

A gentle introduction to interferometry

Neal Jackson ERIS 2015

Further reading

Principles of interferometry, Jackson 2007, LNP 742, 193 www.jb.man.ac.uk/~njj/int.pdf

Principles of interferometry and aperture synthesis Thompson, Moran & Swenson

Synthesis imaging in radio astronomy ASP, Proc NRAO summer school

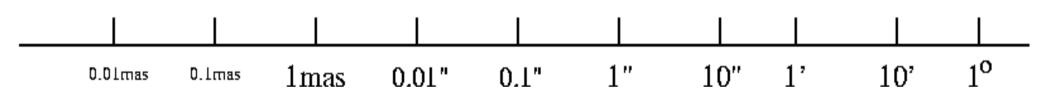
Optical interferometry in astronomy Monnier, Rep. Prog. Phys, 66, 789, 2003

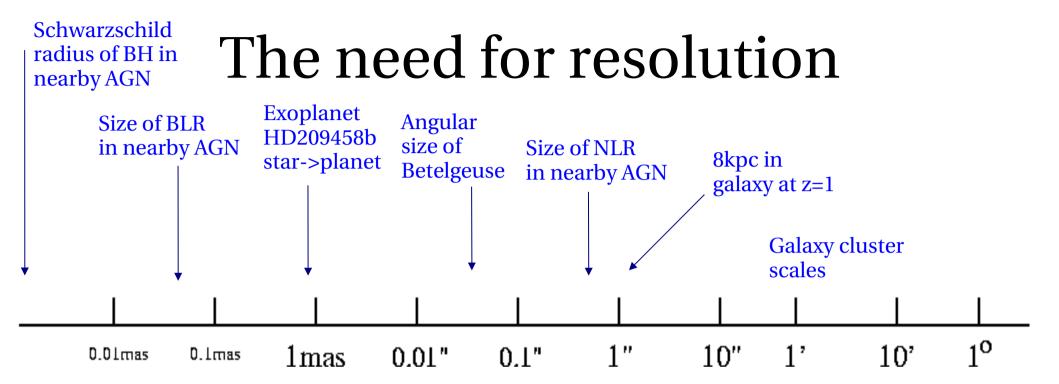
Outline of talk

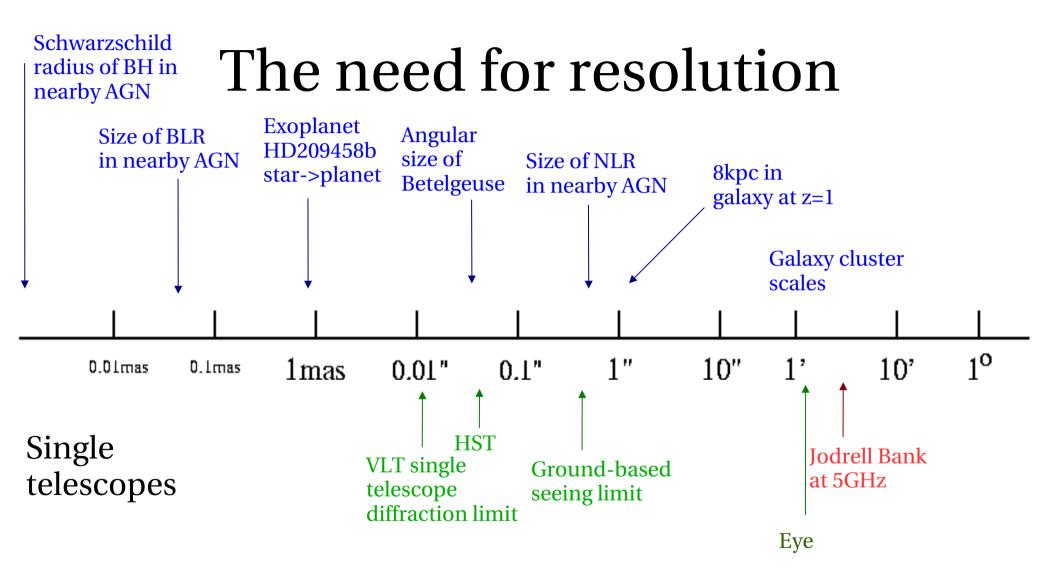
- 1. The need for resolution
- 2. Basic theory of interferometry
- 3. Some interferometers
- 4. Some practical details

