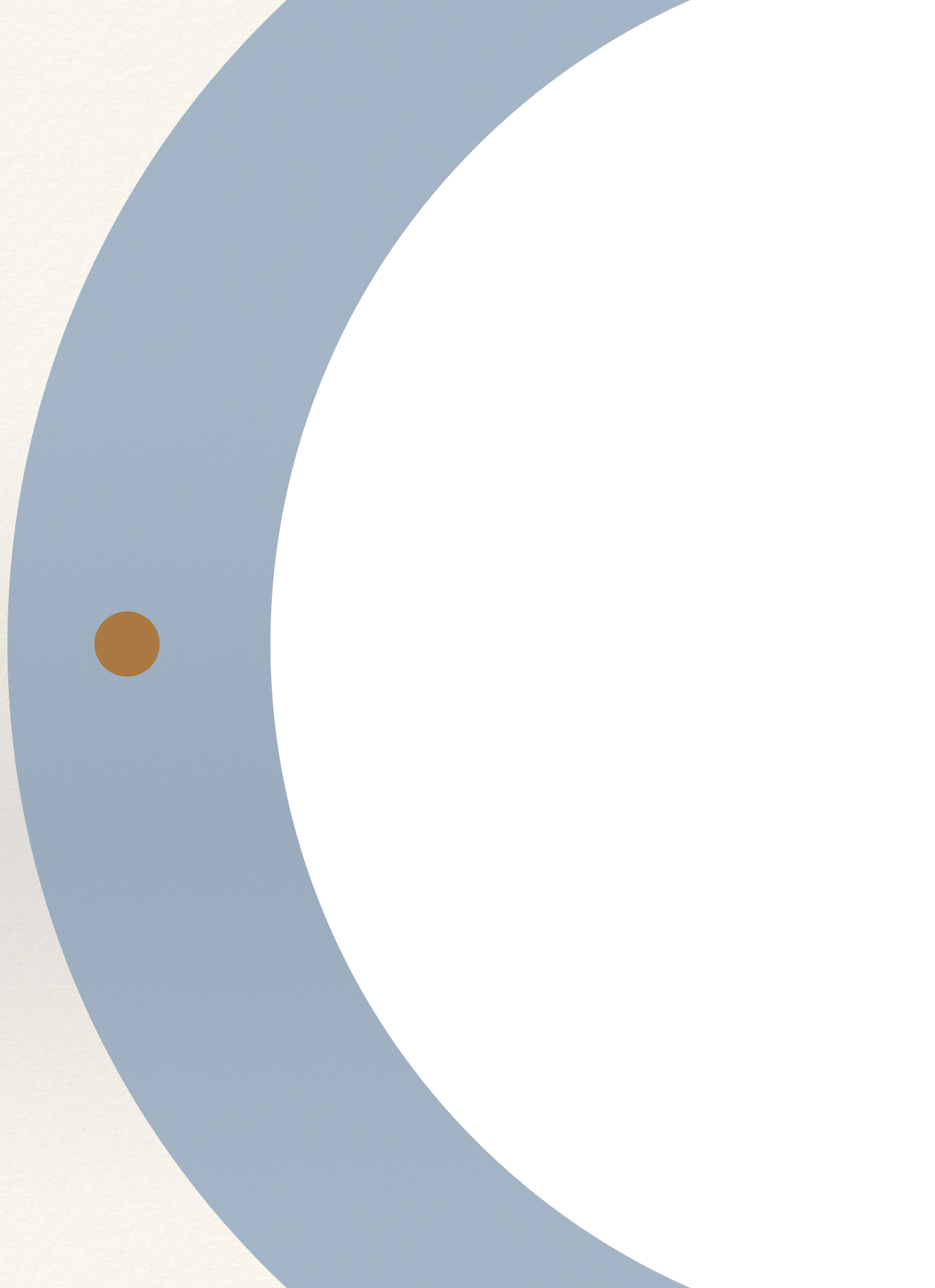
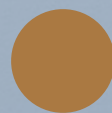
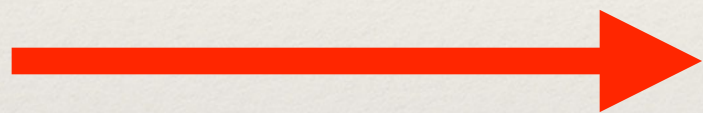
- ❖ During WWII, radio technology developed due to Radar (**R**Adio **D**etection **A**nd **R**anging)
- ❖ In 1942, two German battle cruisers passed undetected through the Channel — British radar was jammed...
- ❖ Investigators found excessive radio noise over all frequencies, only during daylight hours





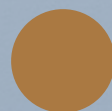
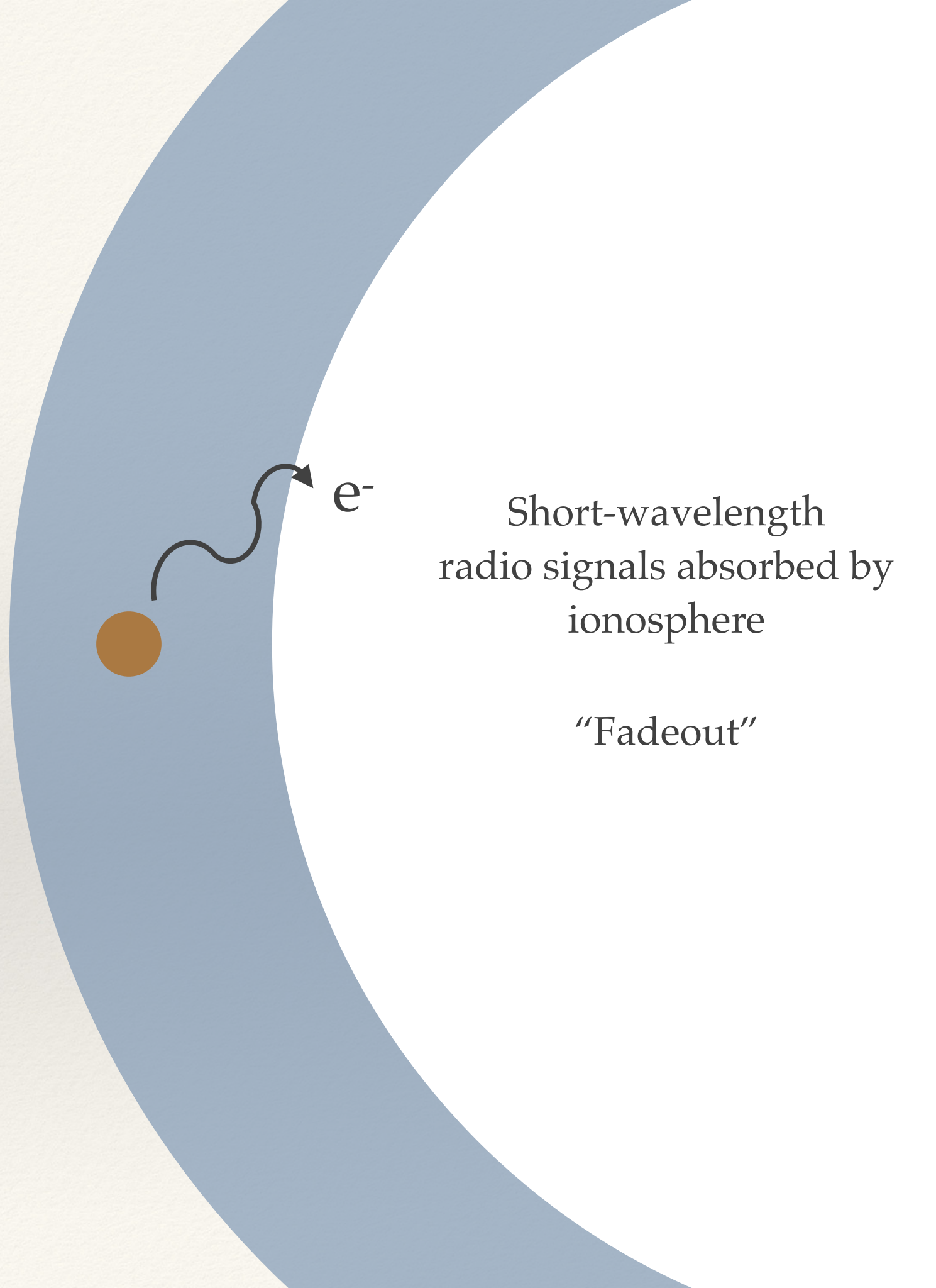
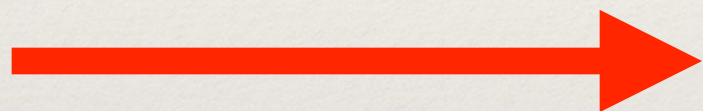
UV, X-ray

CME



CME

UV, X-ray



e^-

Short-wavelength
radio signals absorbed by
ionosphere

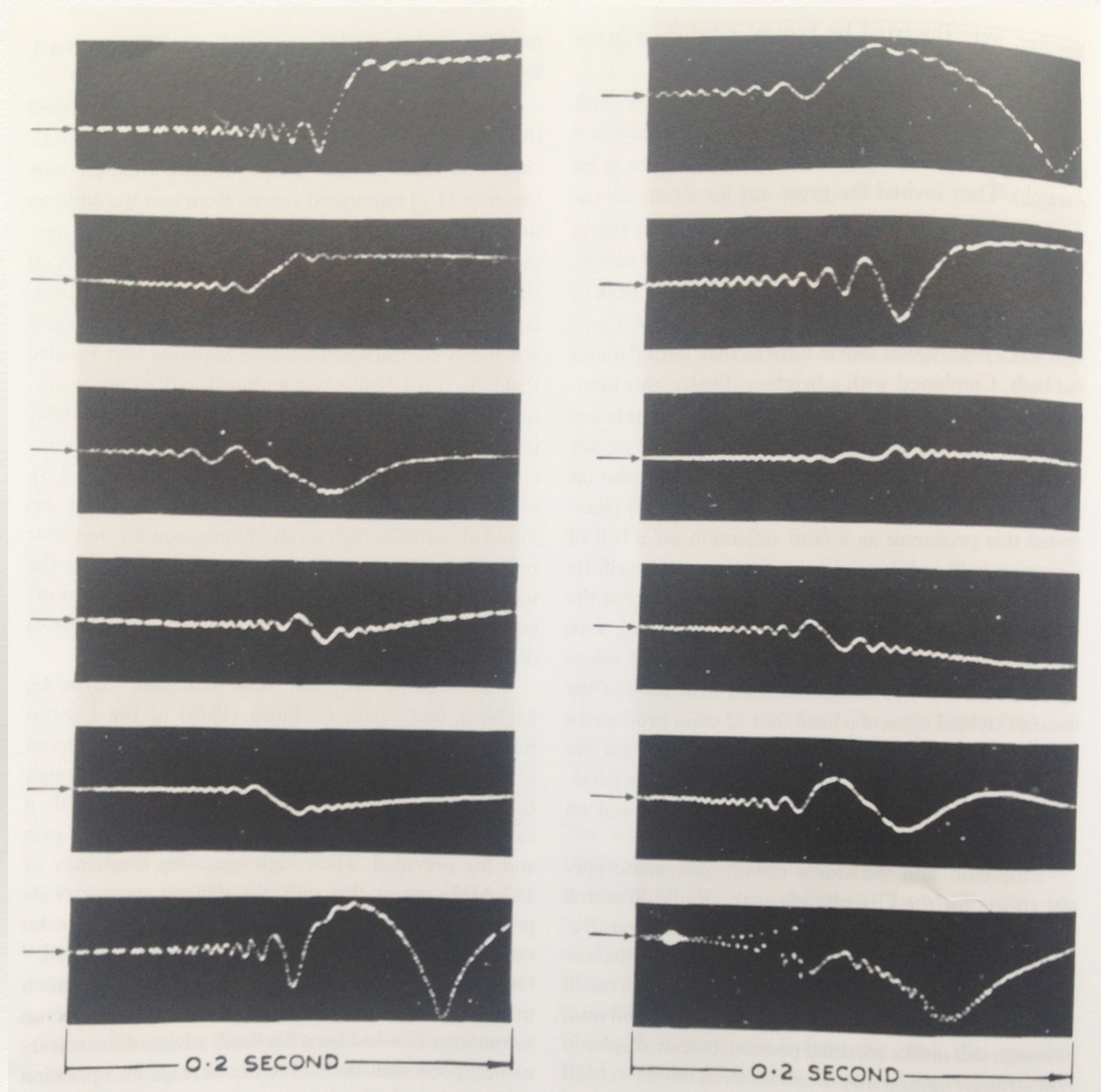
“Fadeout”

Post-war: Meteor-radar astronomy

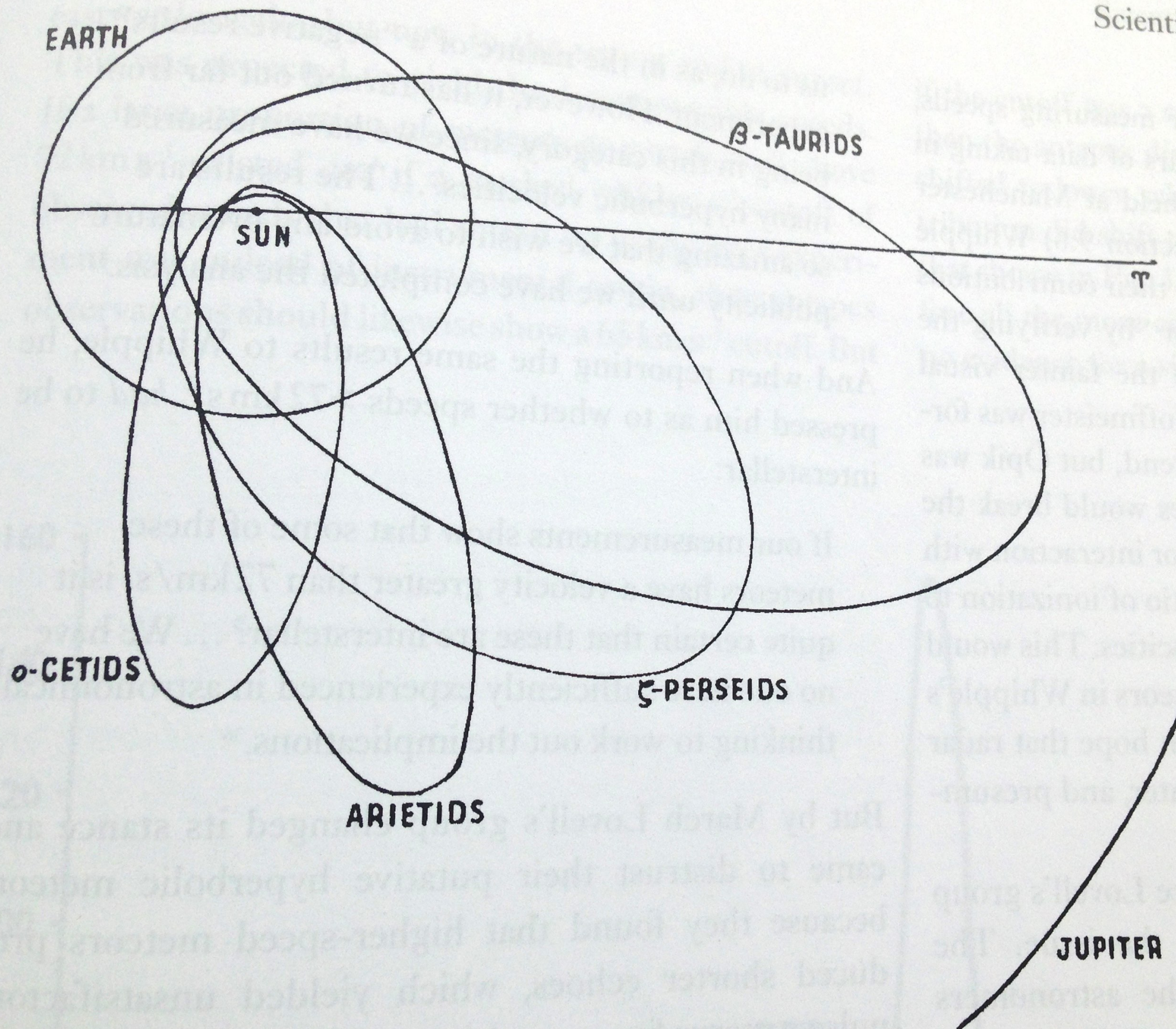
- ❖ Idea: bounce RADAR off the ionised tails of meteorites. Already knew atmospheric disturbance affects radio propagation
- ❖ Daytime meteor showers!

Freq.

Time

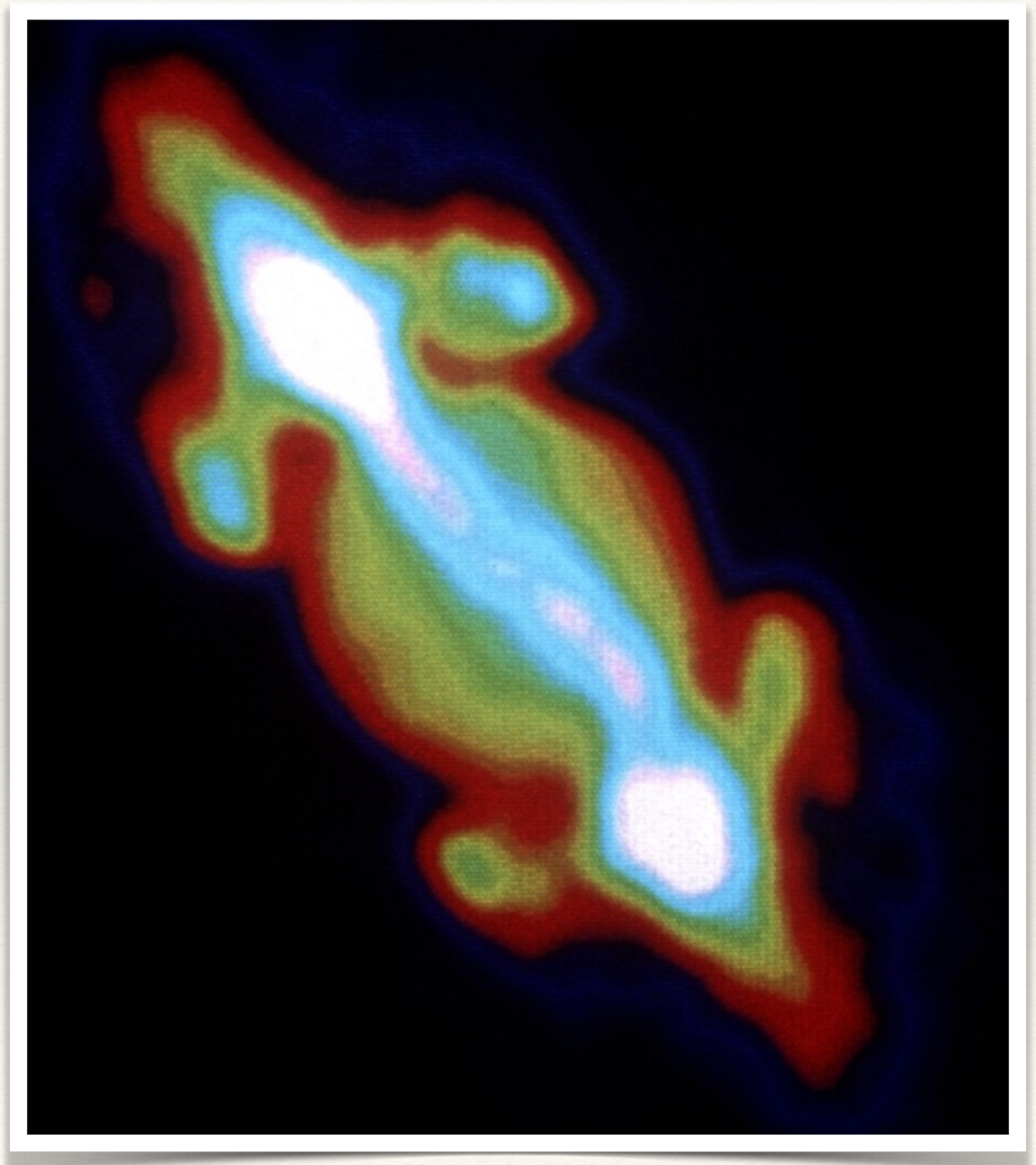


Scientific results before 1952



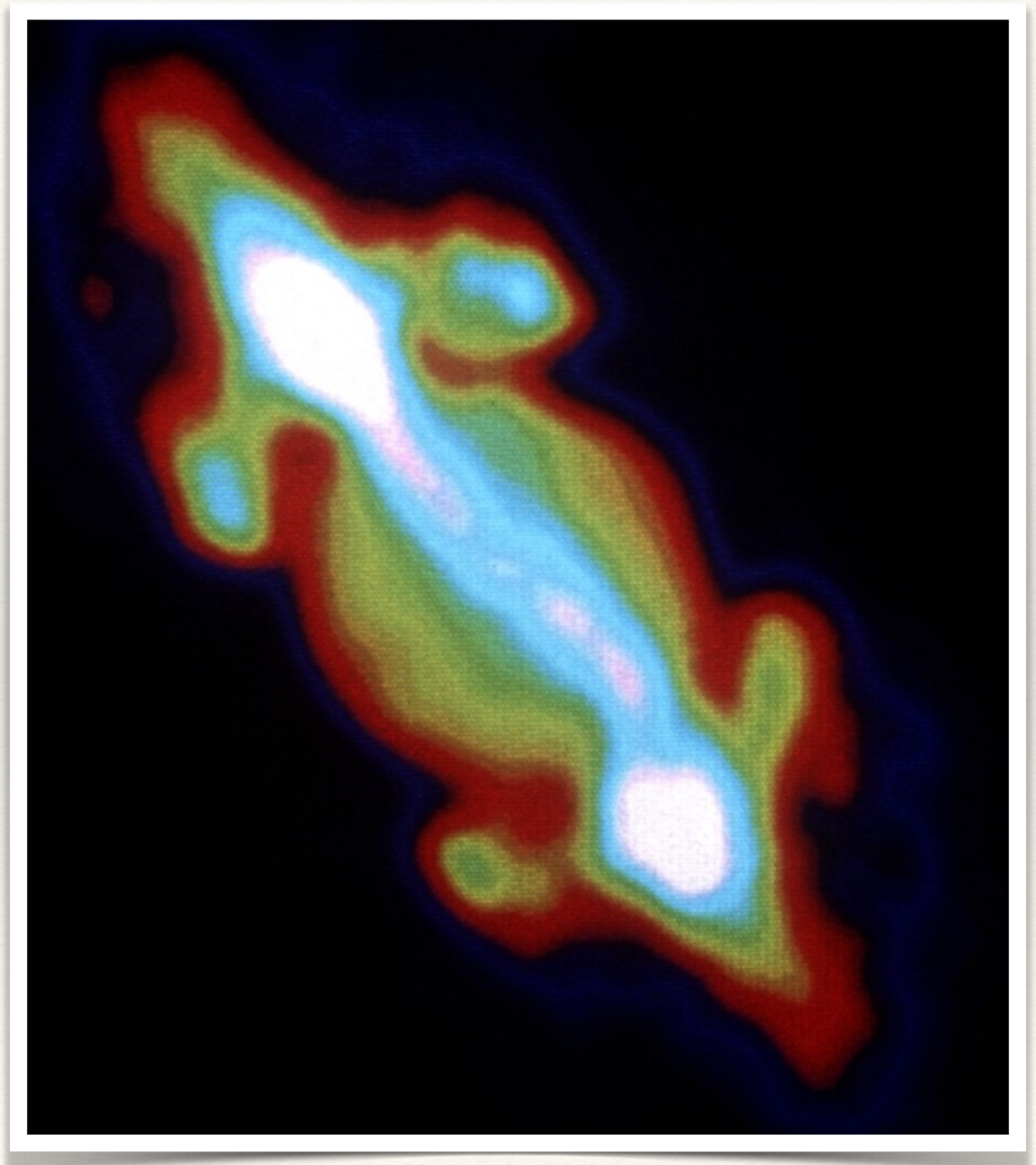
Farther afield...

- ❖ Astronomers expected thermal radio emission from planets (all objects $>0\text{K}$ emit thermal radiation)
- ❖ Jupiter found to emit radio bursts (similar to the Sun) at 20 Mhz!
- ❖ Strong, non-thermal emission (70,000 K at 200 Mhz)



Radio bursts from Jupiter

- ❖ Jupiter found to have a magnetic moment 18000 times stronger than Earth
- ❖ Caused by:
 - ❖ (1) metallic Hydrogen in Jupiter's interior
 - ❖ (2) Plasma eruptions from Io (~1 tonne per second)



‘Radio stars’



‘Radio stars’

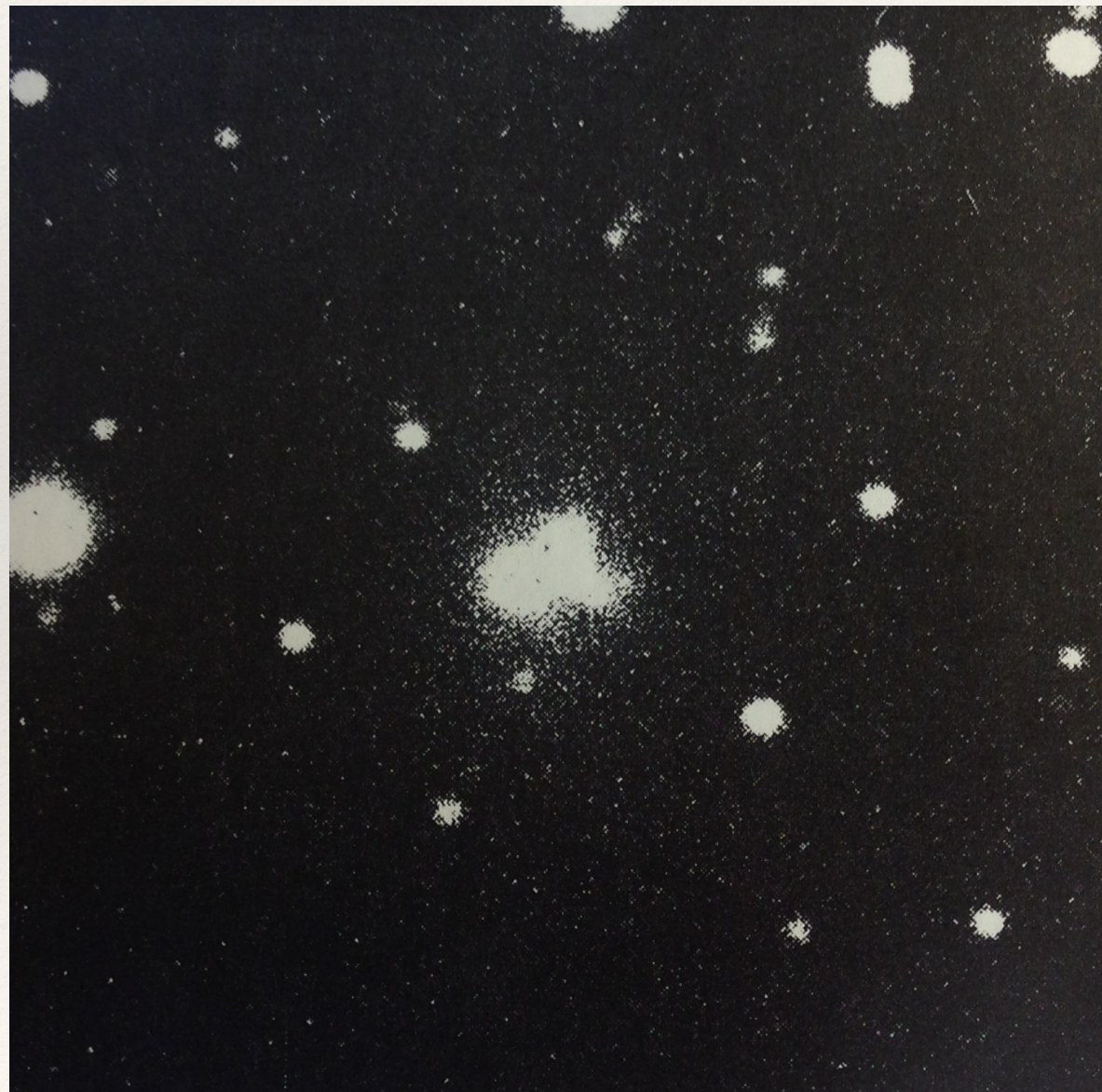
A few discrete radio sources were identified optically... the vast majority were, at first, totally mysterious

“Distance suggestions have ranged from comets (0.1pc) to extragalactic structures ($>100,000$)”

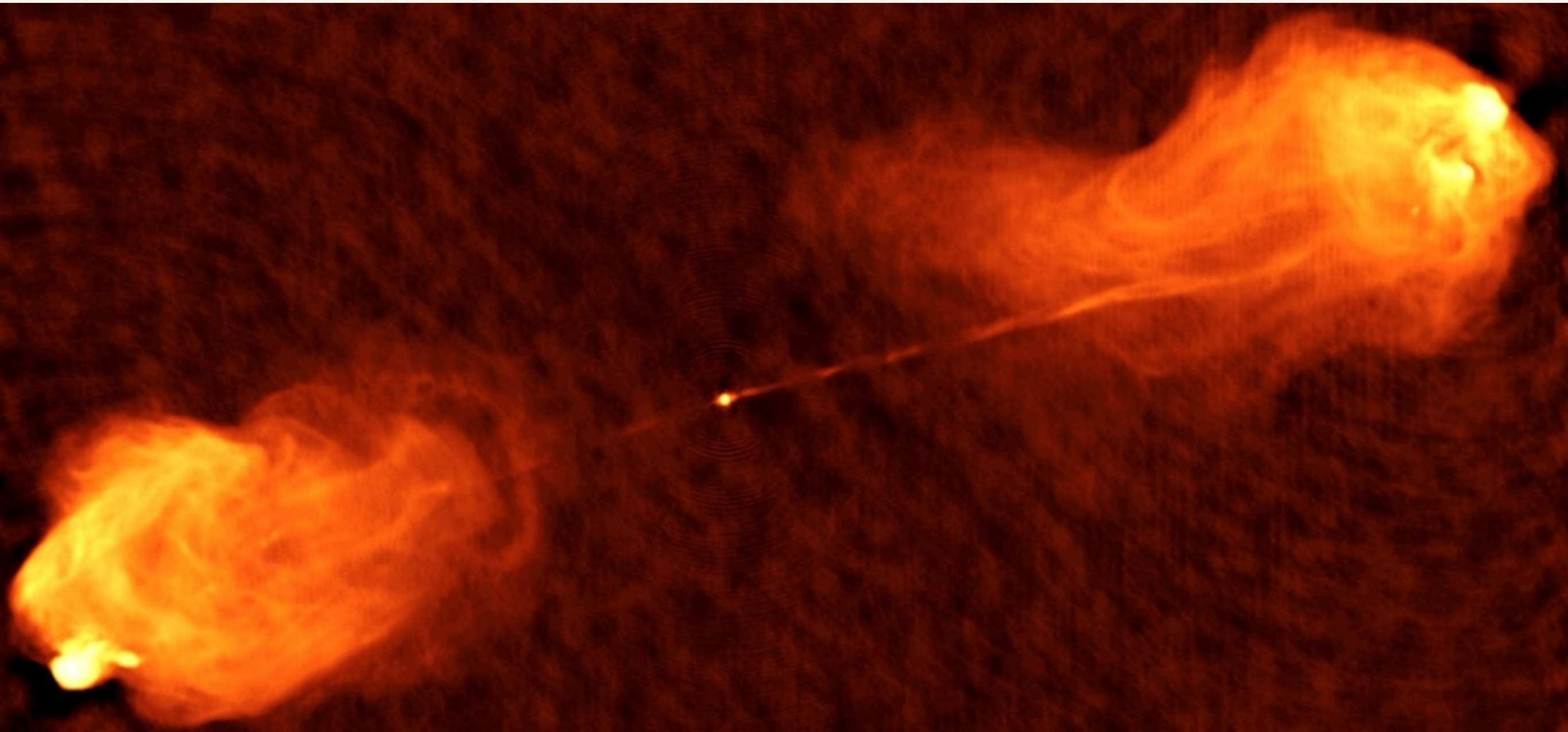
- Van de Hulst, 1951

‘Radio stars’

How to address issue? Optical followup!



Cyg A



Cygnus A

‘Radio stars’

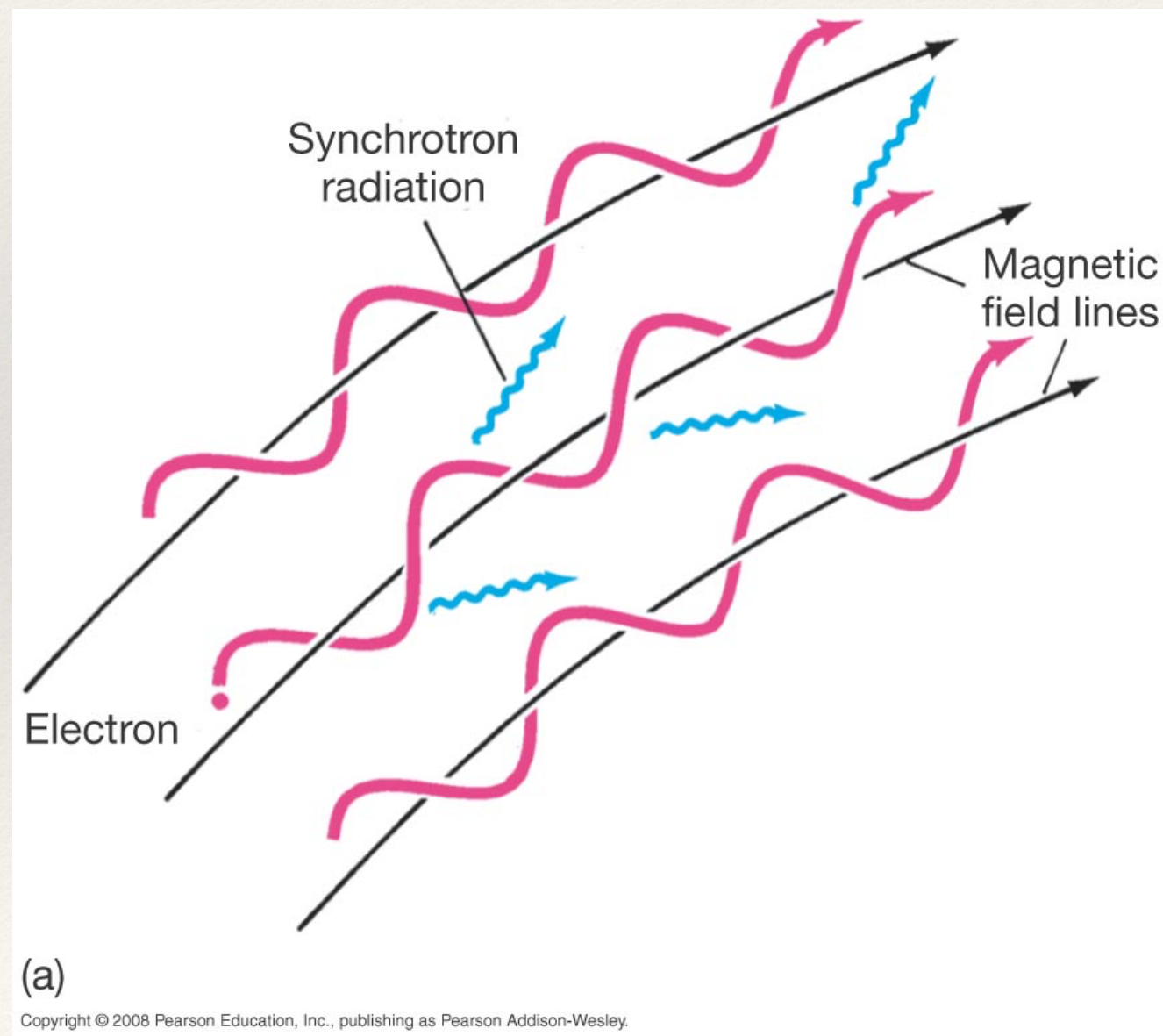
Velocity of radio stars showed that many were extragalactic (Cyg A has $cz \sim 15,000$ km/s)

This implied a radio power over a million times that of the Milky Way

People found this hard to believe, because we didn't have a mechanism that could produce such radio power)

‘Radio stars’

Answer: Synchrotron Radiation



‘Radio stars’

Answer: Synchrotron Radiation

“Radio stars” turned out to be a mix of radio galaxies and pulsars, powered by synchrotron radiation

(More about these later)

Further afield still... mapping the Galaxy

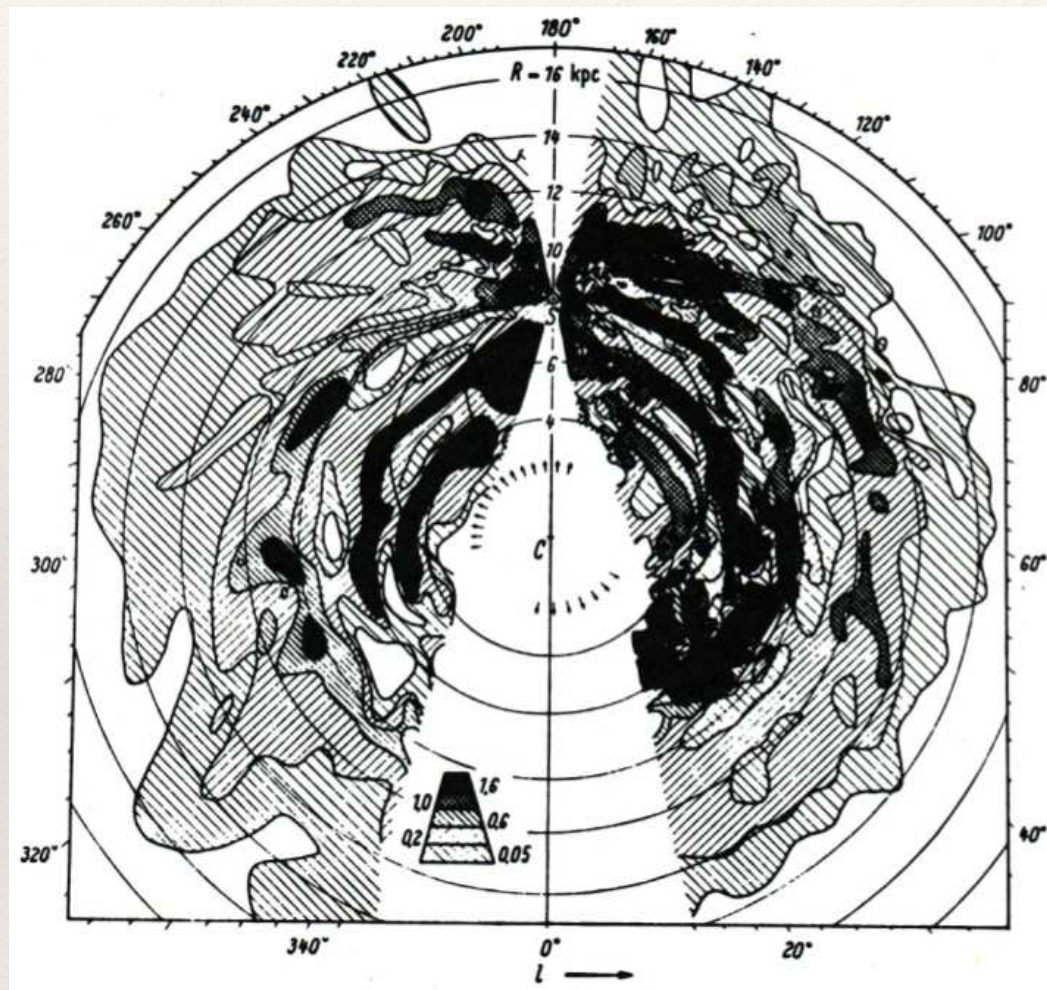
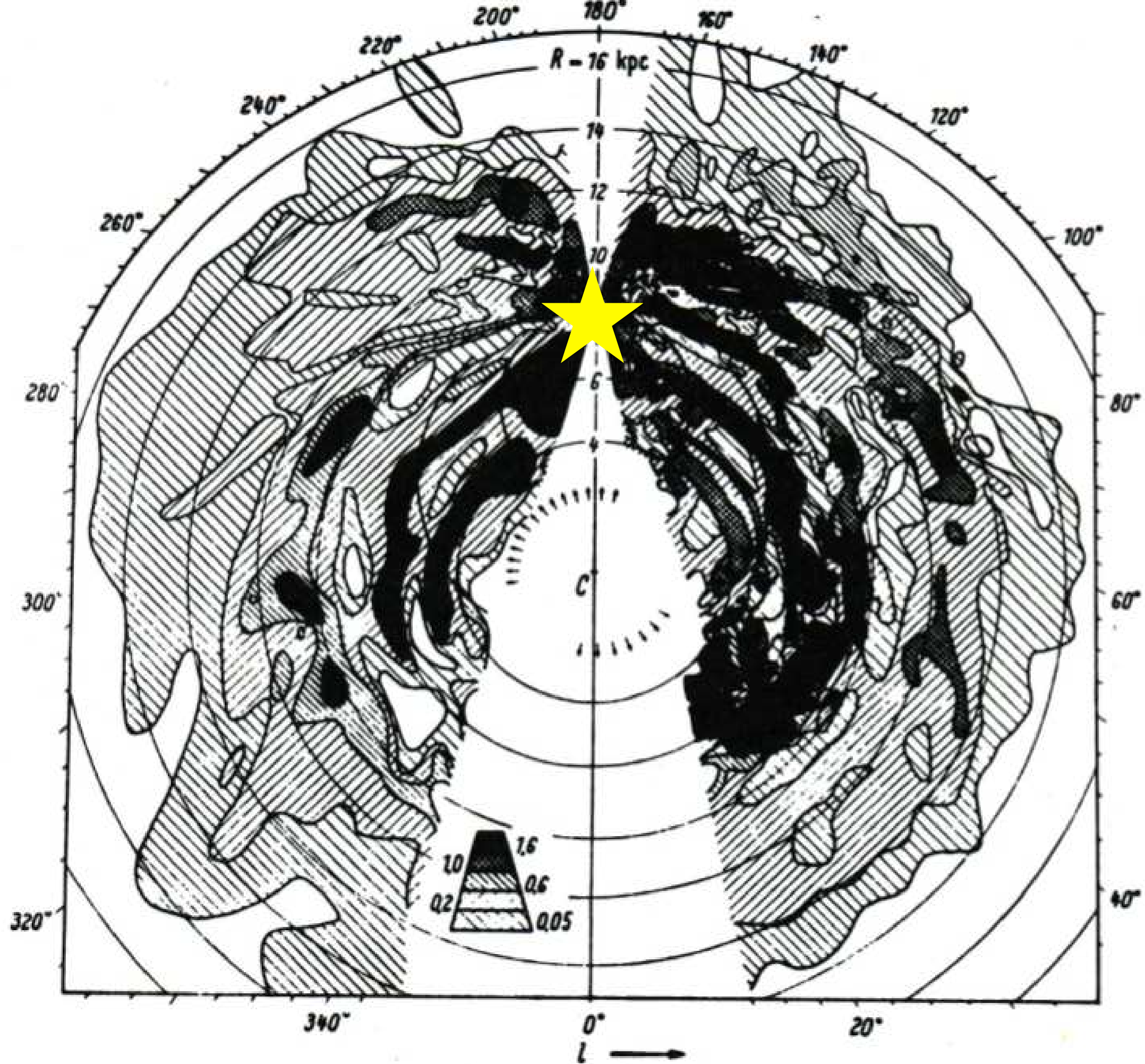


Fig. 1. Map of neutral atomic hydrogen (21-cm line) published by Oort (1959); figure taken from the text book Scheffler & Elsässer (1992). The Sun is in the upper part of the plot at 8 kpc.

1950s, early 1960s

Jan Oort maps
atomic hydrogen

Discovers Milky Way
spiral structure



Topics

- ❖ Background: the history of radio astronomy
- ❖ Single aperture radio dishes
- ❖ Interferometry

Radio telescope design

- ❖ The optical 'band' is roughly 400nm - 700nm
- ❖ By comparison, the 'radio band' spans >7 decades — from ~1cm ('ultra high frequency', 10s of GHz) -> 10,000m ('low frequency' 30 KHz)
- ❖ No single radio telescope design can be efficient for all of radio astronomy!

Why 'antennas'?

- ❖ Radio photons are pretty wimpy
- ❖ Photon energy, $E=h\nu$
- ❖ E.g., optical photon, 600nm wavelength...
- ❖ Energy = 2 eV (1 eV = 1.6×10^{-19} J)
- ❖ Radio photon, 1m wavelength...
- ❖ Energy = 0.0000001 eV!

Why ‘antennas’?

- ❖ Radio photons are pretty wimpy

❖ I

‘Photon counting’ doesn’t work!

❖ I

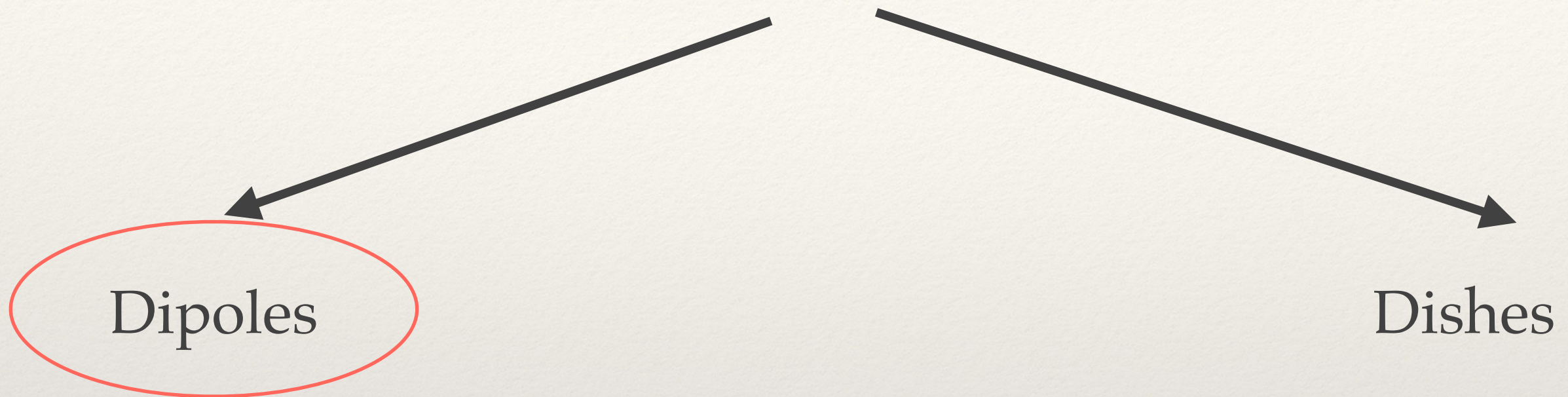
Need to think about measuring the
electric field instead

❖ I

- ❖ Radio photon, 1m wavelength...