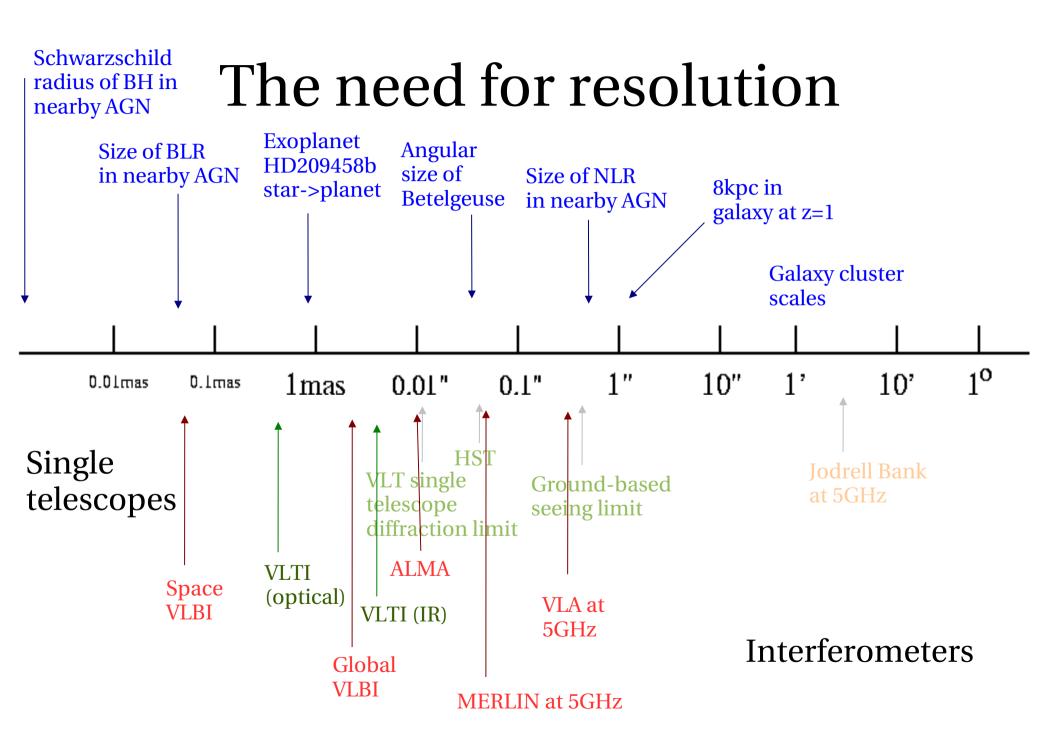
1. The need for resolution

The need for resolution



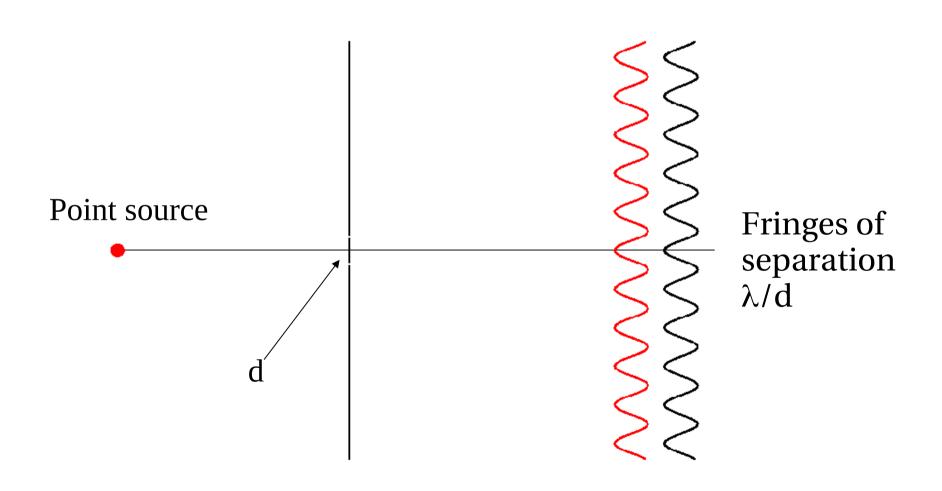




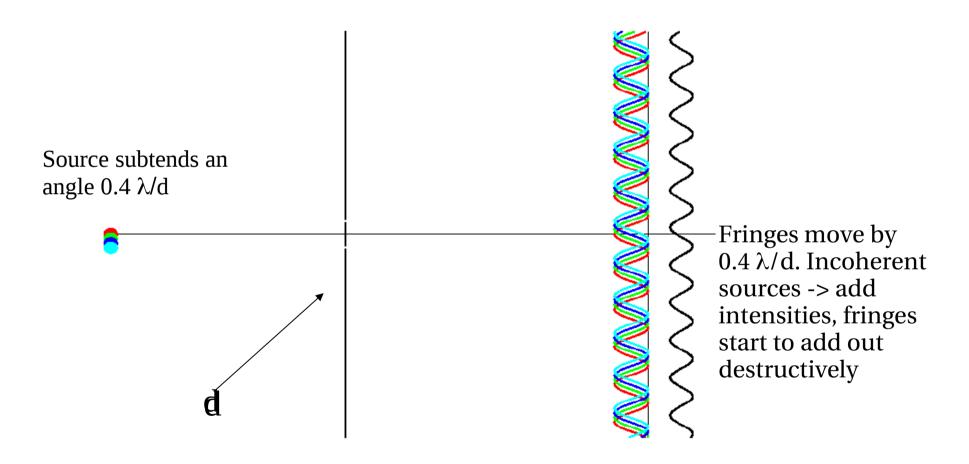


2. Basic theory of interferometry