- ❖ Energy = 0.0000001 eV!

Two main classes of radio telescope

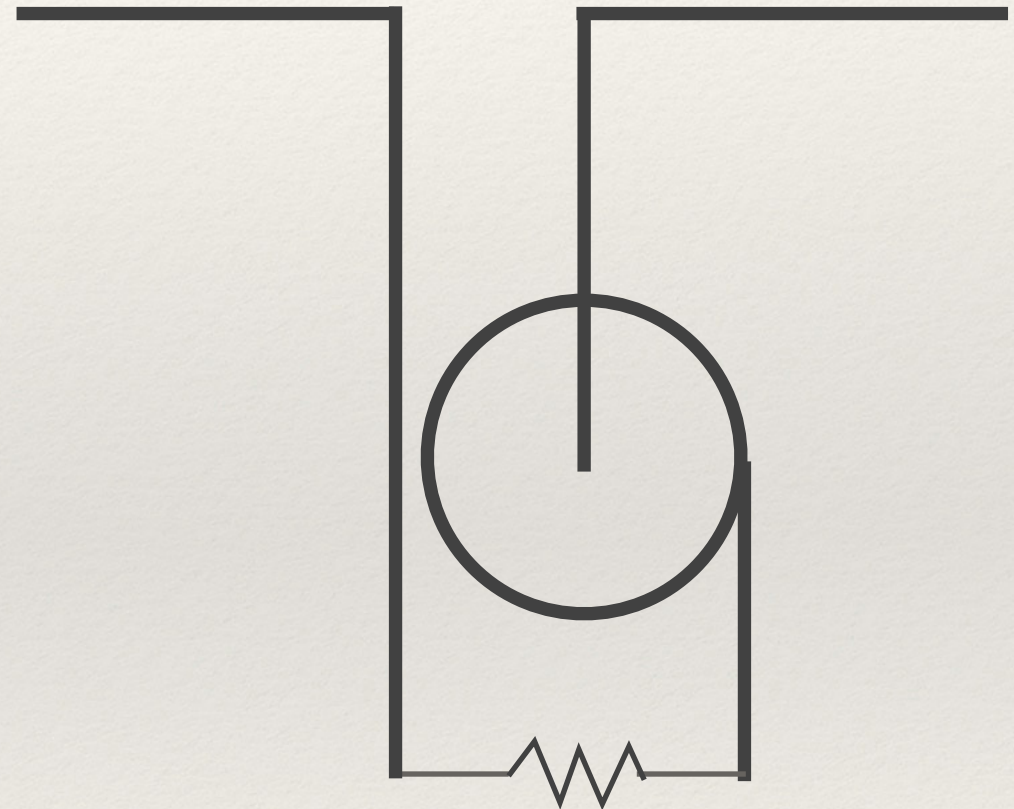


Dipoles are (relatively) simple

Dipoles operate at low frequency (= long wavelength, $> 1\text{m}$)

Dipole antennas

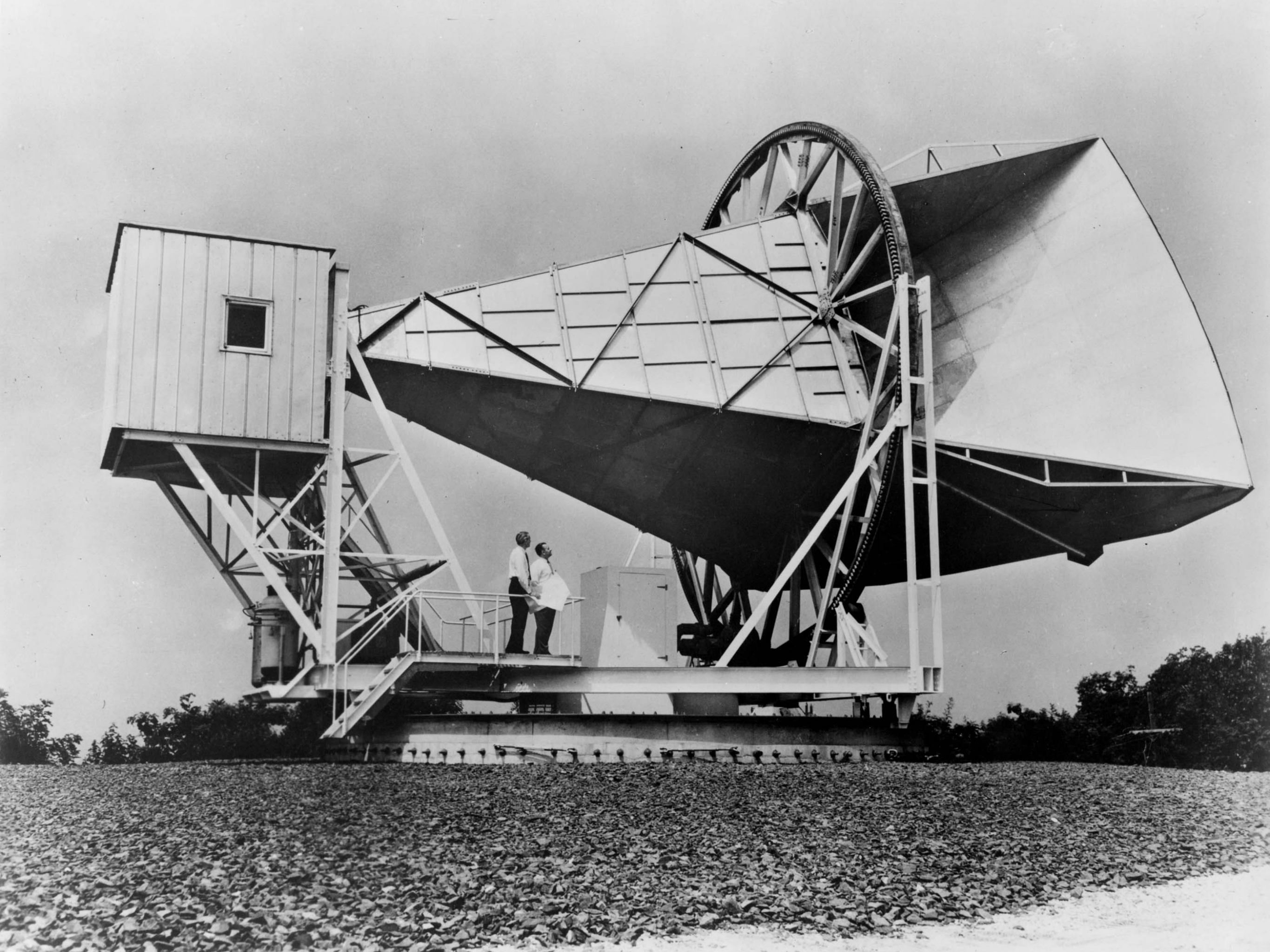
- ❖ E-field of incoming radiation sets up current in antenna
- ❖ Voltage measured across resistor
- ❖ Current induced by field parallel to antenna





Waveguide horns

- ❖ Towards higher frequencies, getting good sensitivity requires 'directive aperture antennas'
- ❖ One example: waveguide horn



Waveguide horns

- ❖ Towards higher frequencies, getting good sensitivity requires 'directive aperture antennas'
- ❖ One example: waveguide horn
- ❖ Advantages: lack of structure means that there is little blocking the aperture. Can calculate absolute flux densities easily! Large dishes typically only measure relative flux densities, and require calibration sources

Two main classes of radio telescope



Dishes (AKA parabolic telescopes)

Used at high frequencies

Boundary between dish and dipole is ~ 300 MHz

This will shift to higher frequencies as technology improves



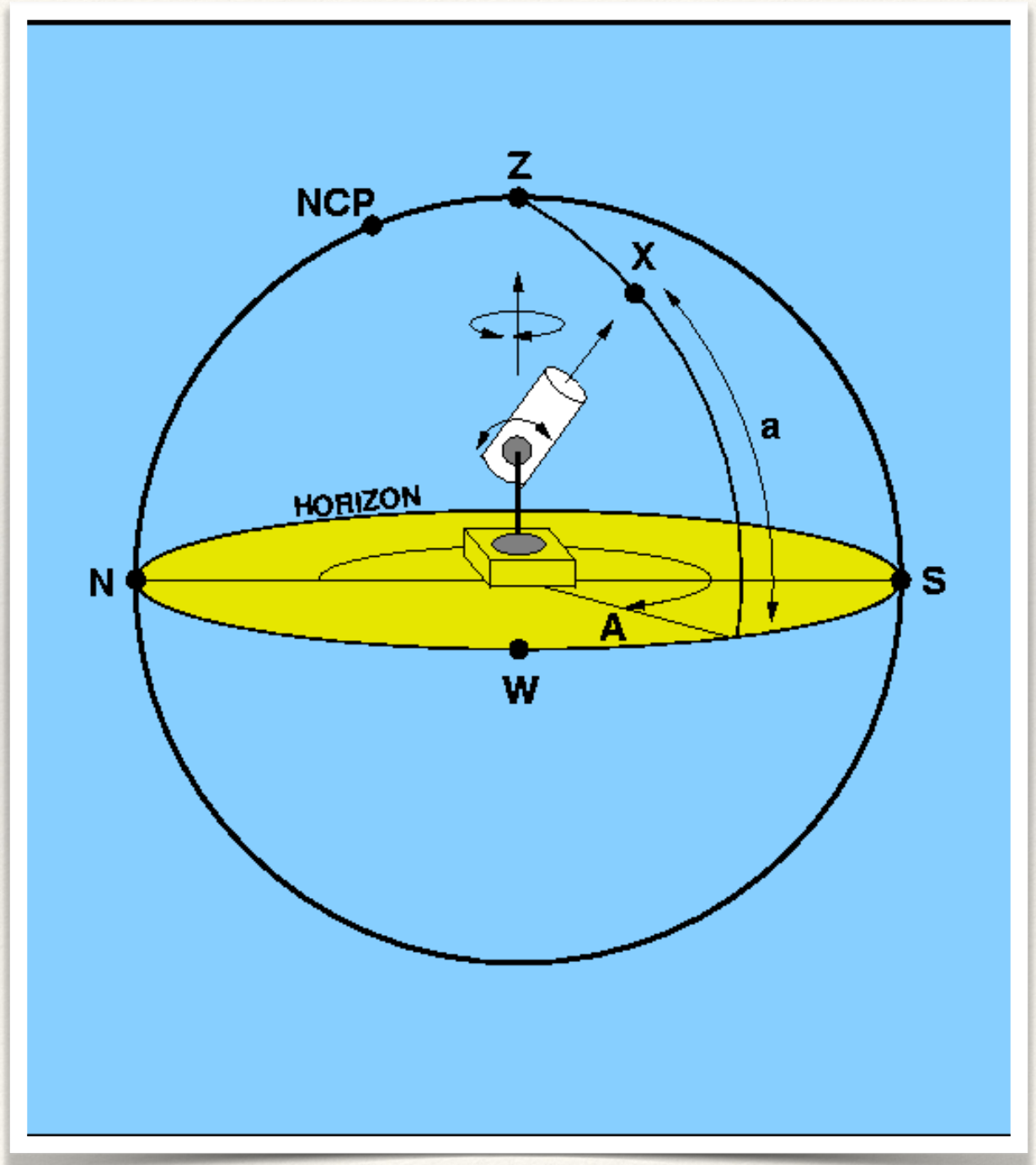
Cambridge
1 Mile Telescope

Manchester
Lovell Telescope

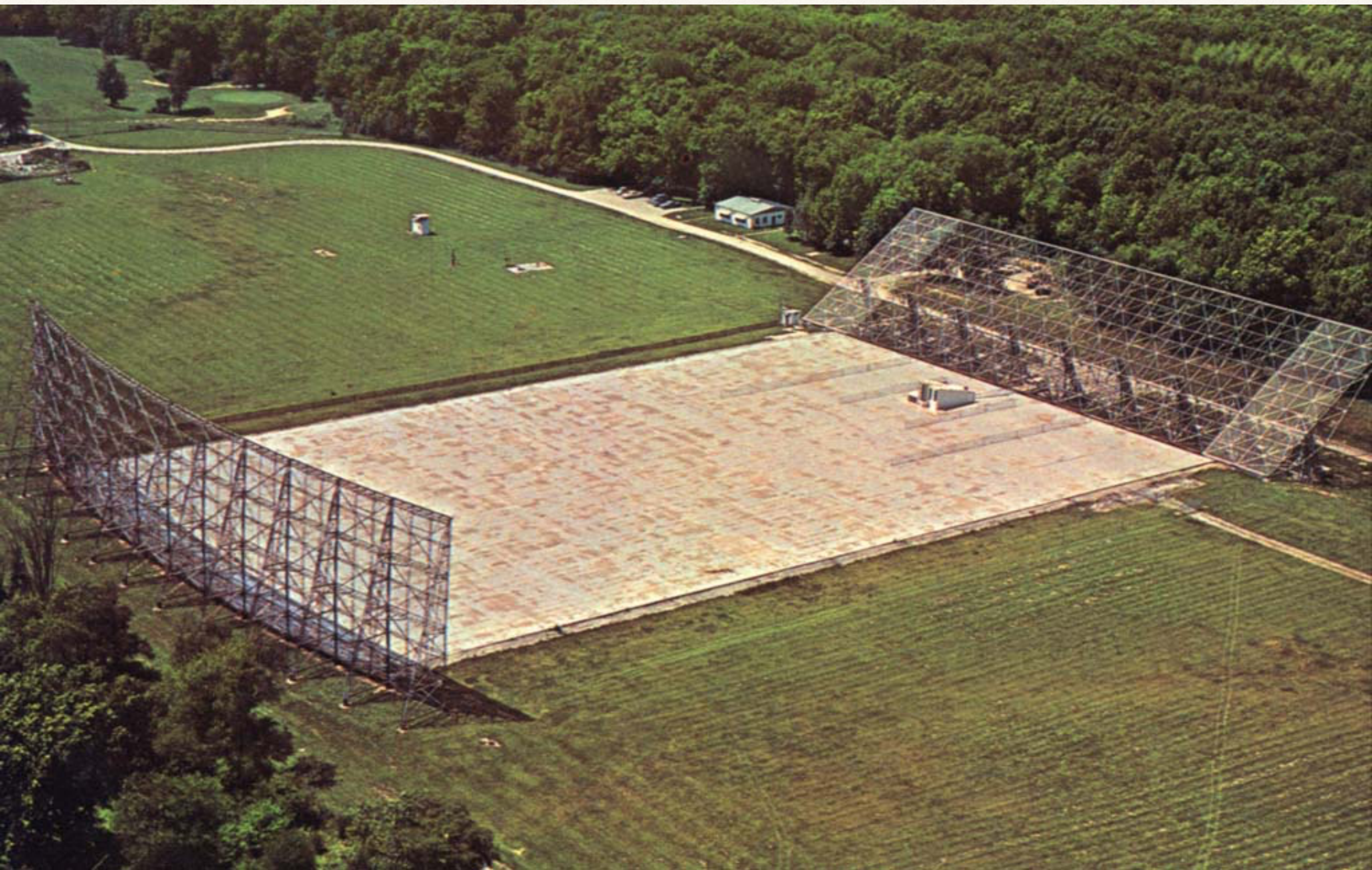


Alt-Az mount

- ❖ Most modern radio telescopes use an “Alt-Az mount” (rotate around 2 axes)



Other weird telescope designs...





Angular resolution of radio telescope

How to think about the sensitivity of a radio telescope?

**Reciprocity theorem: any radio receiver
can, equally, be thought of as a radio
transmitter**

(This is technically because Maxwell's equations are time-reversible)

Angular resolution of radio telescope

How to think about the sensitivity of a radio telescope?

**Reciprocity theorem: any radio receiver
can, equally, be thought of as a radio
transmitter**

So, if we imagine what the properties of the telescope are as a transmitter, that tells us its properties as a receiver

Angular resolution of radio telescope

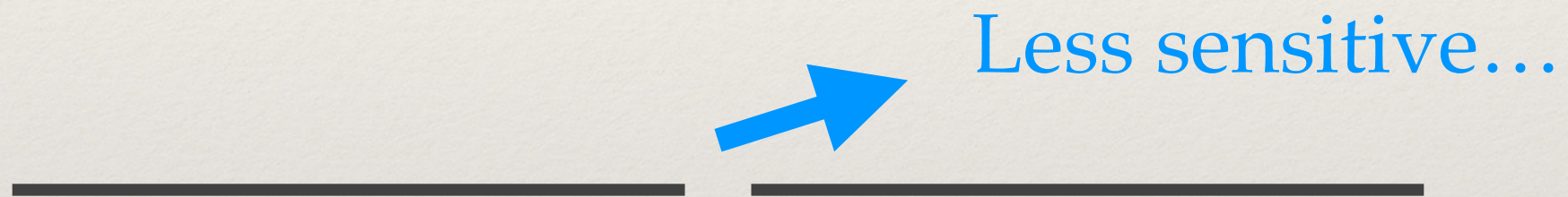


Angular resolution of radio telescope

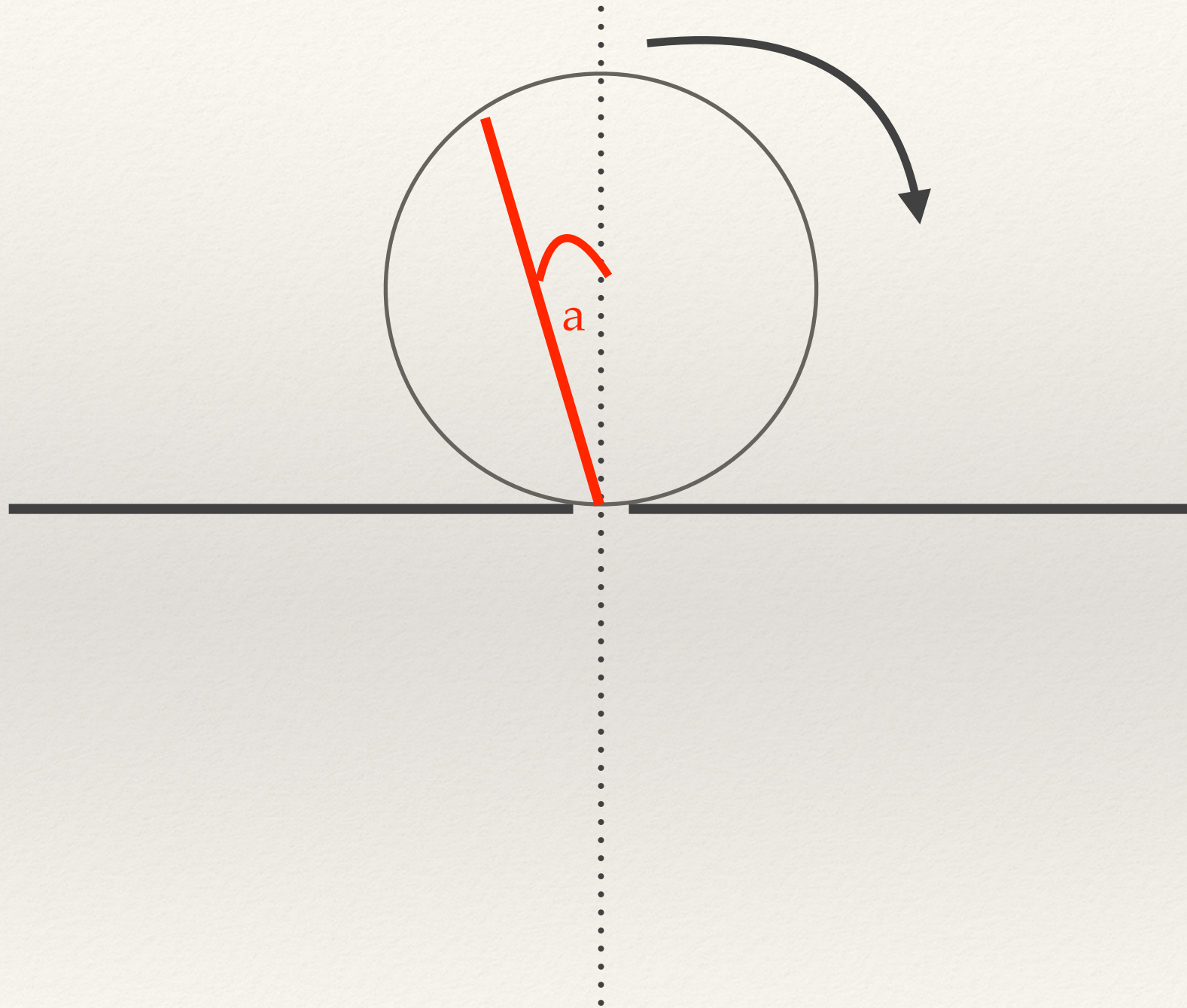
Very sensitive!



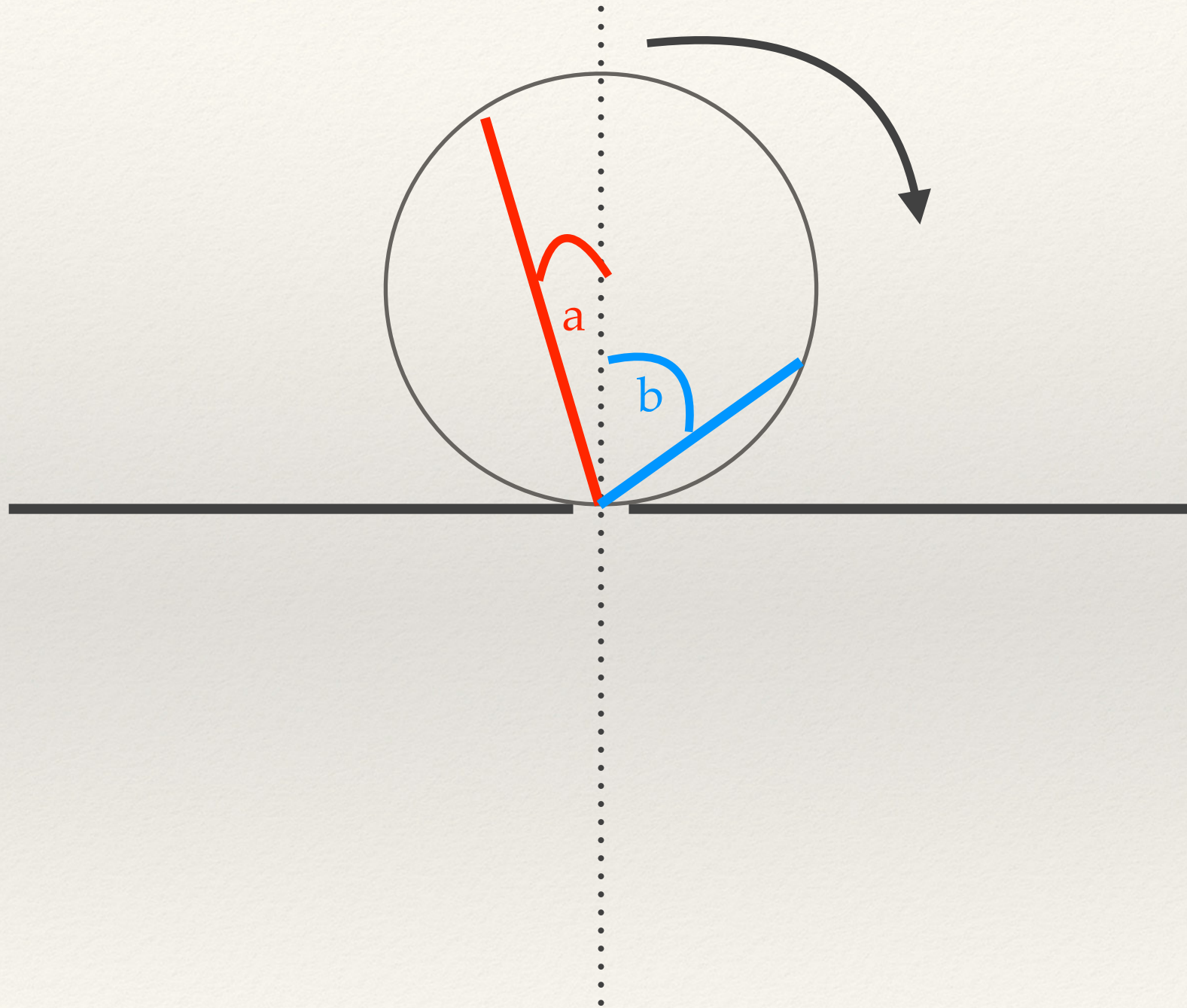
Angular resolution of radio telescope



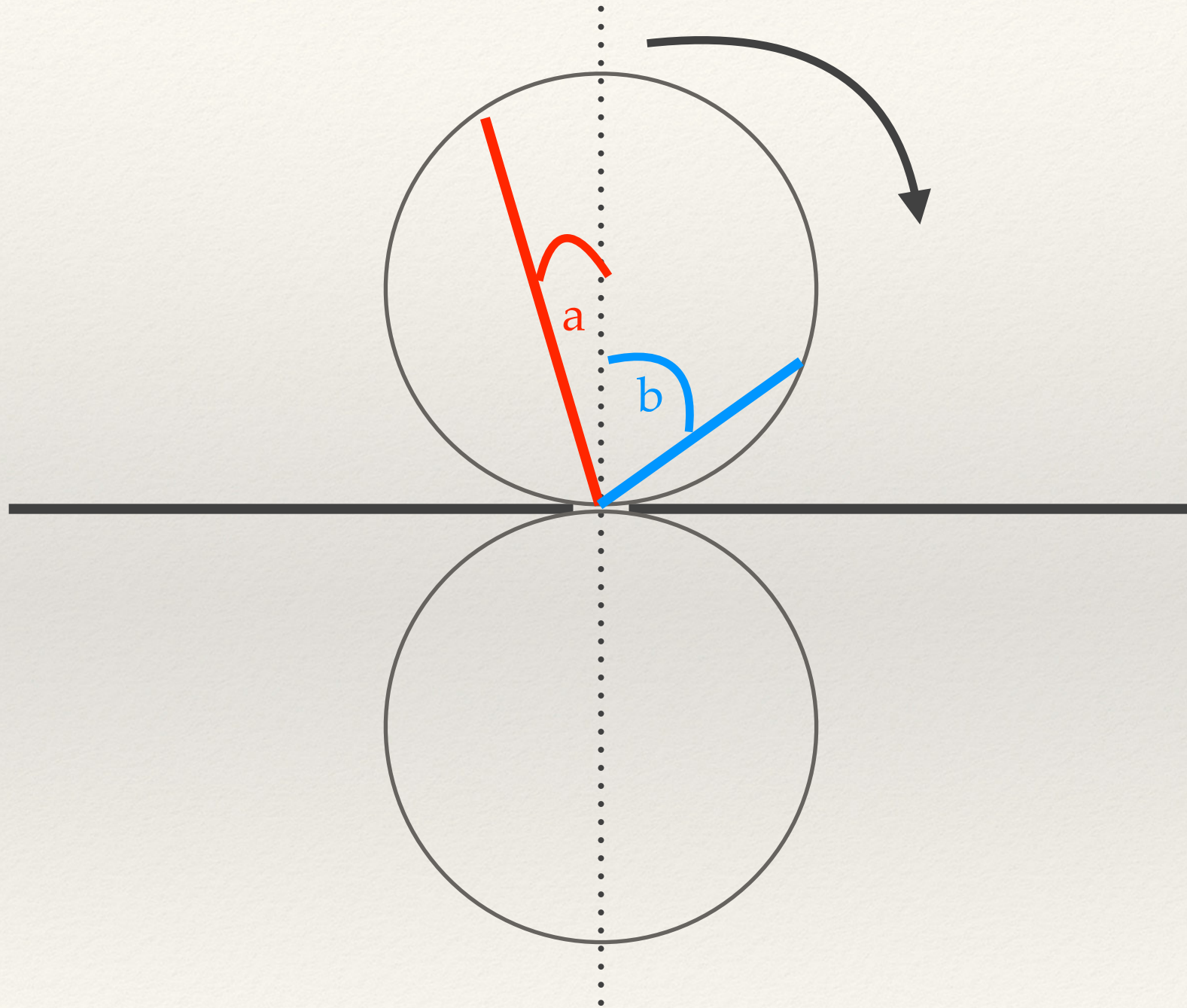
Angular resolution of radio telescope



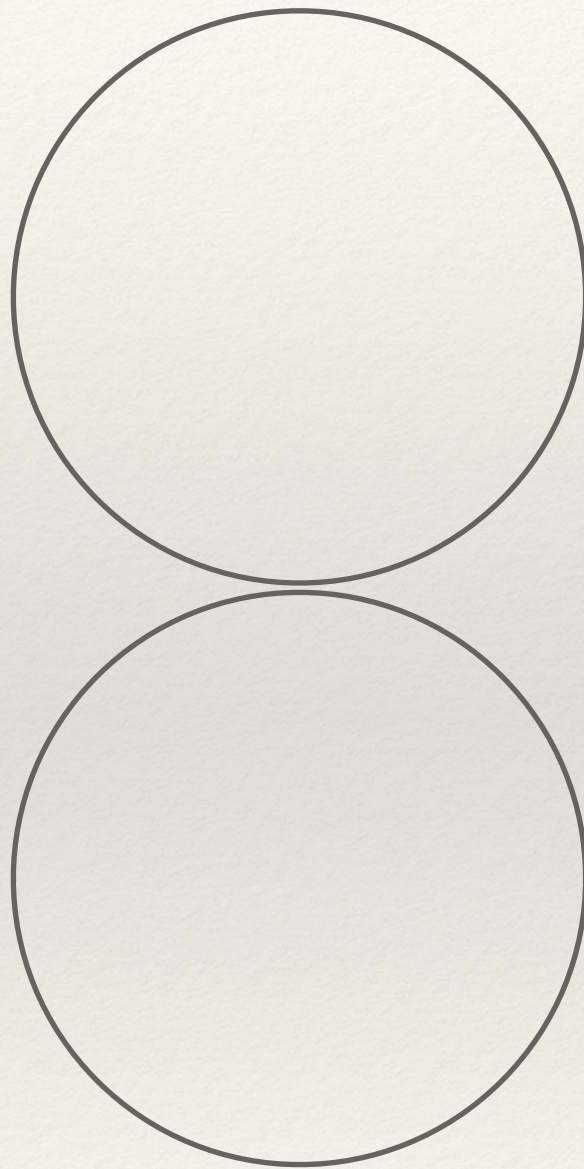
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Angular resolution of radio telescope



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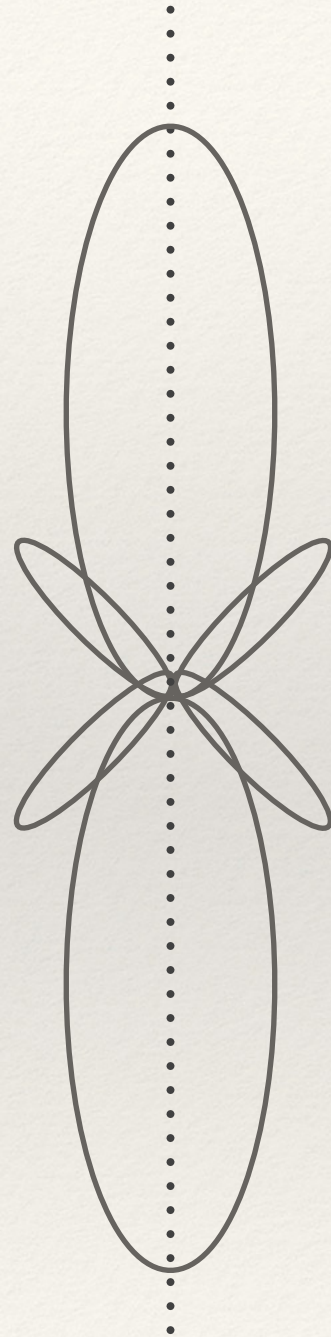