Young's slits revisited

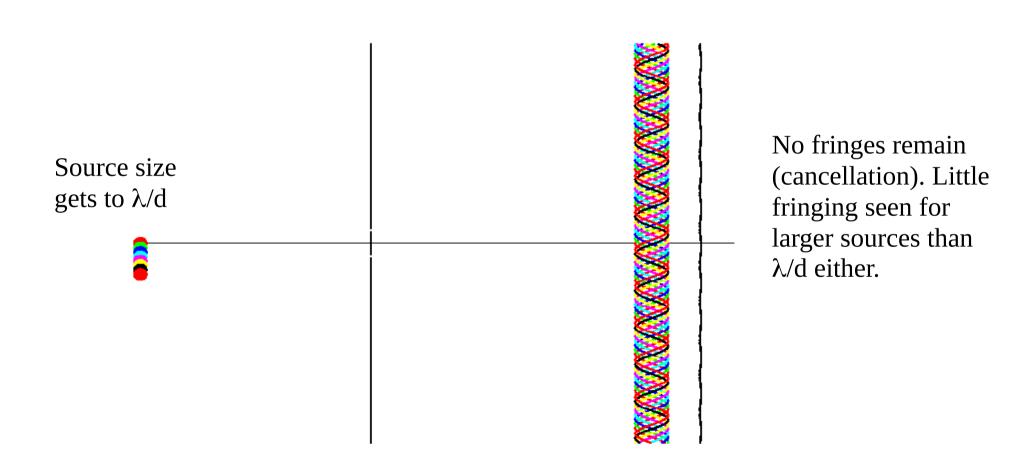


Larger source

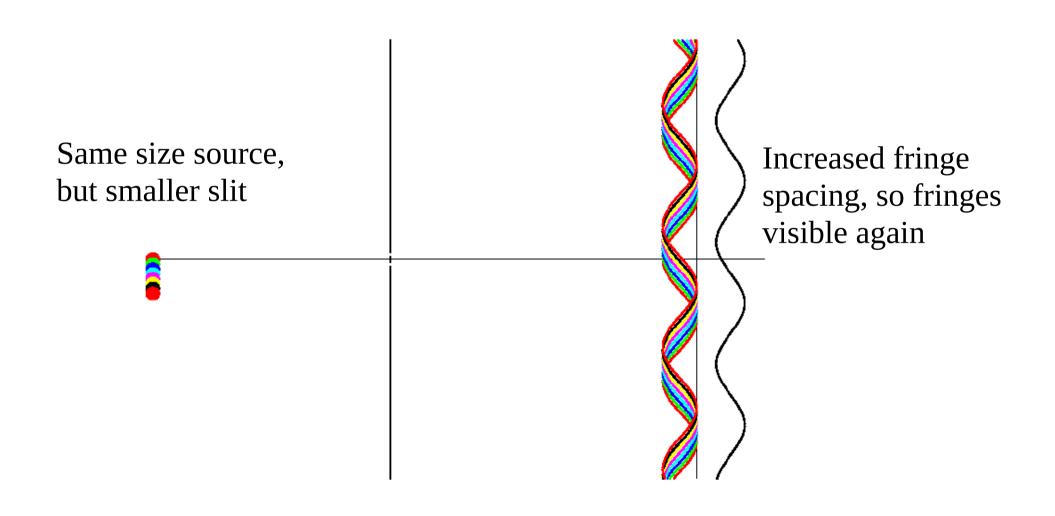


Define | fringe visibility | as (Imax-Imin) / (Imax+Imin)