Polar diagram
for most basic
dipole

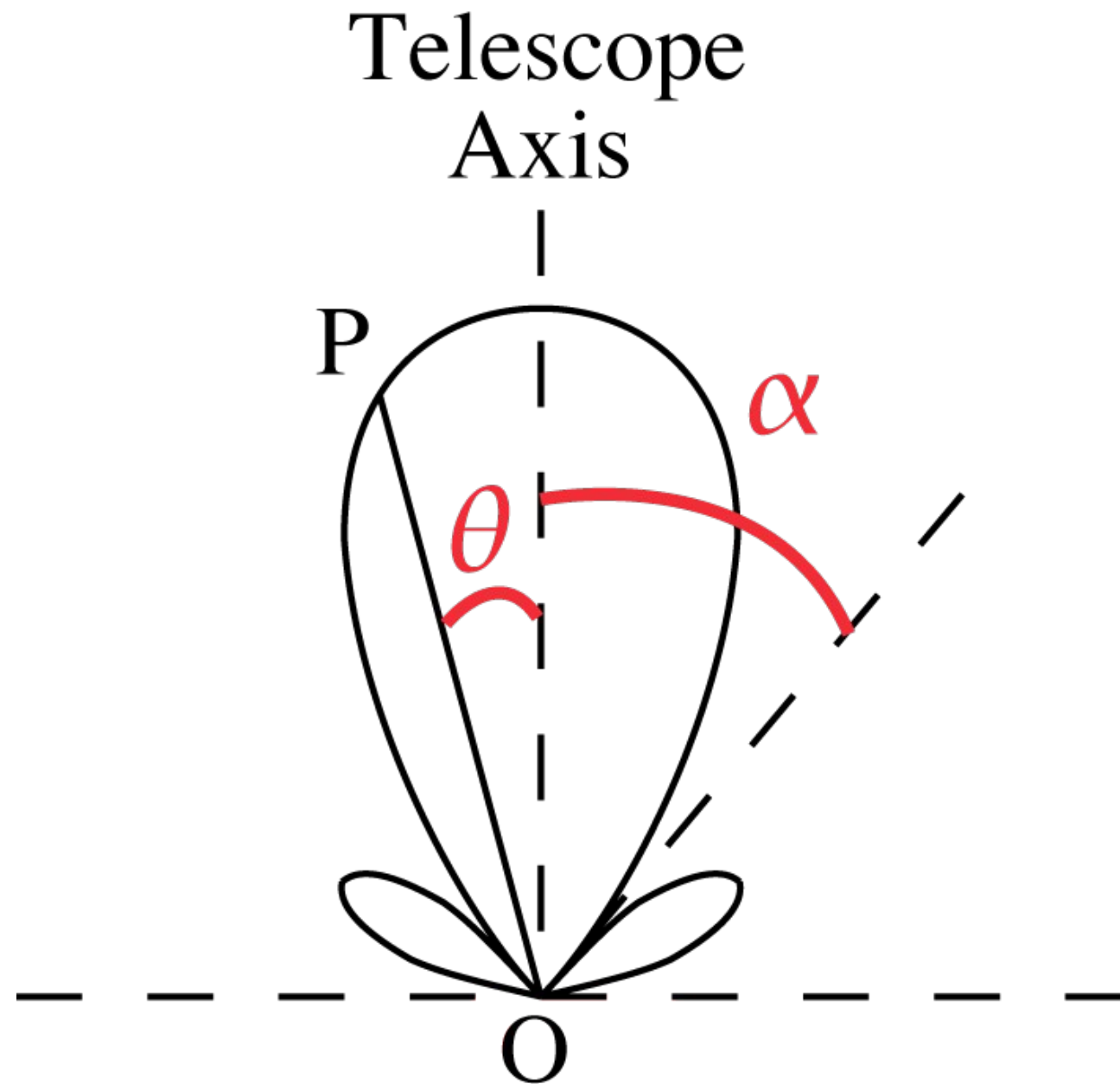
Angular resolution of radio telescope



Angular resolution of radio telescope

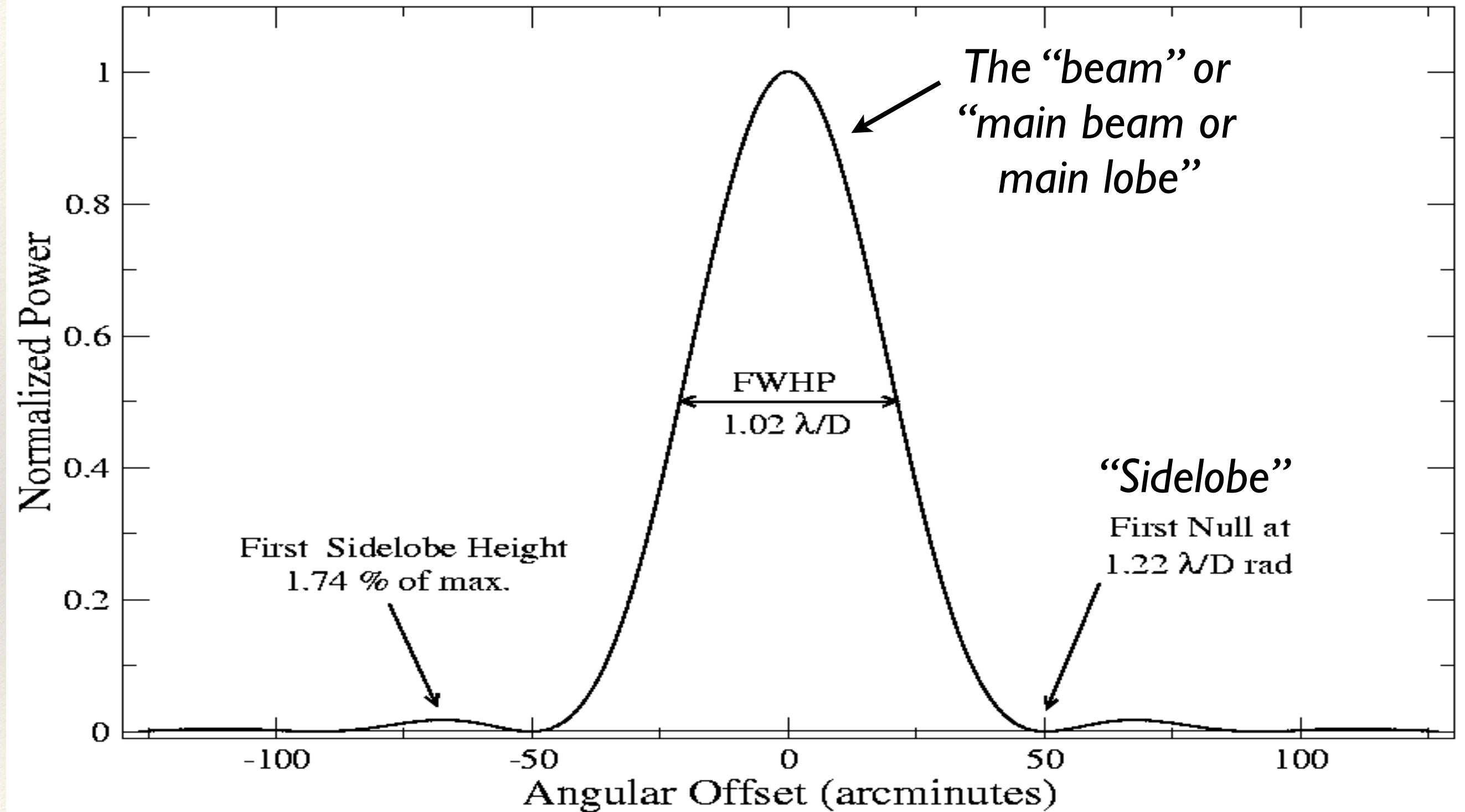


Angular resolution of radio telescope



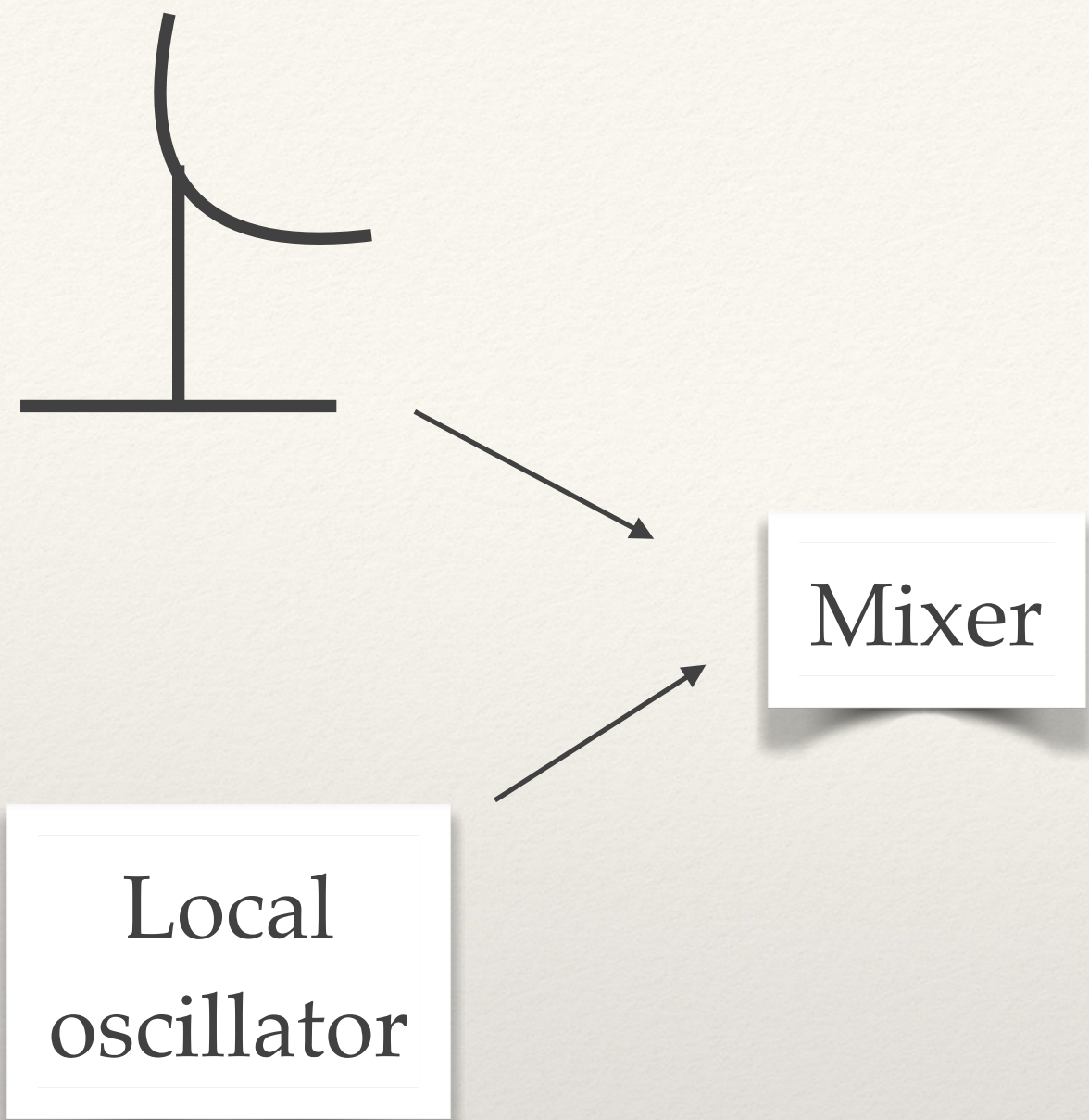
Antenna Power Response at 1 GHz

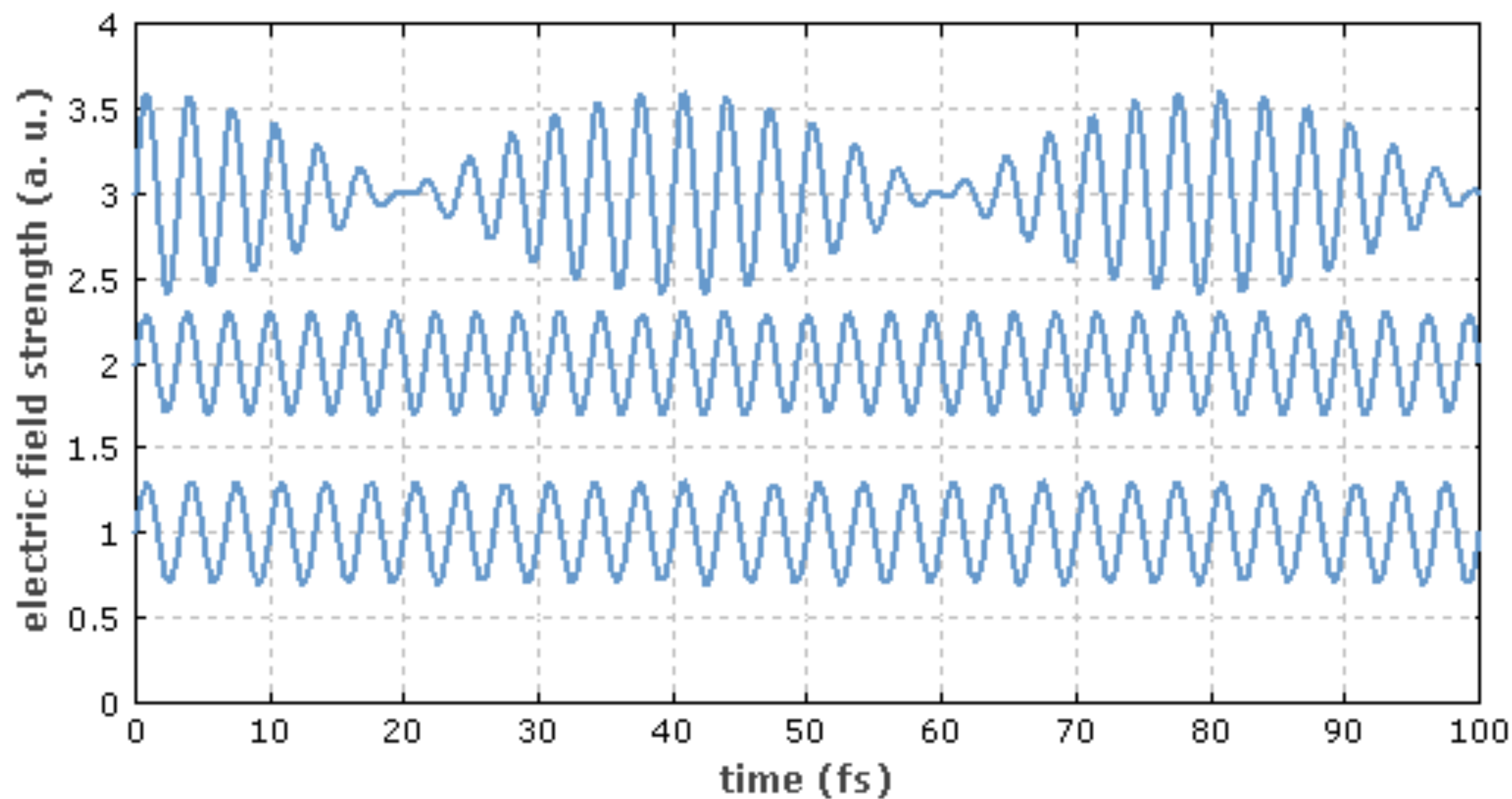
25-meter diameter, uniform illumination

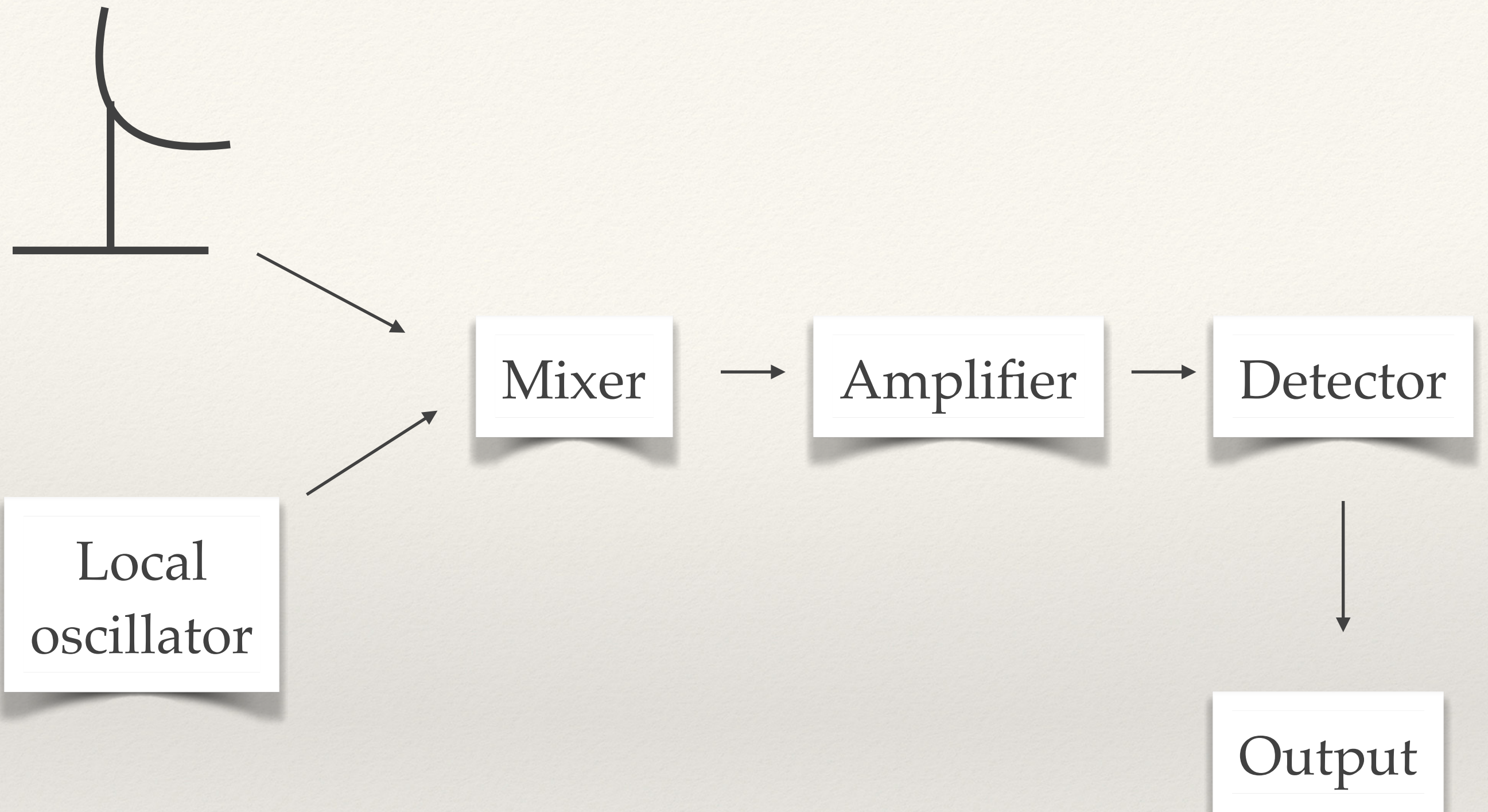


The Heterodyne receiver

- ❖ Sensitive to incoming electric field
- ❖ Frequency of incoming signal is down-converted by a reference signal (mixer), which is generated locally
- ❖ The resulting lower frequency signal is easier to sample and study
- ❖ (*Hetro* = different, *dyne* = frequency)







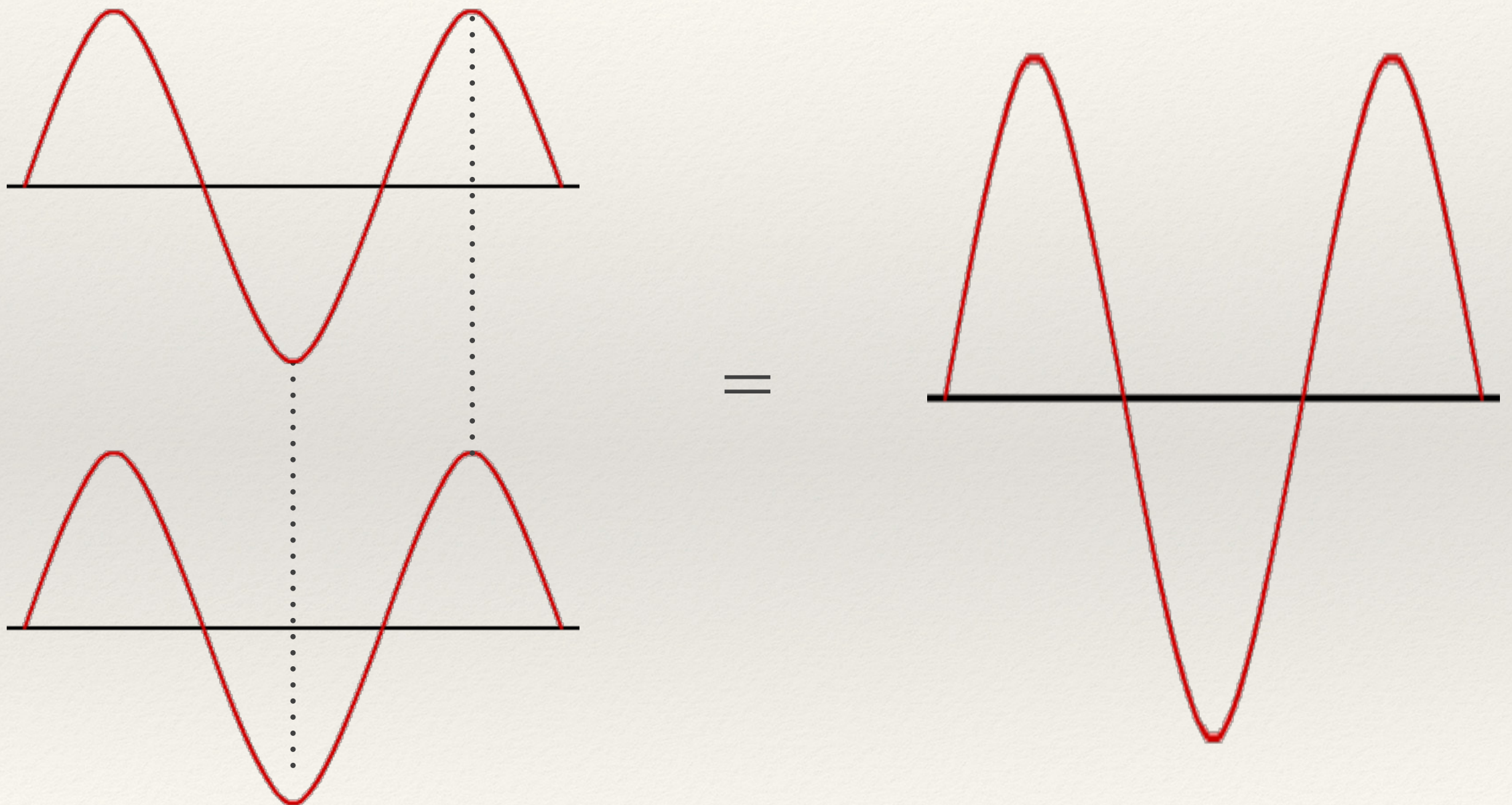
Lecture 3 topics

- ❖ Background: the history of radio astronomy
- ❖ Single aperture radio dishes
- ❖ Interferometry

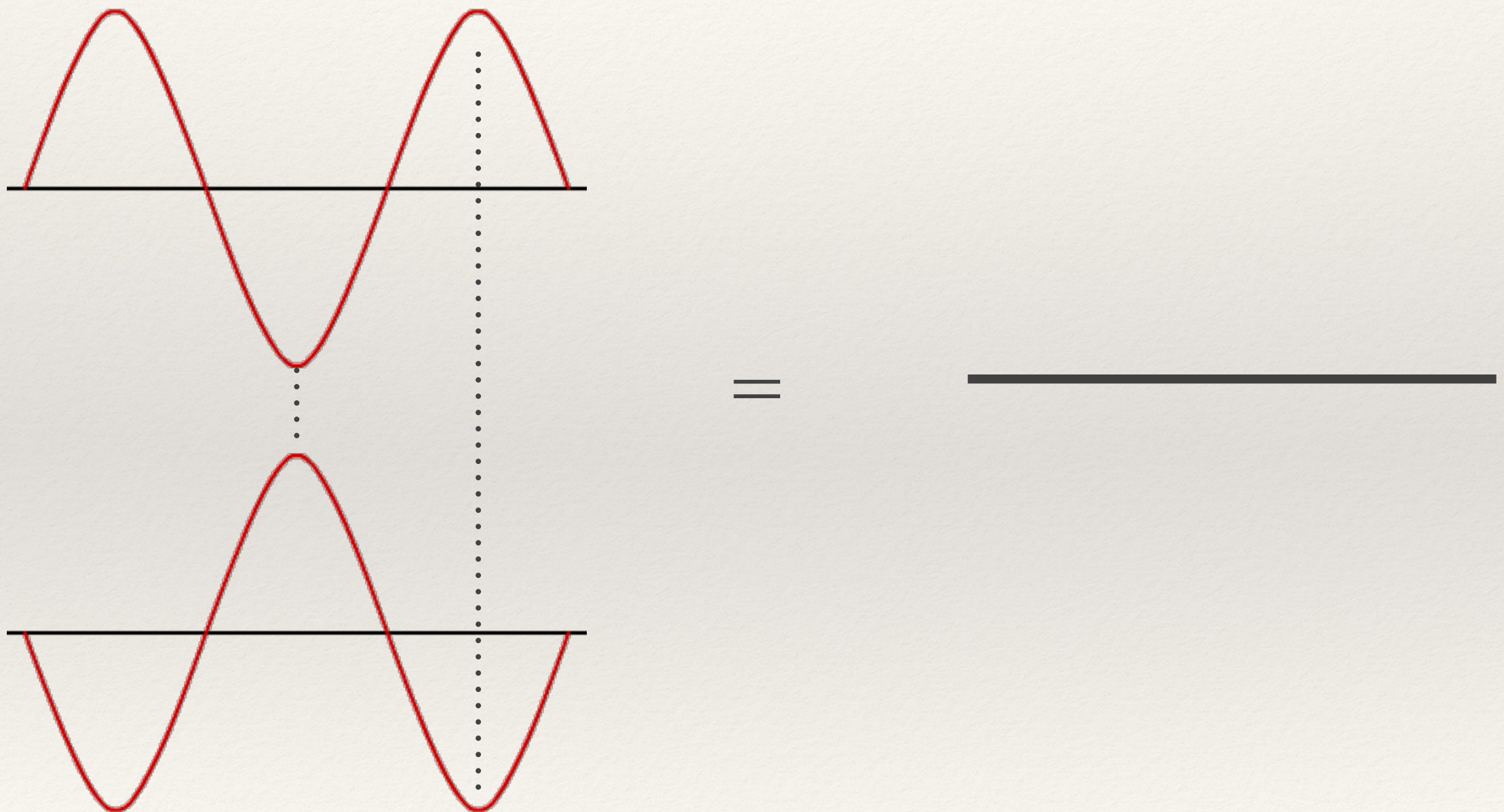
Introduction to Interferometry

- ❖ Rather than using single telescopes, it's possible to link up *networks* of telescopes, and use them as a single large instrument
- ❖ The angular resolution of the interferometer depends on the dish *separation*, not the diameter
- ❖ Critical thing: what is measured is not the signal, but the *phase difference* between each pair of receivers

Background: adding waves

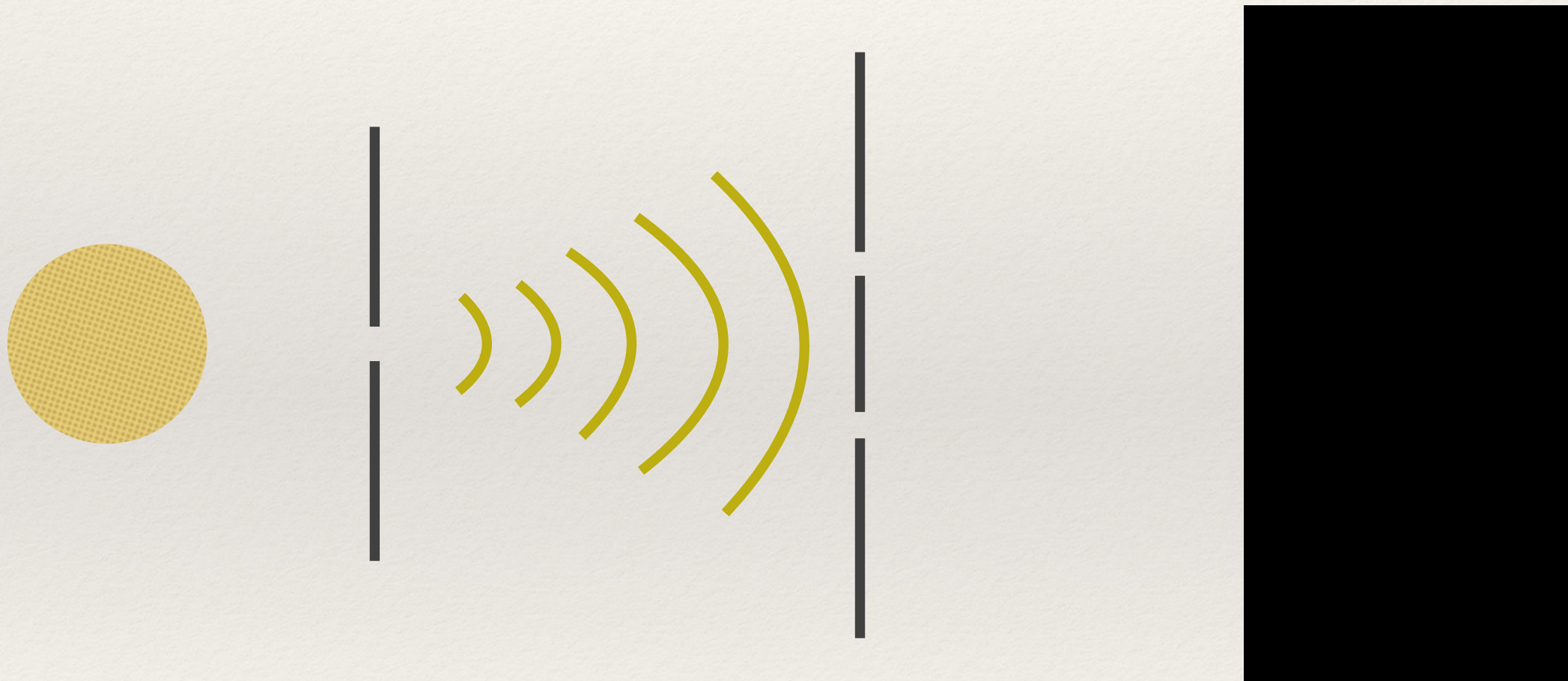


Background: adding waves



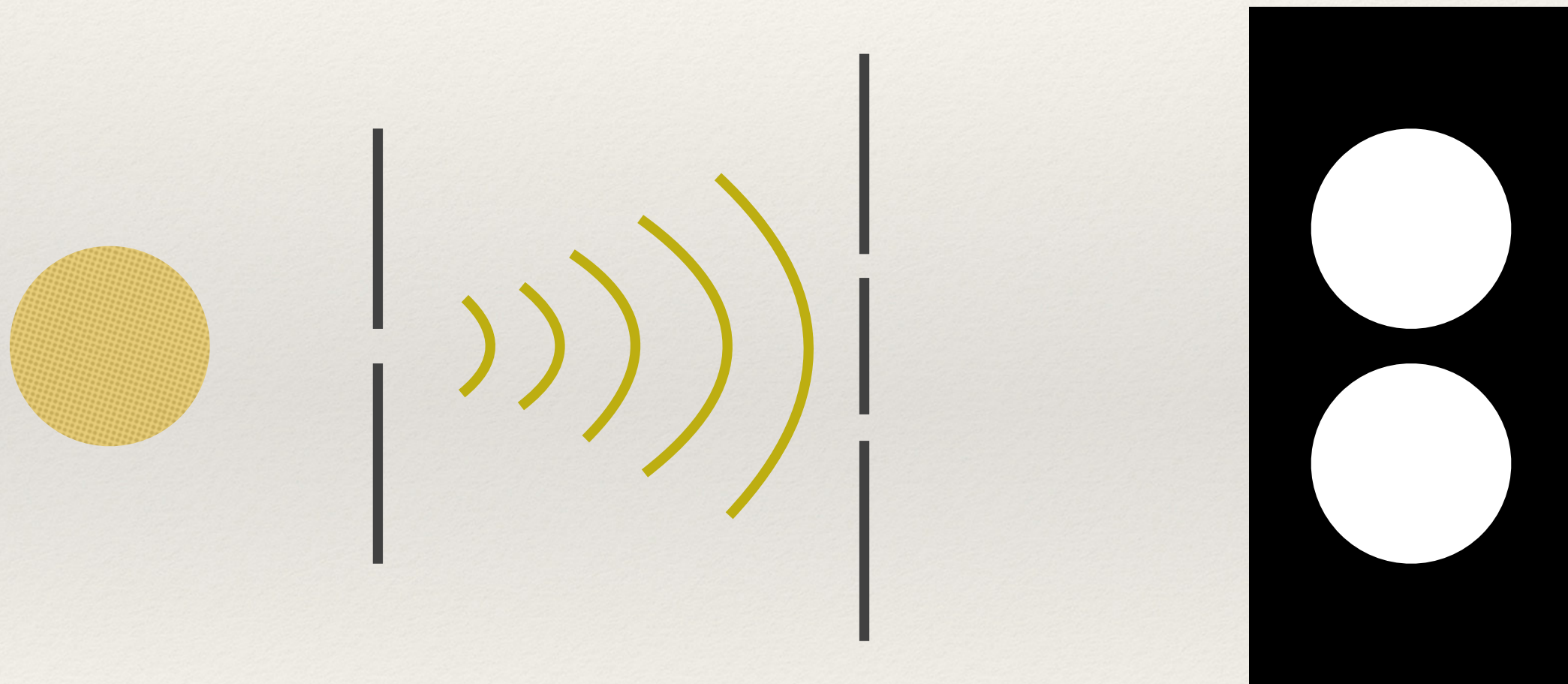
Background: adding waves

Young's "two slit experiment"



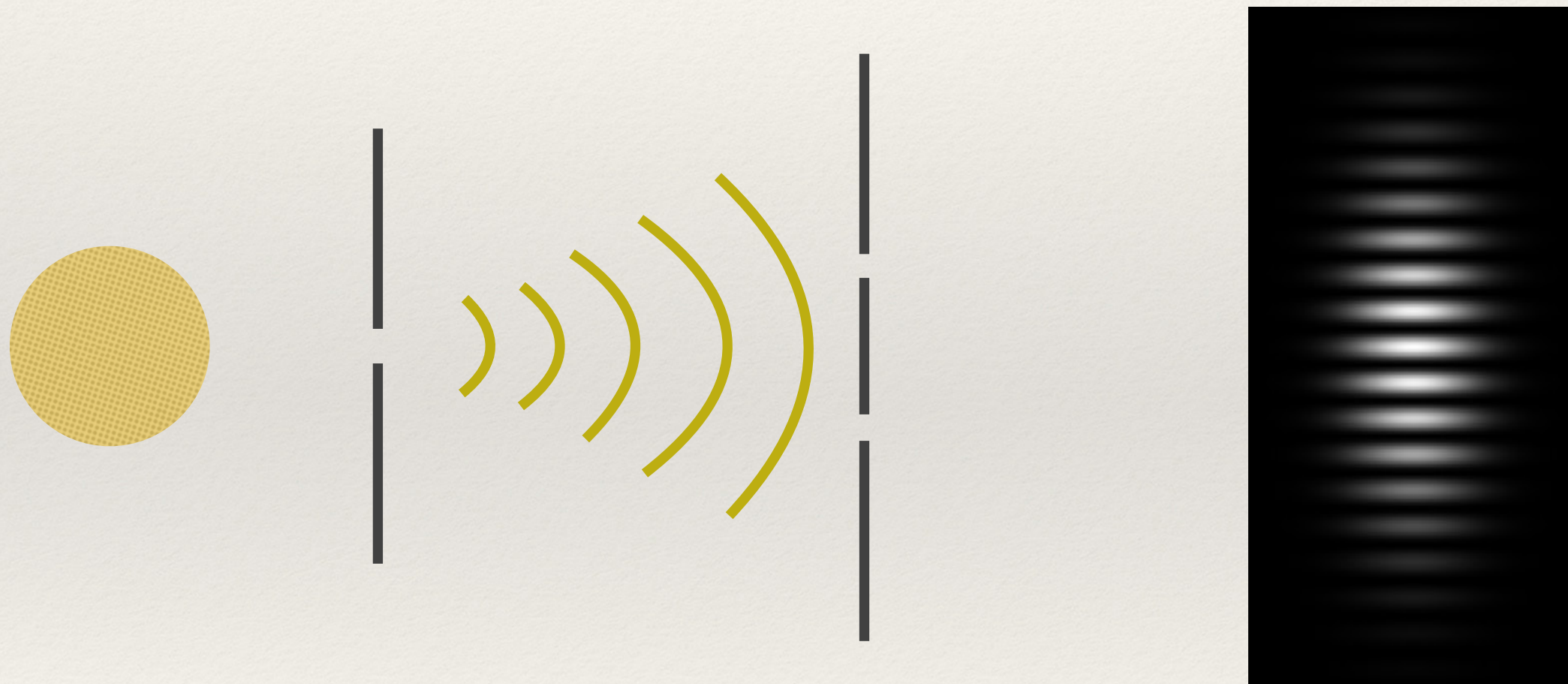
Background: adding waves

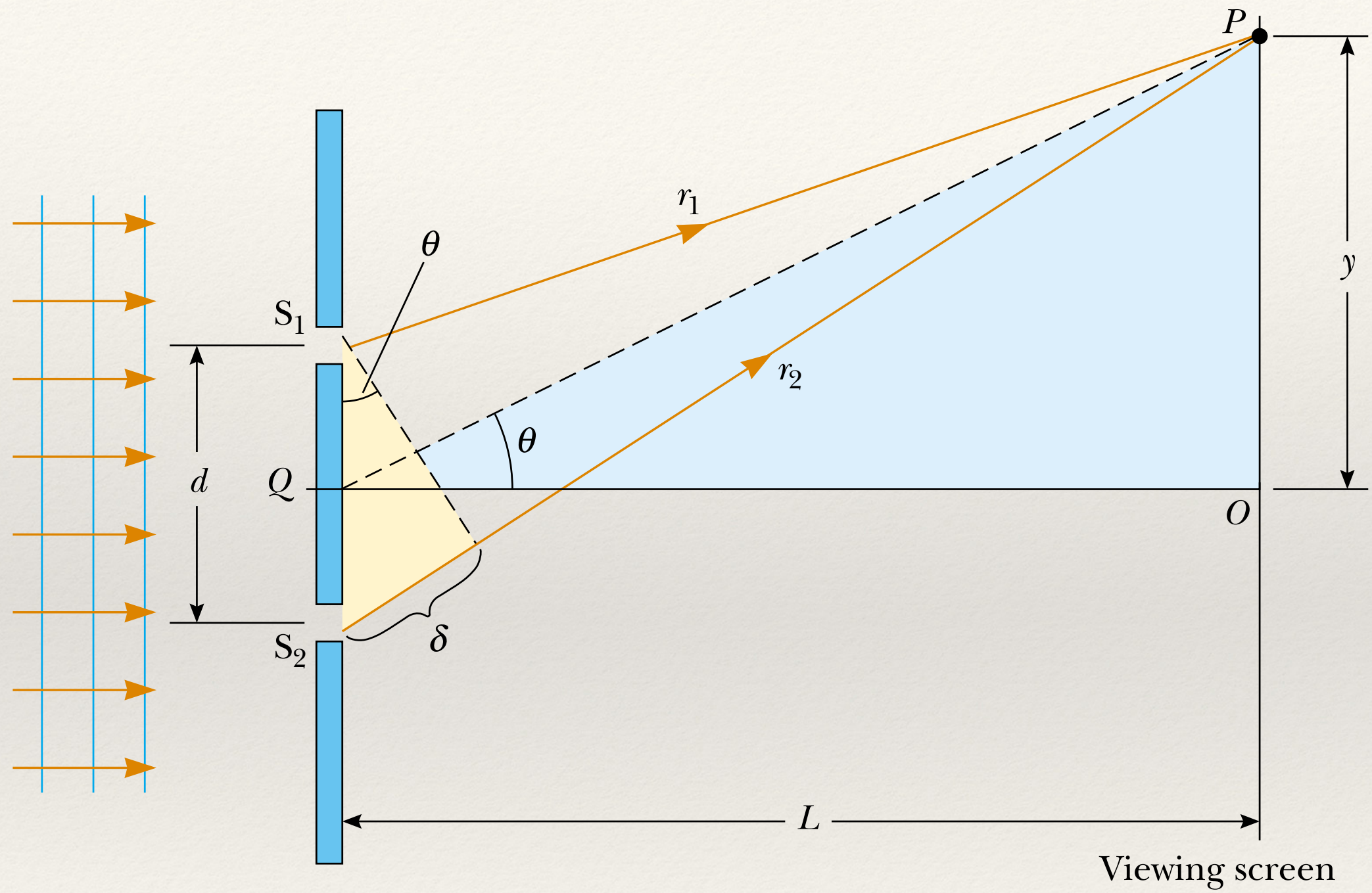
Young's "two slit experiment"