Still larger source



Effect of slit size

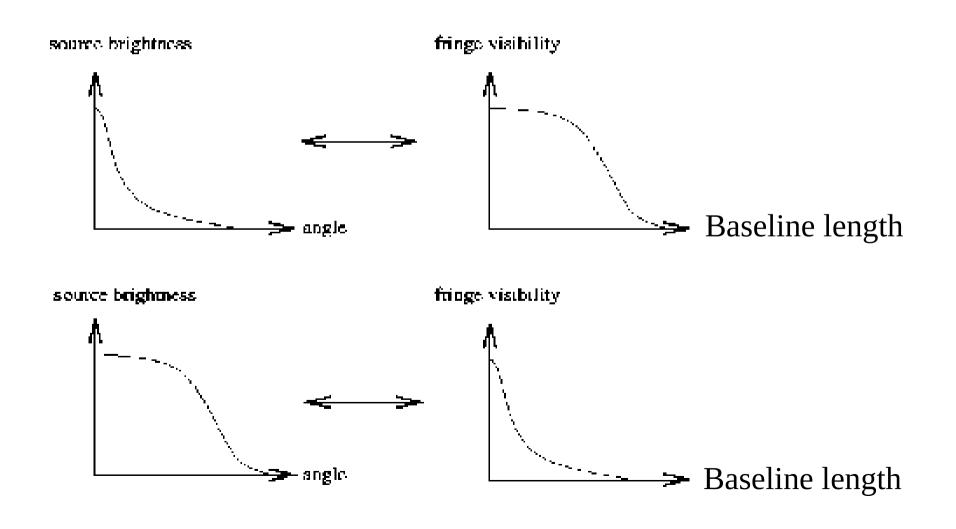


Young's slits: summary

Visibility of interference fringes

- Decreases with increasing source size
- •Goes to zero when source size goes to λ/d
- •For given source size, increases for decreasing separation
- •For given source size and separation, increases with λ

Summary in pictures



It's a Fourier transform!

The fringe visibility of an interferometer gives information about the Fourier transform of the sky brightness distribution.

Long baselines record information about the small-scale structure of the source but are INSENSITIVE to large-scale structure (fringes wash out)

Short baselines record information about large-scale structure of the source but are INSENSITIVE to small-scale structure (resolution limit)

Combining the signals

Non-photon-limited: electronic, relatively straightforward

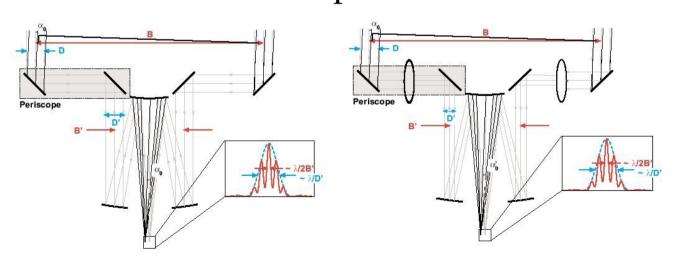
can clone and combine signals

"correlation" (multiplication+delay)

can even record signals and combine later

Photon-limited case: use classical Michelson/Fizeau arrangements delay lines for manipulation

cannot clone photons

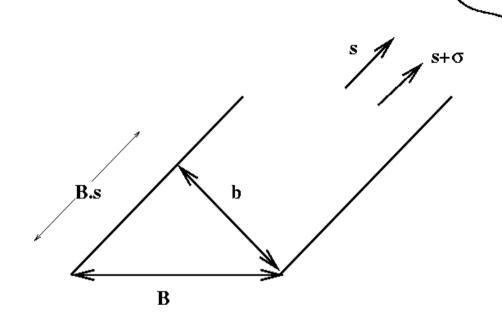


Images: A. Glindemann, Introduction to Stellar Interferometry, VLTI website www.eso.org/projects/vlti

The same, with maths

for a multiplying interferometer i.e.

$$R = \langle E_1^* E_2 \rangle = E_1 E_2 e^{ikx}$$



$$dR = dI(\sigma)e^{ik\mathbf{B}\cdot(\mathbf{s}+\sigma)}$$
, but $\mathbf{B}\cdot\sigma = \mathbf{b}\cdot\sigma$

$$R = e^{ik\mathbf{B}.\mathbf{s}} \int I(\sigma)e^{ik\mathbf{b}.\sigma}d\sigma$$

Can write
$$\sigma = \sigma(x, y)$$
, $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b}(u, v)$

$$R(u,v) = e^{ik\mathbf{B.s}} \int I(x,y)e^{2\pi i(ux+vy)} dxdy$$

Fringes

$$R(u,v) = e^{ik\mathbf{B.s}} \int I(x,y)e^{2\pi i(ux+vy)} dxdy$$

This is a series of fast fringes whose amplitude is the Fourier transform of the source brightness distribution.

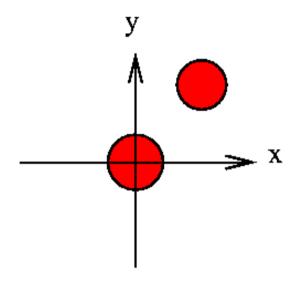
May need to get rid of fringes before integrating (fringe stopping).

R(u,v) has an amplitude and phase; both are interesting!