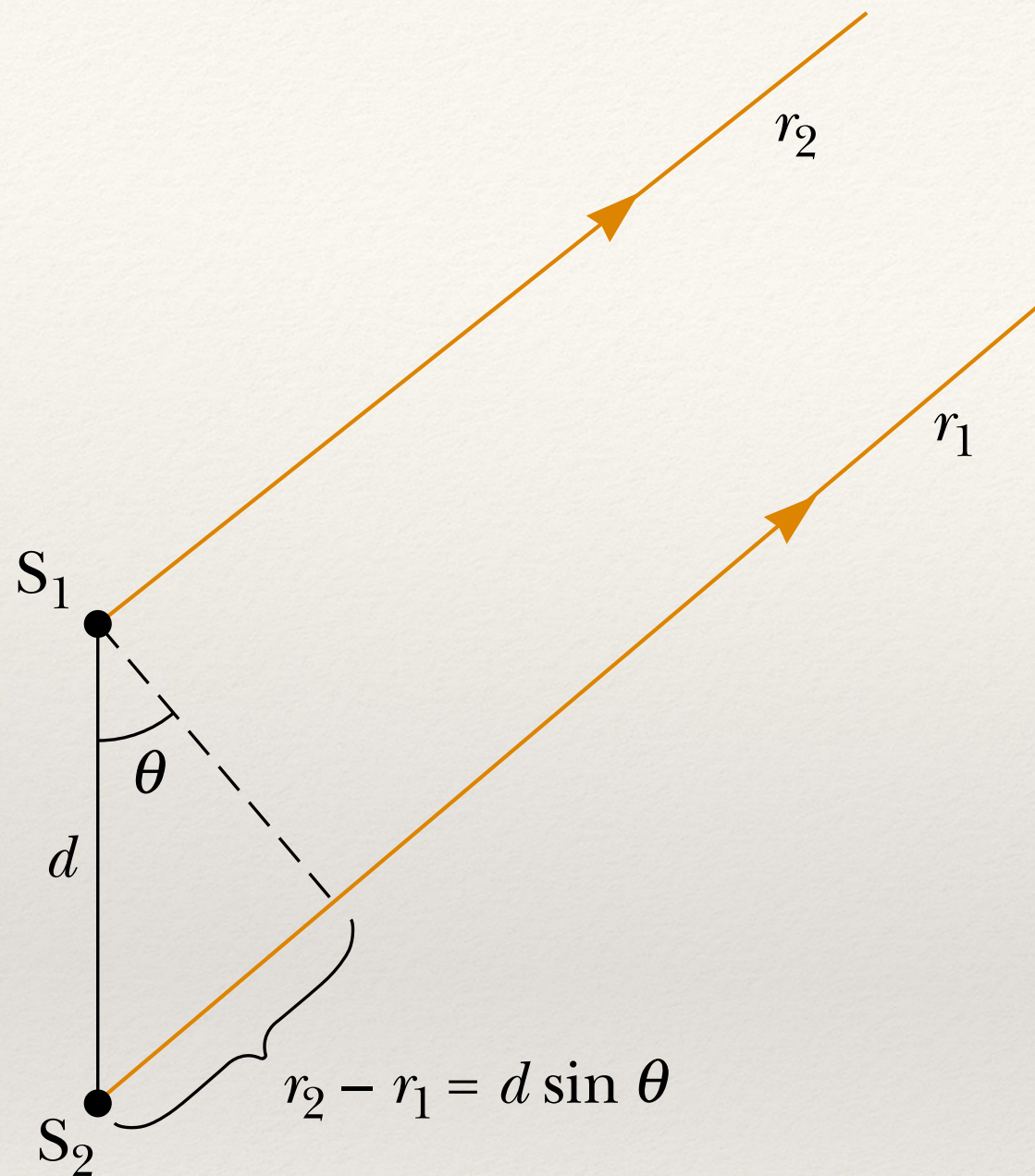


Background: adding waves

Young's "two slit experiment"







$$d \sin \theta = m \lambda$$

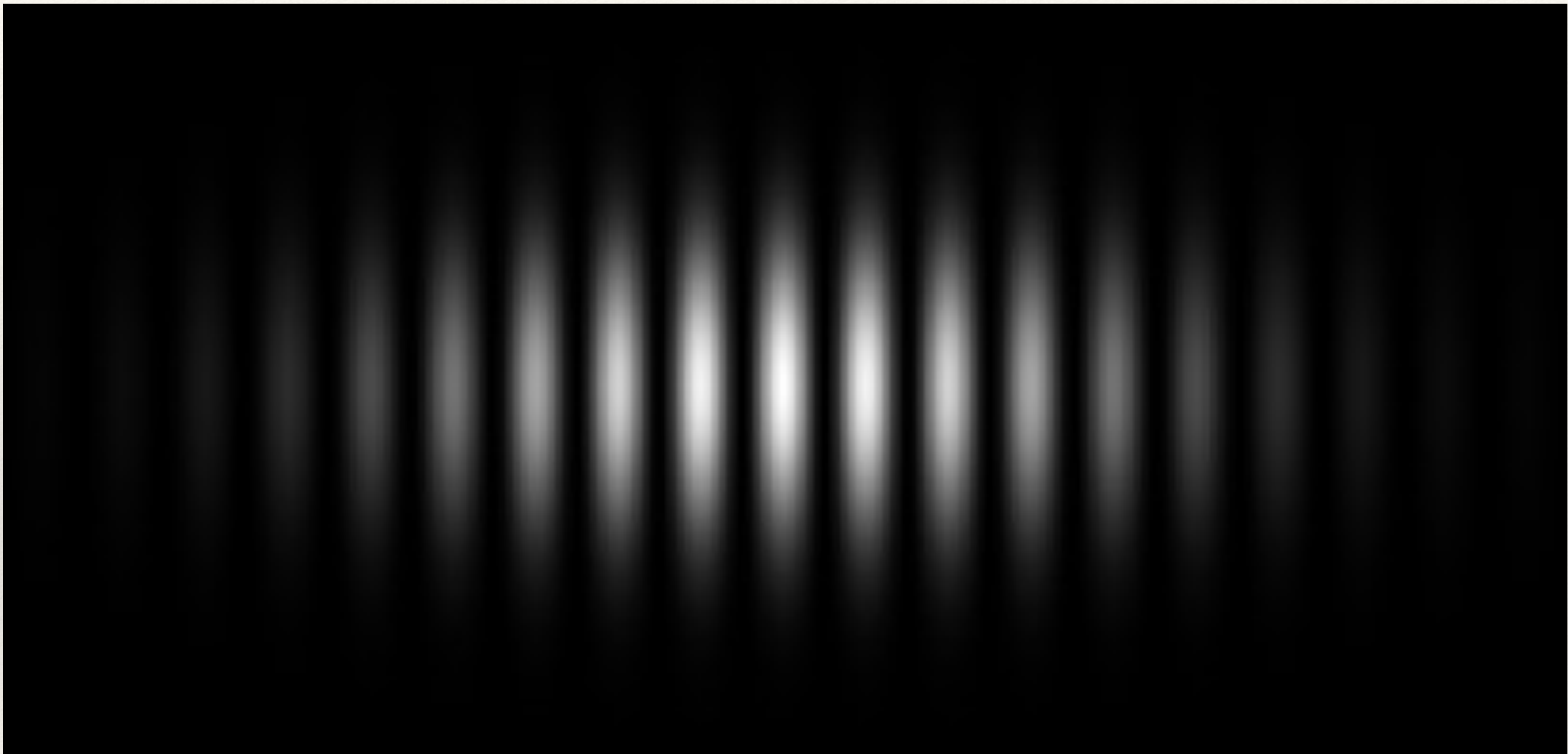
= constructive interference.

Bright patch

$$d \sin \theta = (m + 1/2) \lambda$$

= destructive interference.

Dark patch



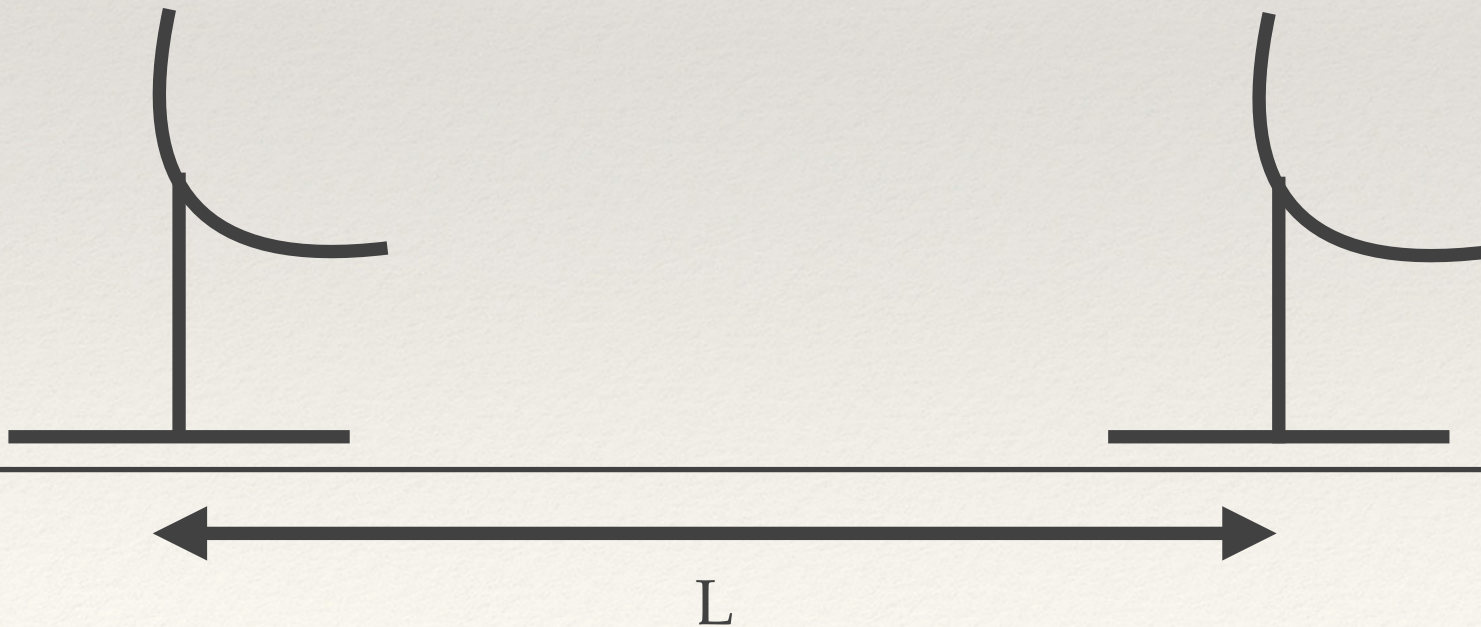
This is how interferometry works

- ❖ Combine signal from 2 (or more!) telescopes
- ❖ These produce an interference pattern caused by the phase differences
- ❖ Use interference pattern to reconstruct information about source
- ❖ Can obtain far higher resolutions than single dish instruments (can be >0.05 arcseconds)

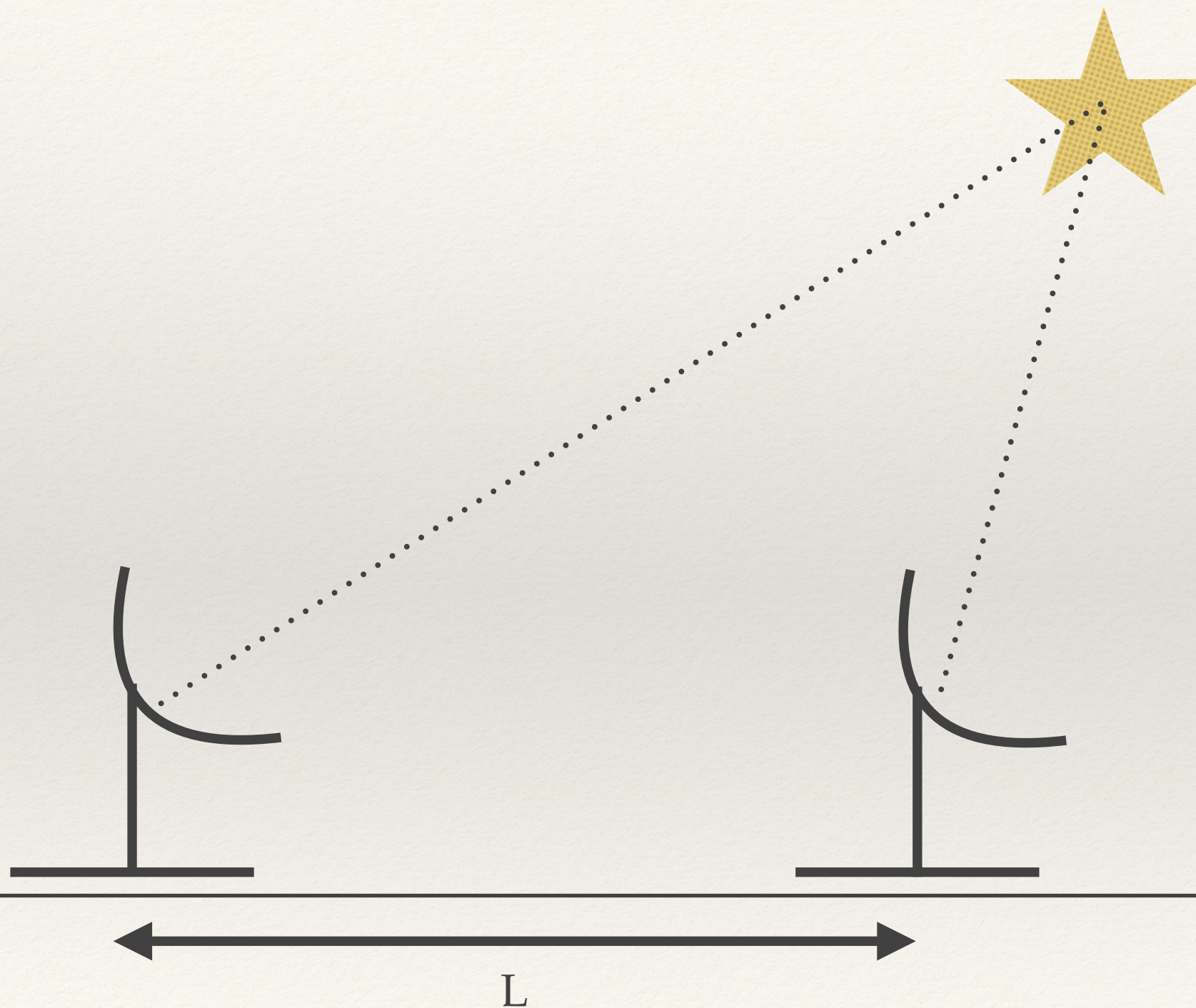
Two-element interferometer



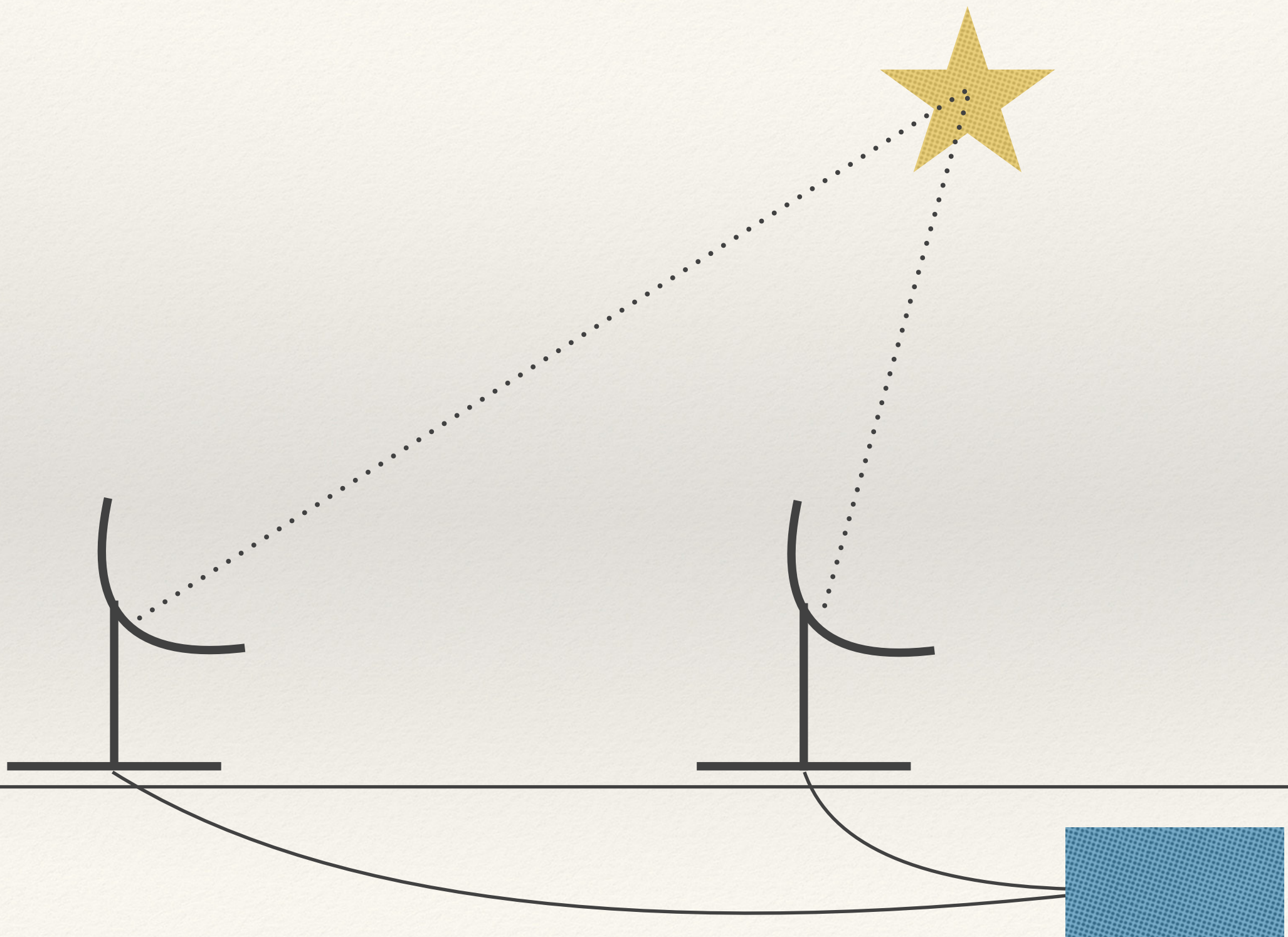
Two-element interferometer



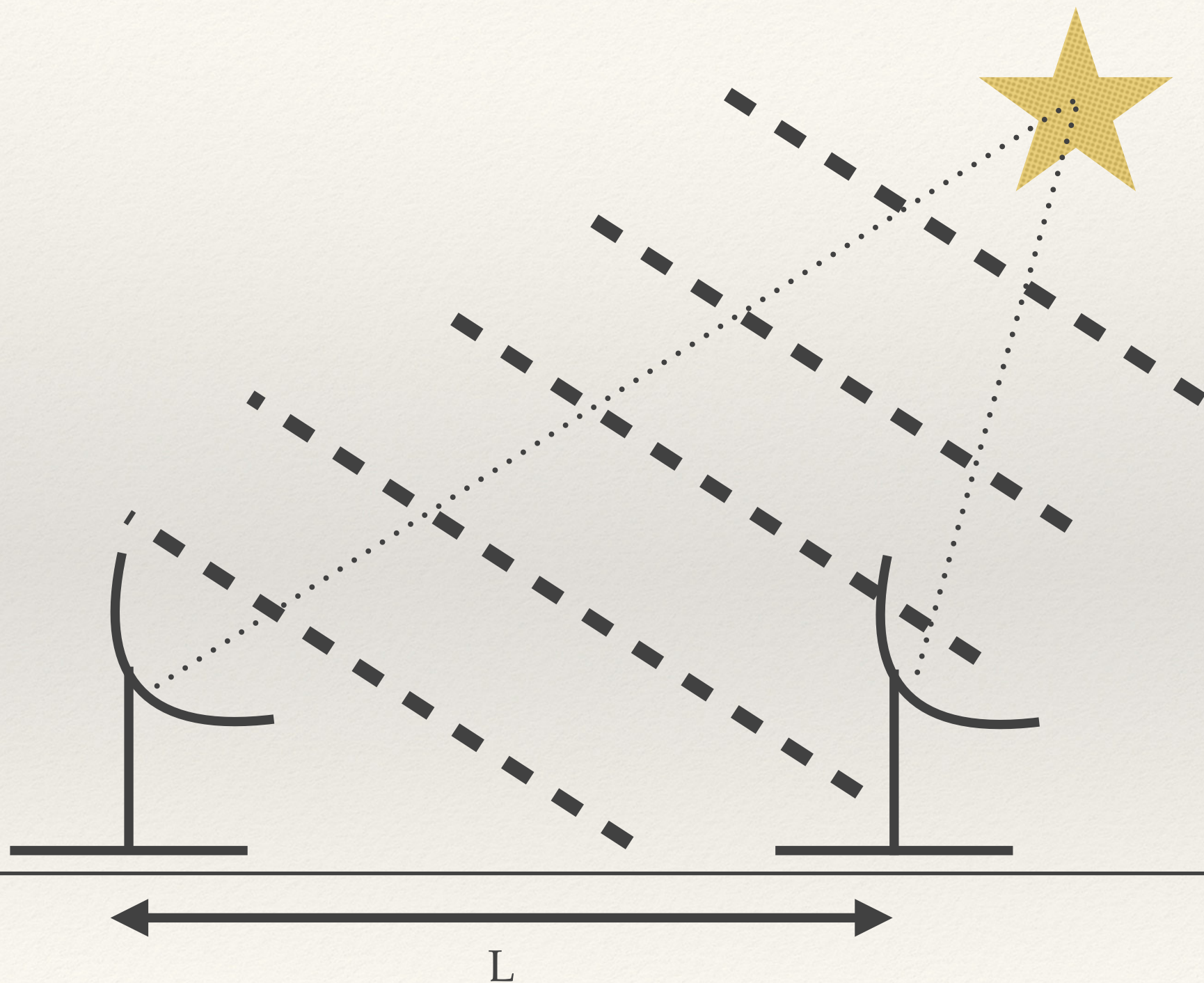
Two-element interferometer



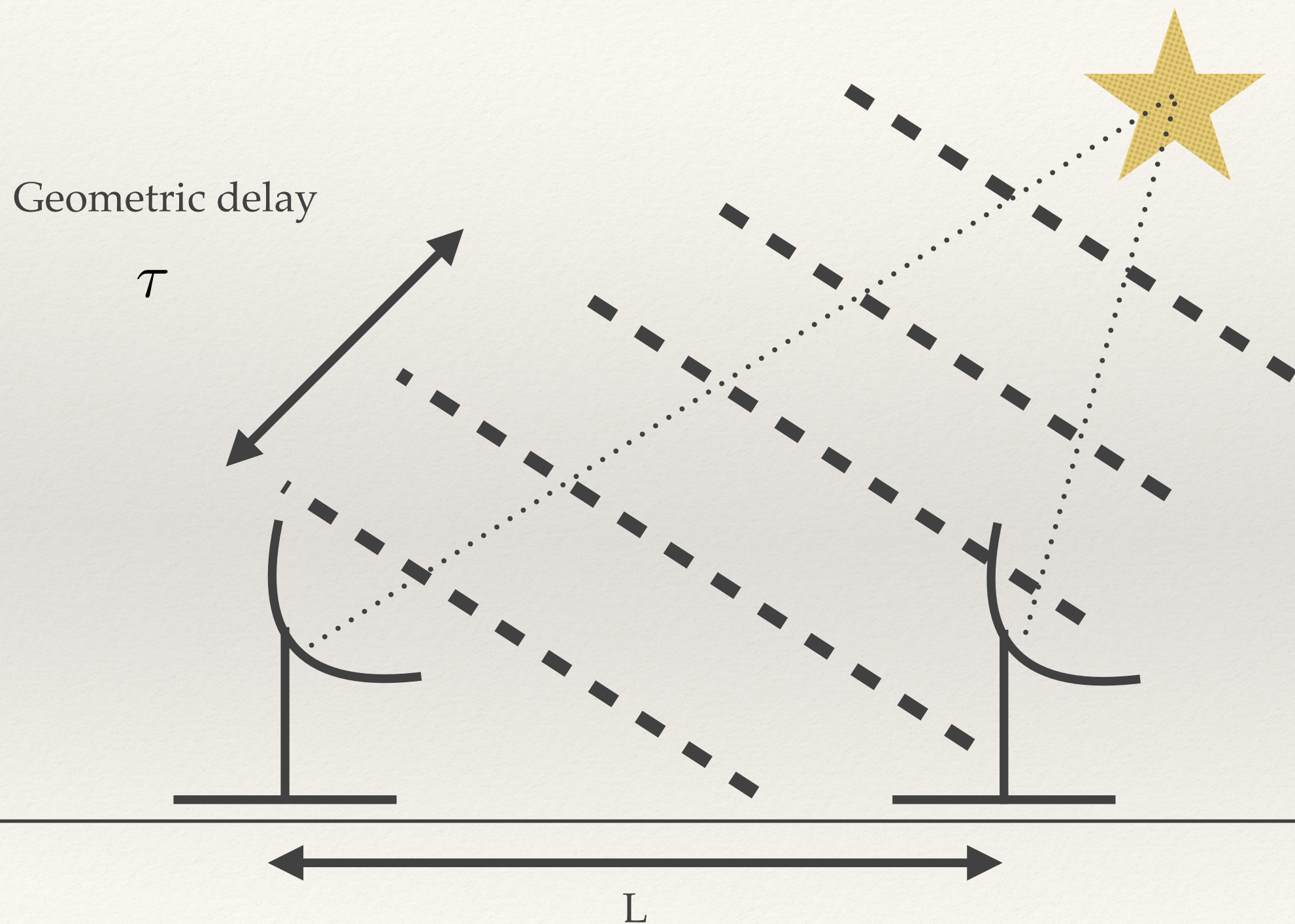
Two-element interferometer



Two-element interferometer



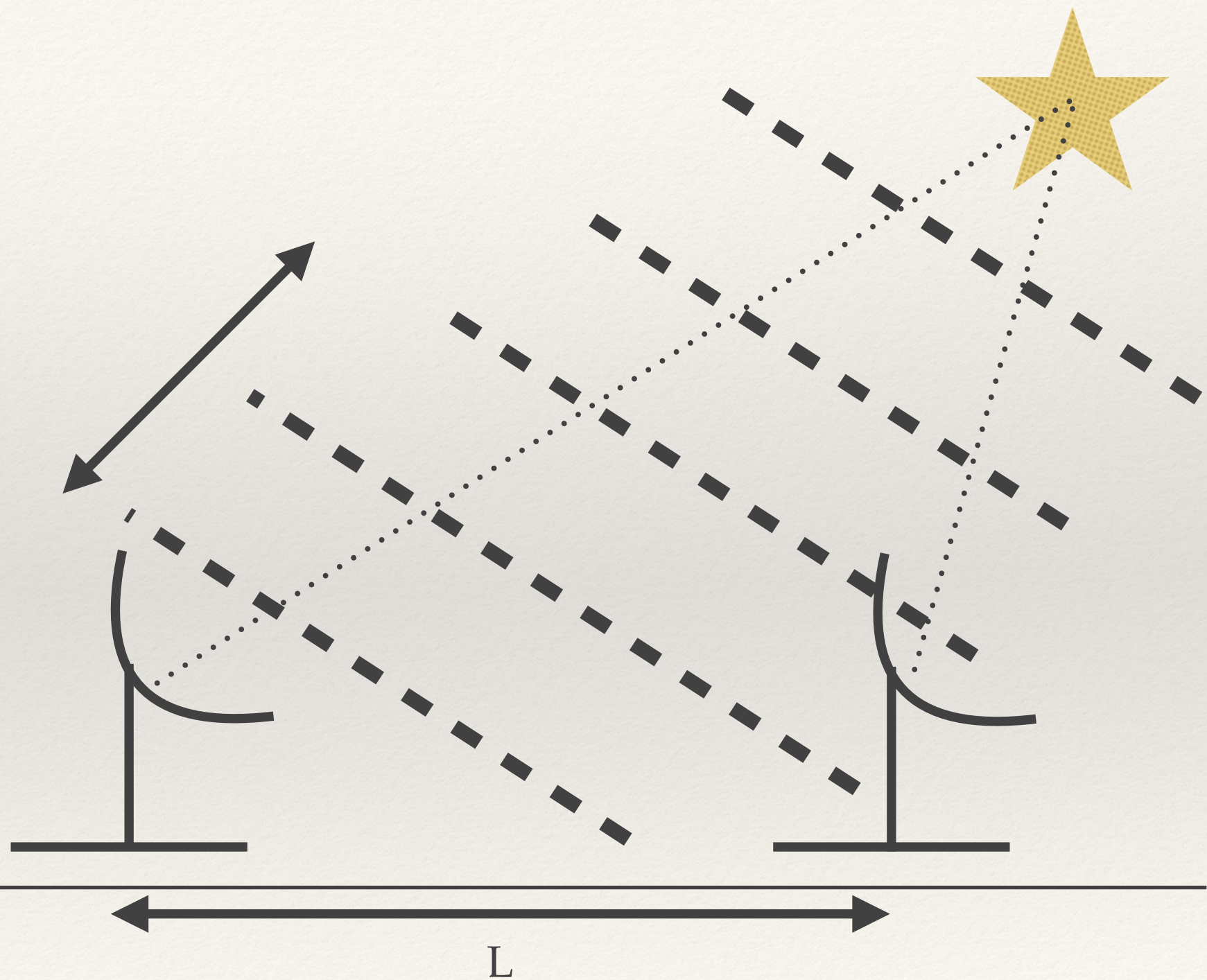
Two-element interferometer



Two-element interferometer

Geometric delay

τ



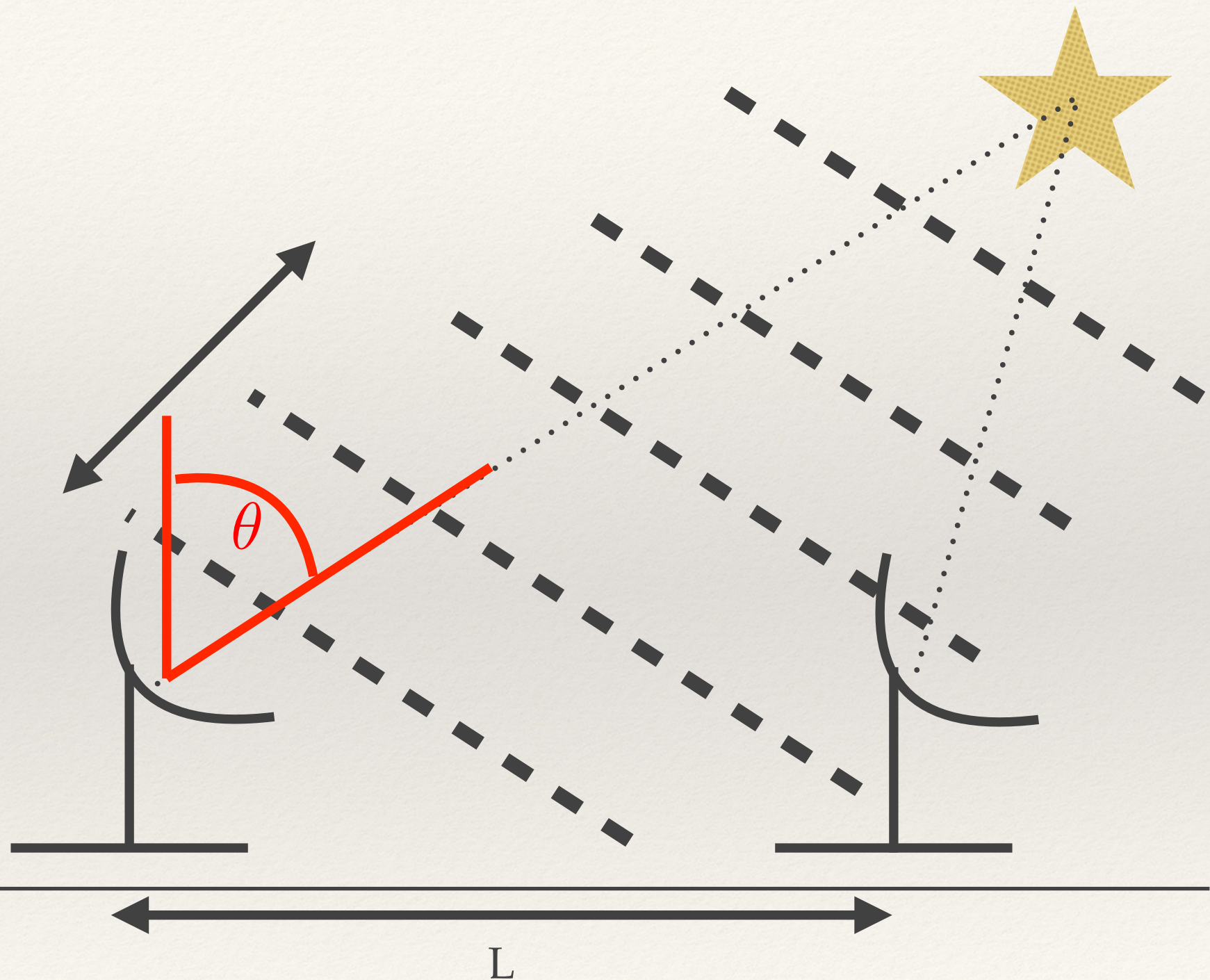
Two-element interferometer

Geometric delay

$$\tau = L \sin \theta$$

Constructive interference:

$$= m\lambda$$

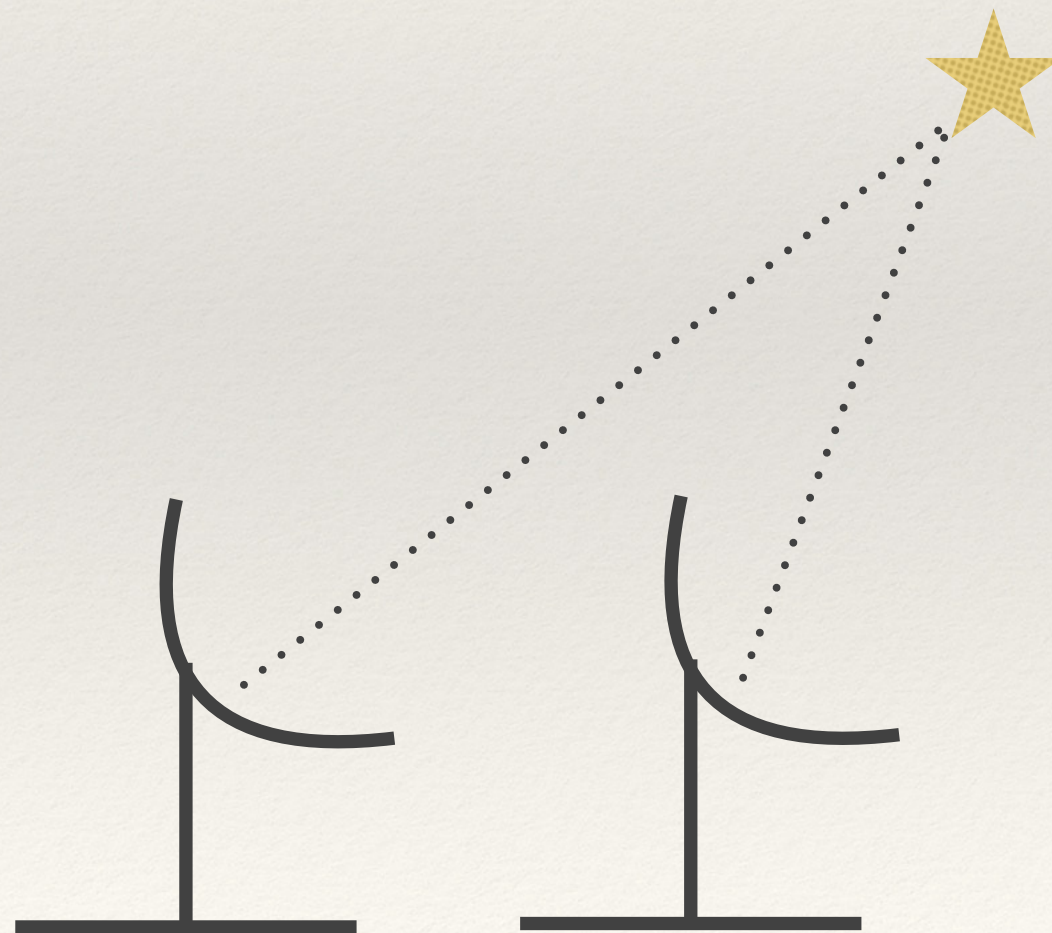


Two-element interferometer

As Earth rotates, angle varies. Produces constructive ($m=1,2,3\dots$) and destructive ($m = 1/2, 3/2, 5/2\dots$) interference fringes

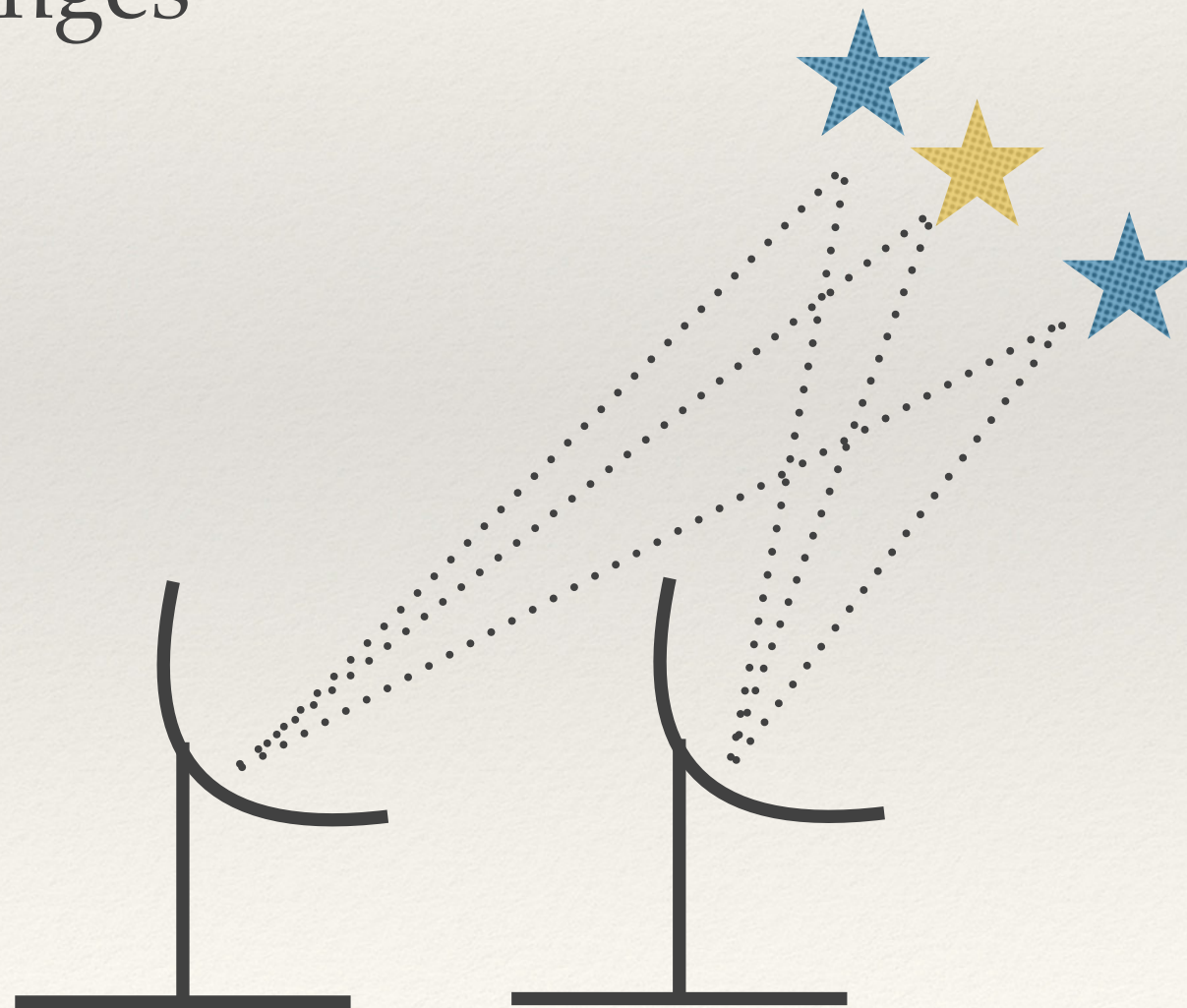
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Maxima at $L \sin \theta_1 = m\lambda$ $L \sin \theta_2 = (m + 1)\lambda$

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$$\sin \theta_2 - \sin \theta_1 = \frac{\lambda}{L}$$

$$\sin \theta \sim \theta \quad (\text{Small angle approx.})$$

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So, fringe separation $\theta_f = \theta_2 - \theta_1 \simeq \frac{\lambda}{L}$