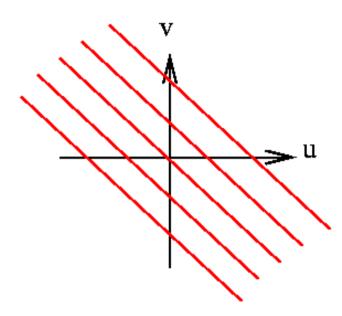
The u-v plane

Source brightness as a function of angle

Fringe visibility as a function of baseline length in wavelengths



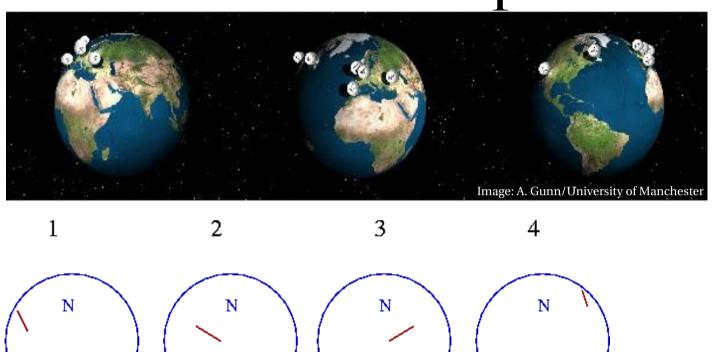
Double source of separation a arcsecond



Stripes of separation 206265/a wavelengths

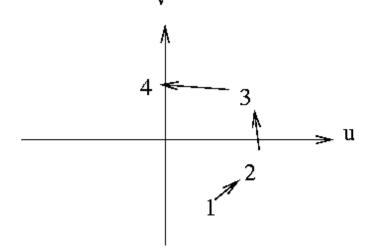
If we could measure FV for all u,v, transform -> image

Earth rotation aperture synthesis



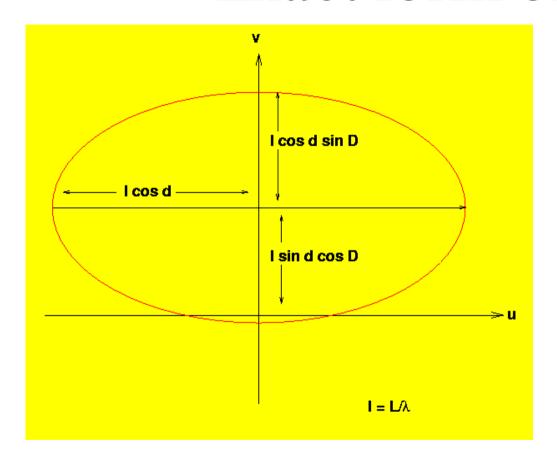
Over a day, can measure many points in u-v plane with a single baseline





Locus is an ellipse; the longer the baseline, the larger the u-v (higher resolution)

Exact form of u-v track



D=declination of source d=declination of point on sky pointed to by baseline

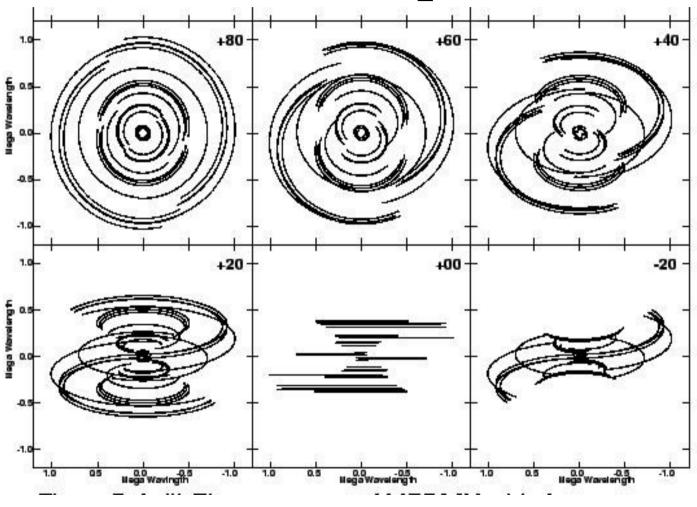
Resolution given by maximum extent of tracks

ERAS imaging of sources at D=0 is hard!

$$u = \frac{L}{\lambda} \cos d \sin(H - h), v = \frac{L}{\lambda} (\sin d \cos D - \cos d \sin D \cos(H - h))$$

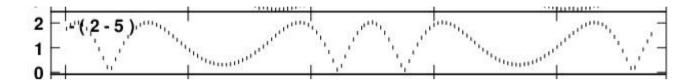
$$\mathbf{B.s} = |B|(\sin d \sin D + \cos d \cos D \cos (H - h))$$
 (just in case you ever need it!)

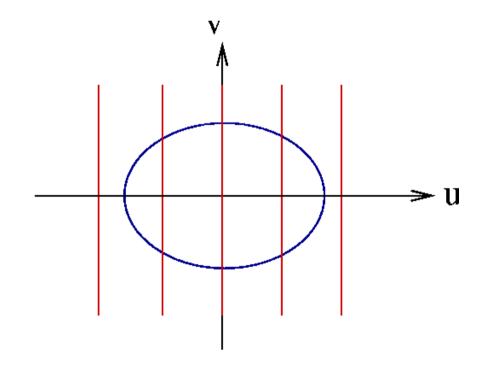
u-v tracks example: MERLIN



Low dec – elongated beam in x-y plane

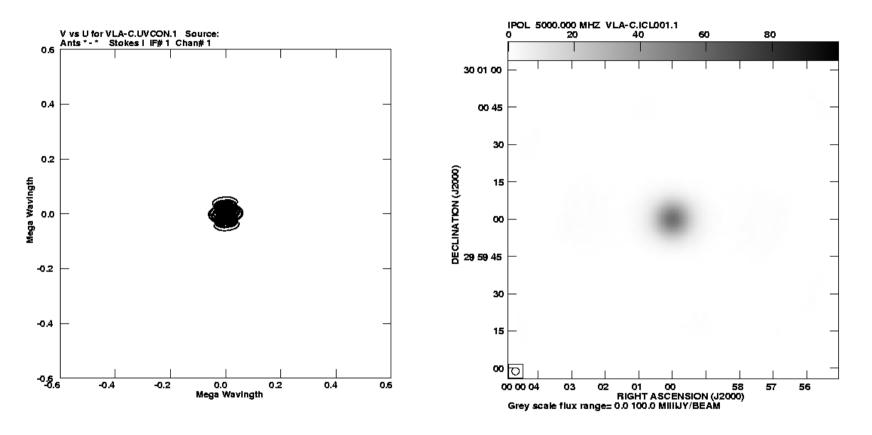
Actual fringe visibility





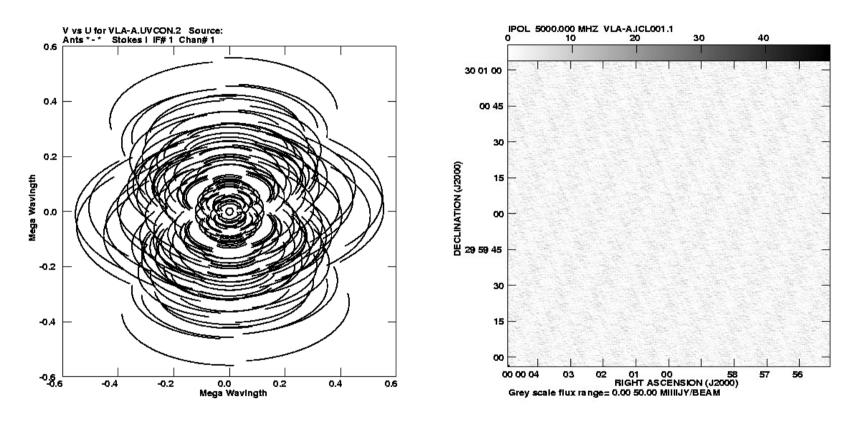
Double source each component 1Jy separation calculable from baseline length

FT imaging is not like direct imaging!



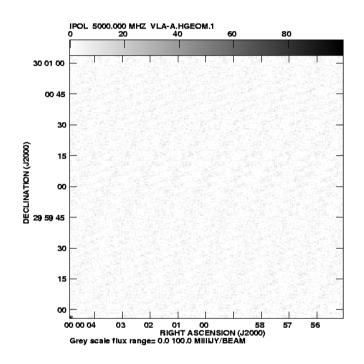
12-arcsec source mapped with u-v coverage giving 3" resolution

FT imaging is not like direct imaging!



Multiply all baseline lengths by 10 -> higher resolution (0.3"). No image! But you can get it back by smoothing, right?

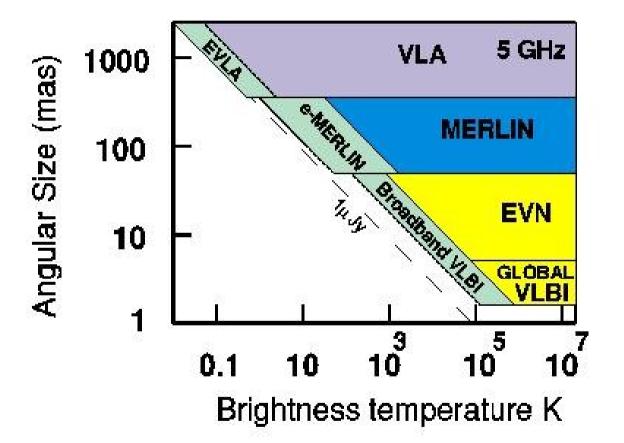
FT imaging is not like direct imaging!



Wrong! Smoothed image to 3" shows no source.

Moral: longer baselines are INSENSITIVE to the large-scale structure – unlike direct imaging you lose it IRRETRIEVABLY. Use the range of baselines appropriate to the problem.

This is why you need >1 interferometer in the world...