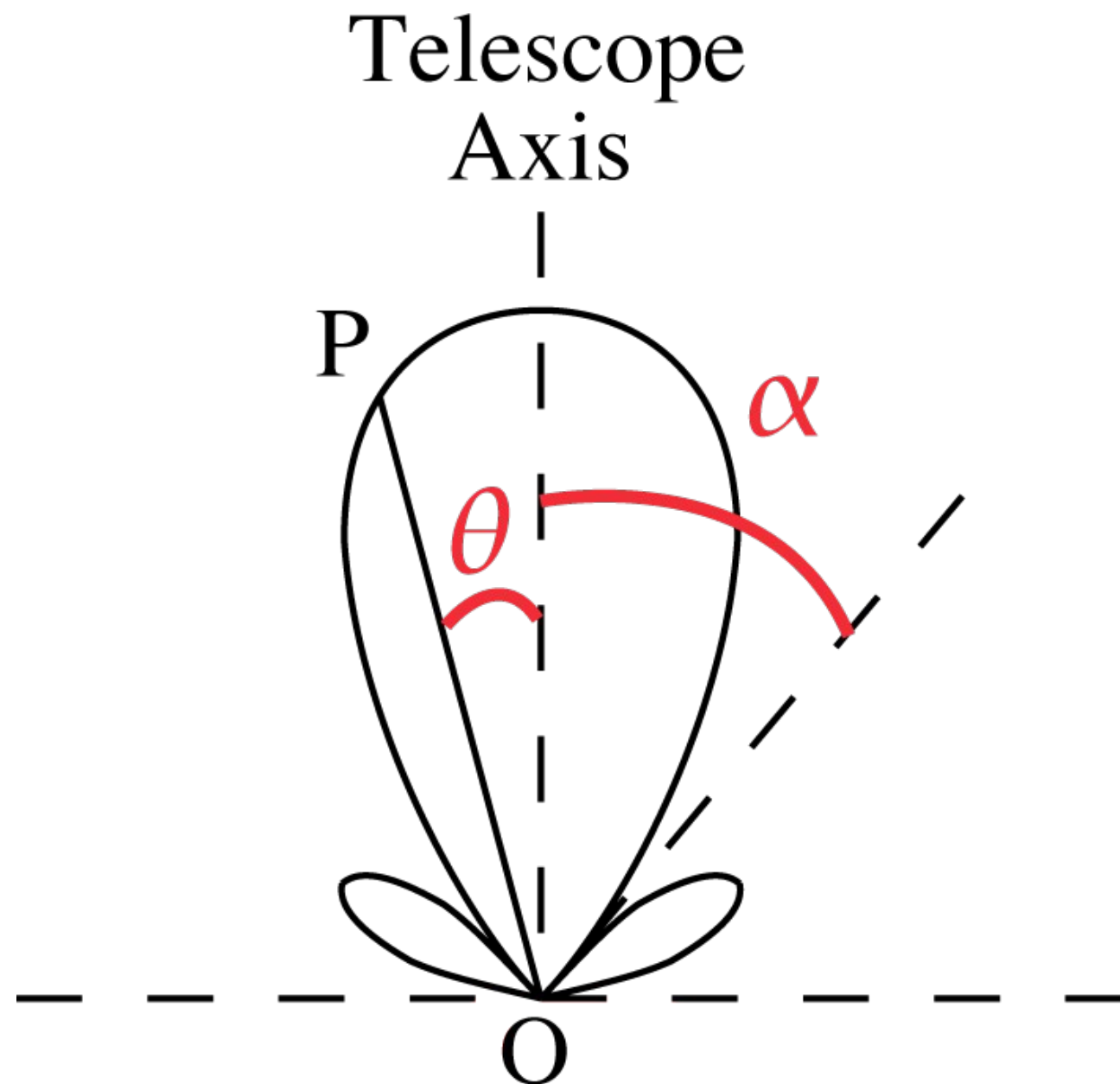
Two-element interferometer

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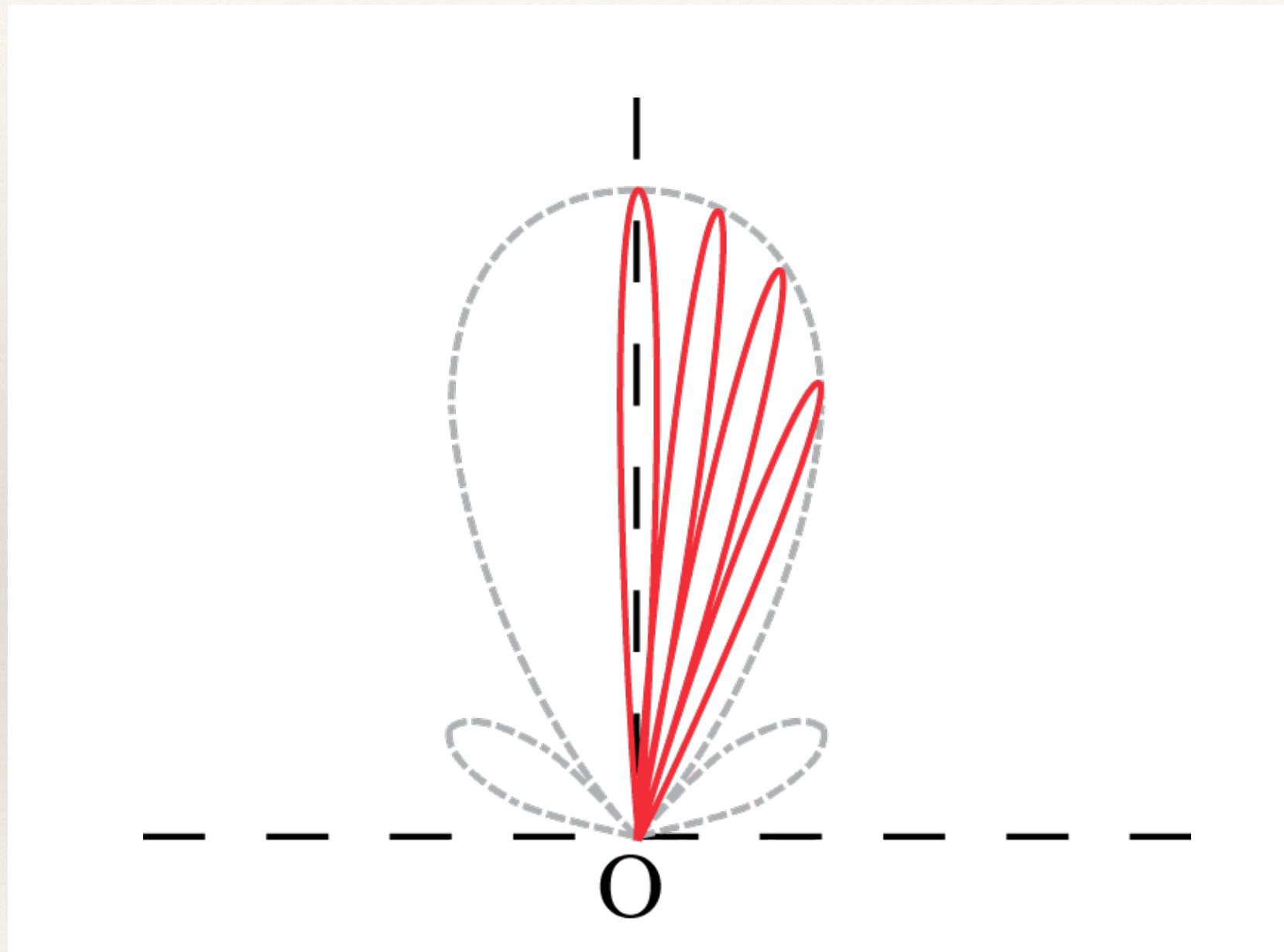
Resolution of interferometer!

**Our simple, two-element interferometer
acts like a single dish with diameter L**

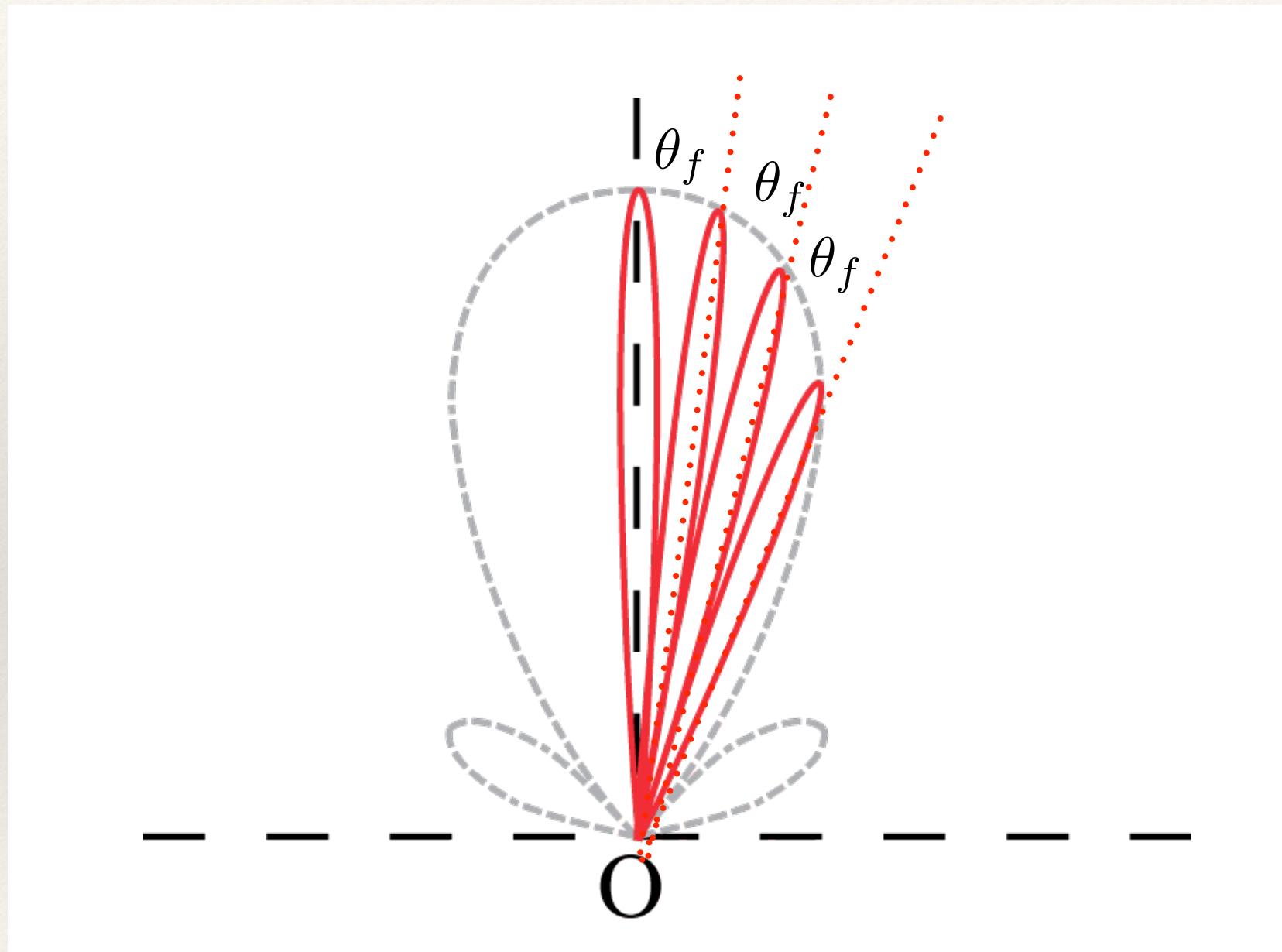
Two-element interferometer



Two-element interferometer

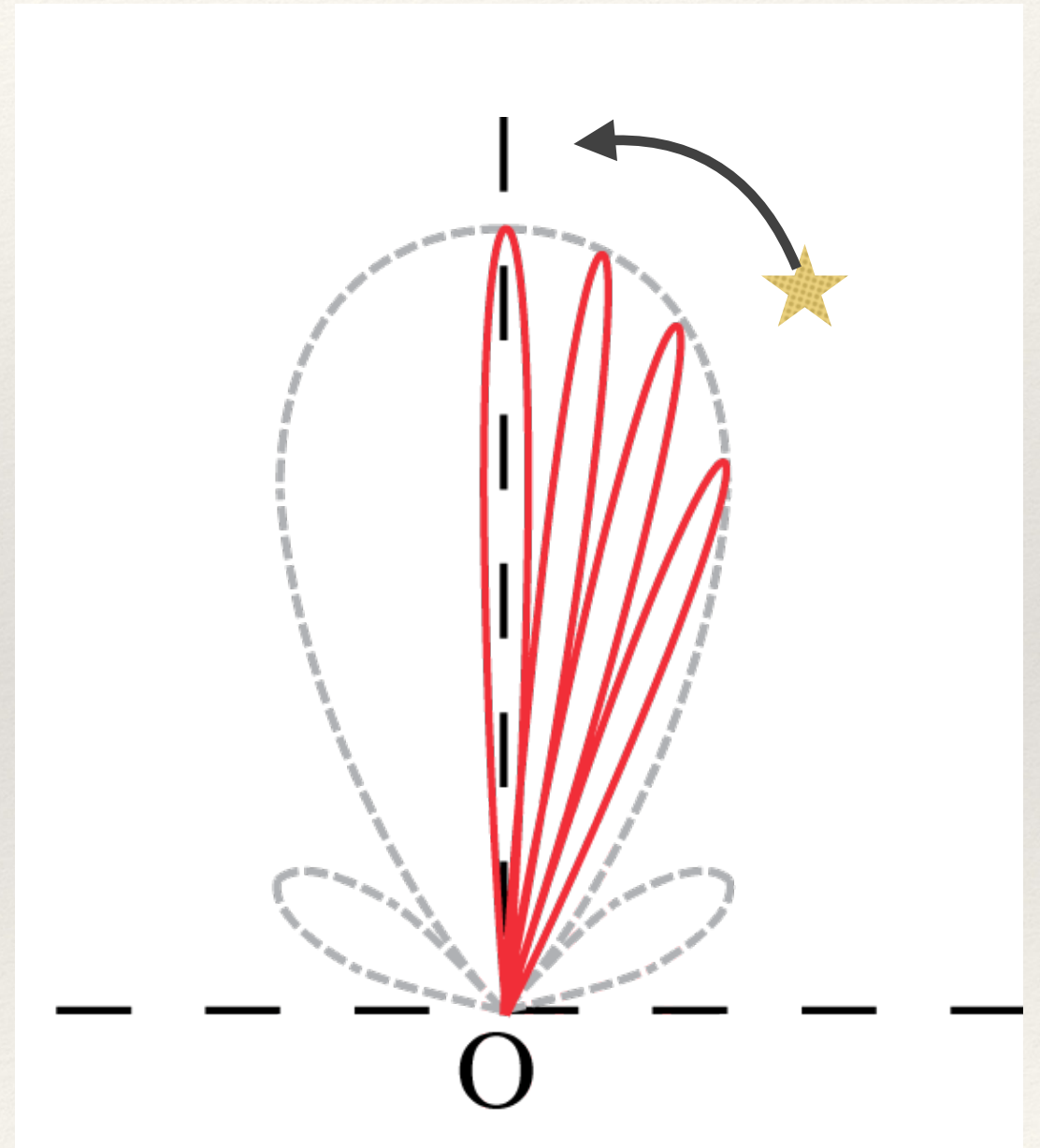


Two-element interferometer



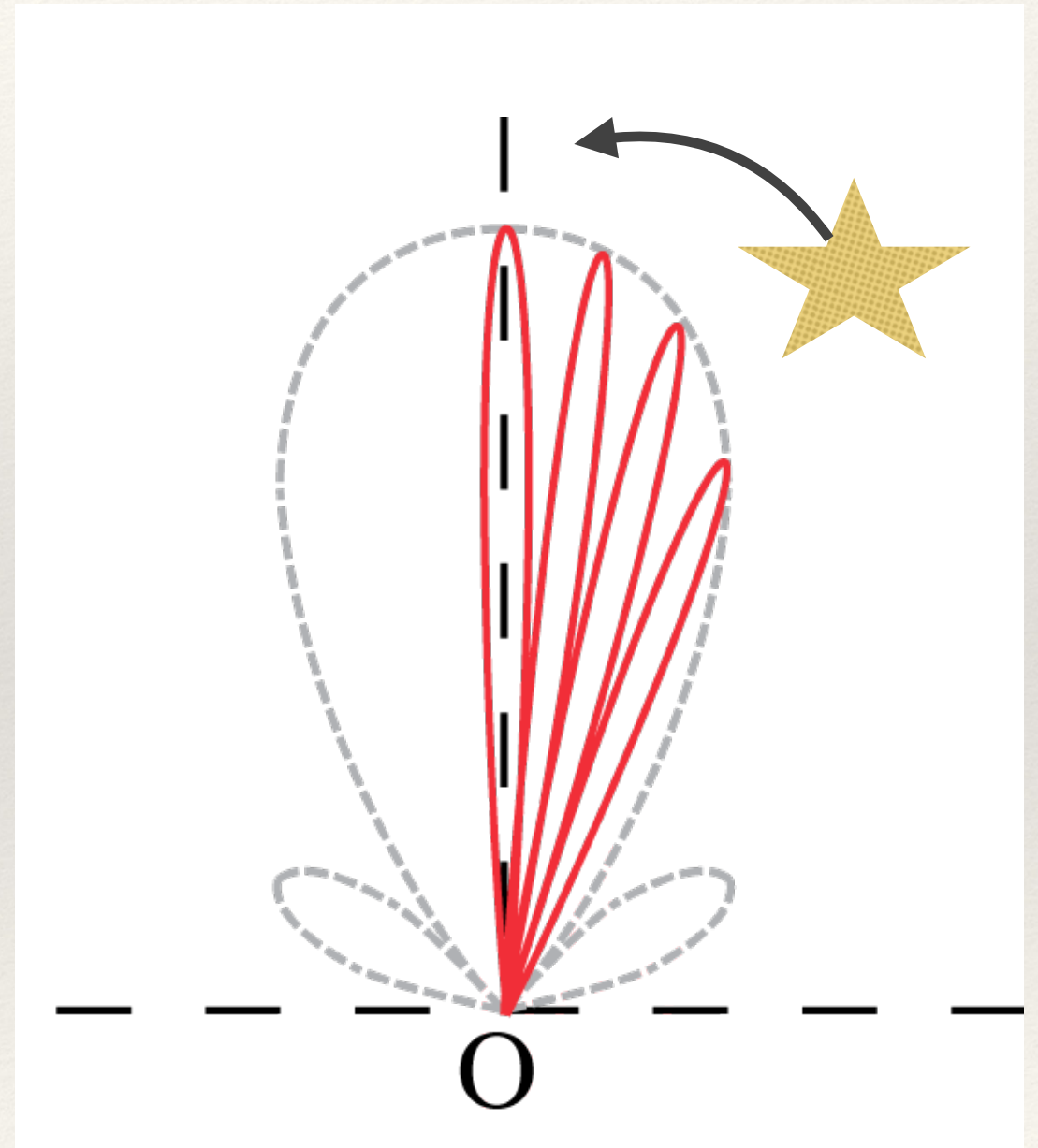
Two-element interferometer

- ❖ Small source: at fringe peak, all signal interferes constructively
- ❖ Full power of object measured
- ❖ Object unresolved by interferometer



Two-element interferometer

- ❖ Large source: some of source will always interfere destructively
- ❖ Full power of object not measured
- ❖ Object resolved by interferometer



Two-element interferometer

- ❖ Resolution depends on baseline — separation between antennas
- ❖ Interferometer is sensitive to particular angular scales — you adjust the baseline depending on your desired resolution
- ❖ If source is too large for the interferometer configuration, it begins to be ‘resolved out’, and you lose flux

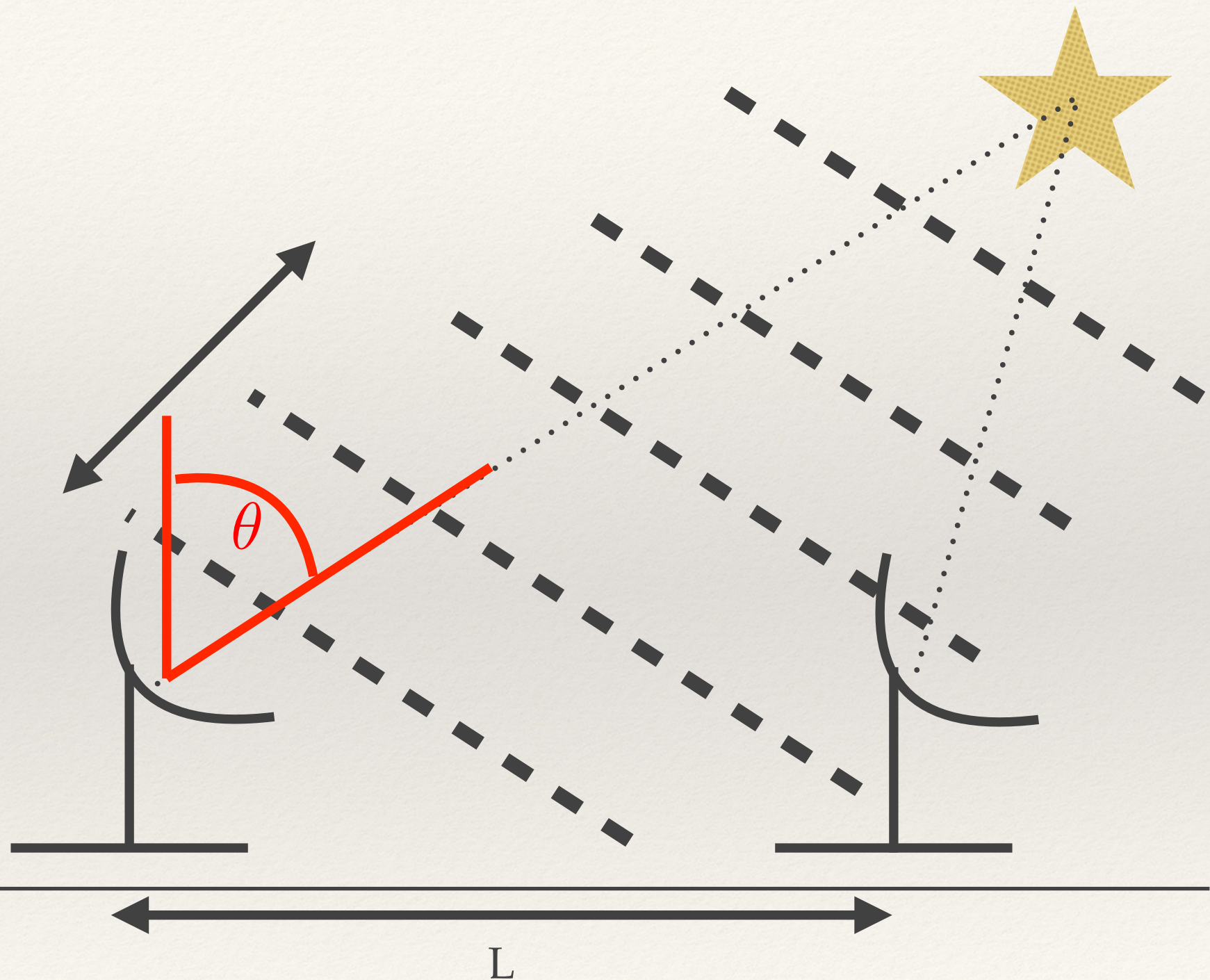
Two-element interferometer

Geometric delay τ

$$= L \sin \theta$$

$$\phi = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} L \sin \theta$$

We measure phase
using interference:
unmatched positional
accuracy!



Interferometer arrays

- ❖ Real interferometers use more than two telescopes at a time
- ❖ Number of baselines increases with number of telescopes...

$$N = \frac{n^2 - n}{2}$$

Very Large Array (VLA)

27 dishes

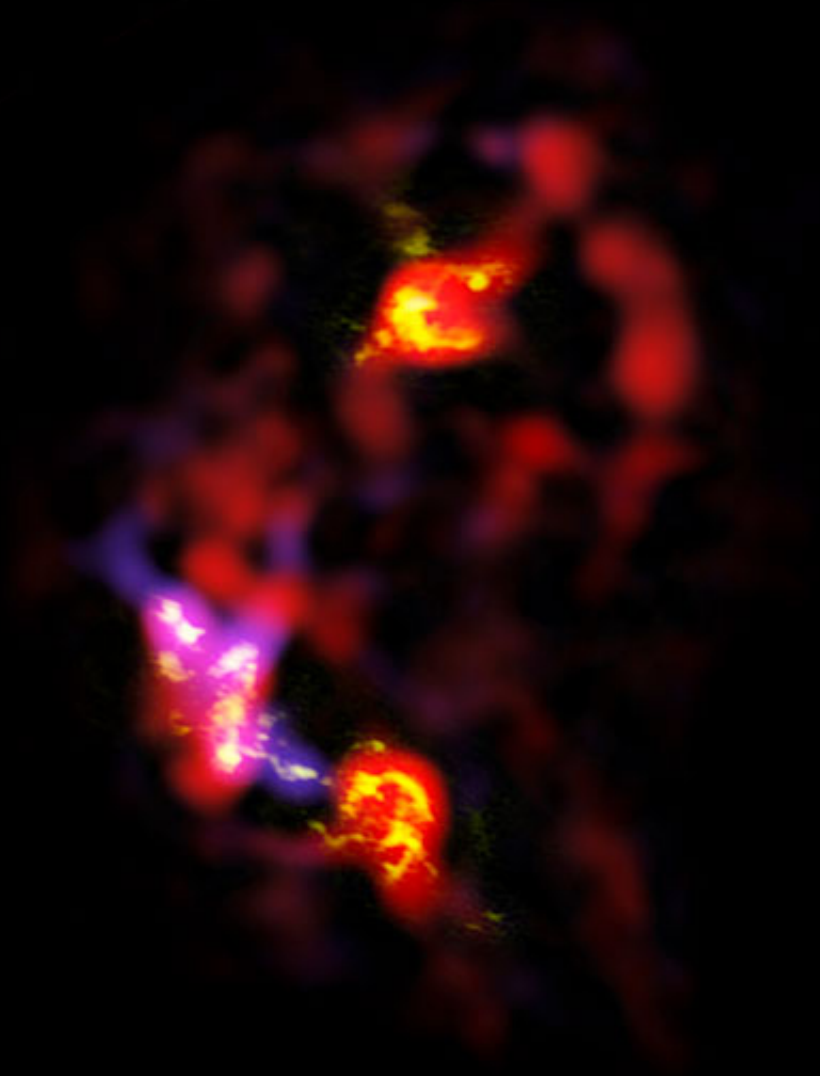
351 baselines







ALMA image of antenna galaxies



Radio astronomy techniques: take home points

- ❖ Dipoles vs dishes
- ❖ Polar diagrams for dipoles, dipole arrays, dishes
- ❖ Angular resolution of radio telescope
- ❖ Interferometry!