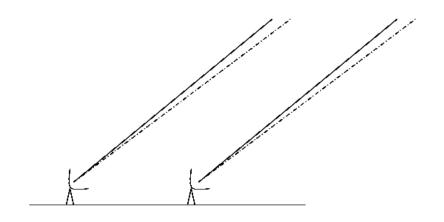
JVLA 30m-36km e-MERLIN 6km-250km EVN 250km-2300km VLBA 250km-9000km Global VLBI-12000km

Space VLBI-32000km

Limits on the field of view

1. Finite range of wavelengths





Fringe pattern OK at field centre but different colours out of phase at higher relative delay

Bigger range – smaller field of view (FT again)

FOV = $(\lambda/\Delta\lambda)$ x (λ/L) i.e. $\lambda/\Delta\lambda$ resolution elements

Limits on the field of view

2. Too big integration time per data point (Limit: 13000/T times the resolution)

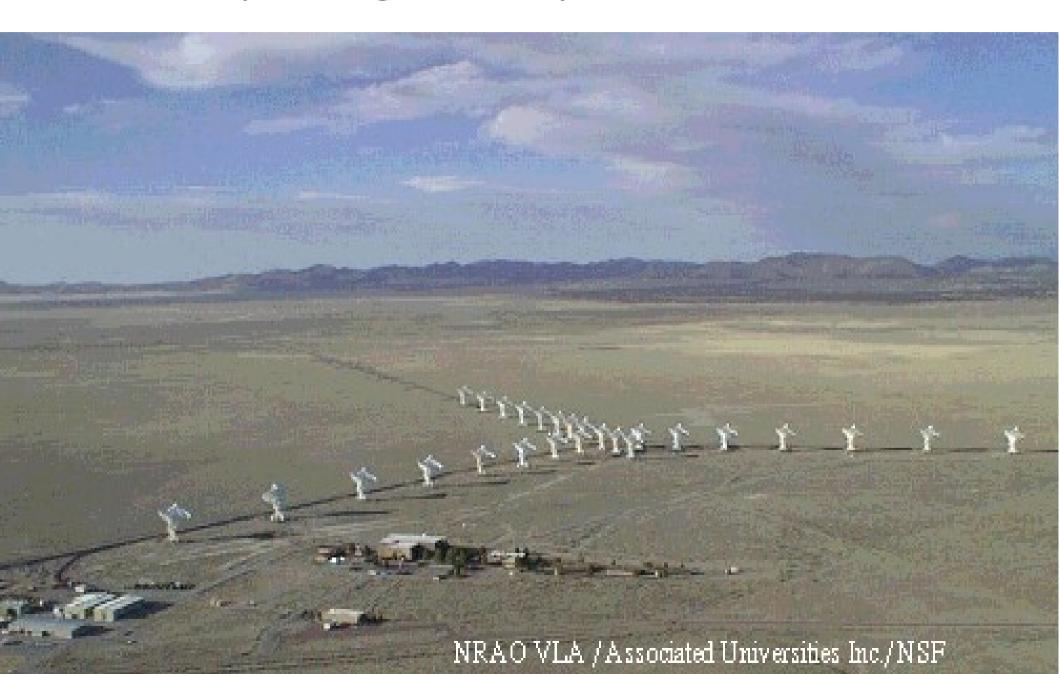
Rather technical, and only a problem for wide-field imaging

3. Non-flat sky over large 4. Primary beam maximum field of view set by the telescope aperture

3. Some interferometers

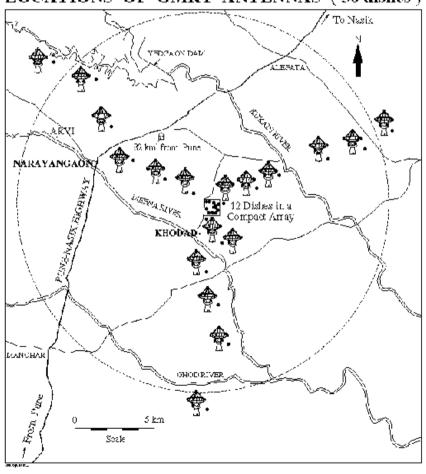
(mostly radio)

Very Large Array, NM, USA



Giant Metrewave Radio Telescope, India

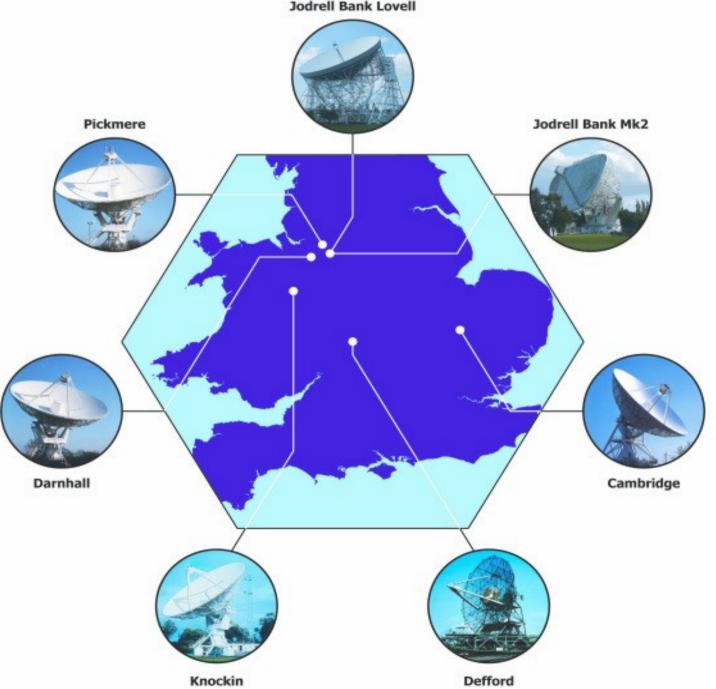
LOCATIONS OF GMRT ANTENNAS (30 dishes)



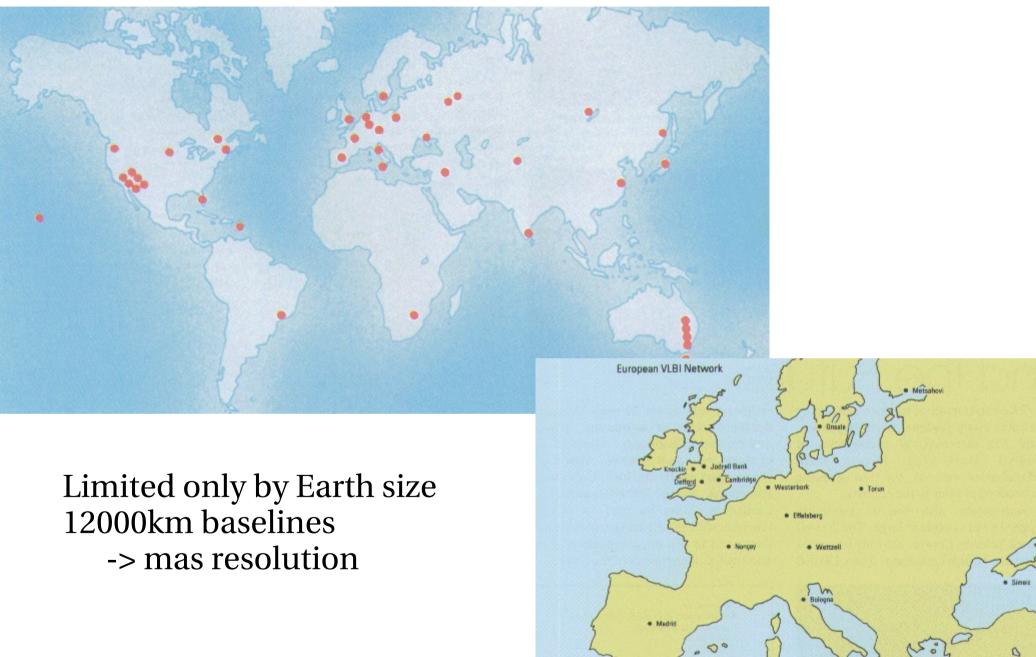




e-MERLIN. UK



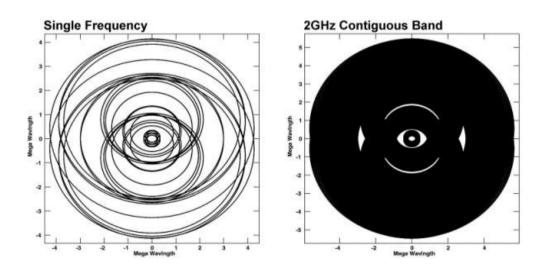
VLBI (Very Long Baseline Interferometry)



EVLA and e-Merlin upgrades

2 effects:

- 1) optical fibres give higher sensitivity by Δv^{-1}
- 2) because u-v plane coverage in wavelengths, images higher fidelity





Low Frequency Array (NL)

- uses cheap low-frequency hardware
- huge information-processing problem
- resolution of a few arcseconds

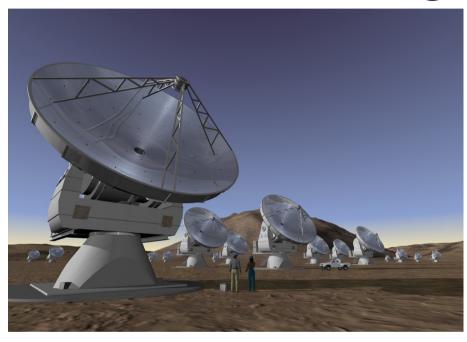
www.lofar.org

Large number of antennas gives very high sensitivity up to 240MHz





Atacama Large Millimetre Array



Chajnantor, Chile

- 30-950 GHz
- max. baseline ~20km
- molecules in galaxies at cosmological z
- gas in Galactic starforming regions



Square Kilometre Array (2017?)



- * 1 sq.km collecting area
- * HI at cosmological z
- * Subarcsec resolution

Vast international project: Europe (UK,NL,IT,FR,ES,PO), US consortium, Australia, Argentina, Canada, China, India, South Africa

Optical/IR interferometers

Acronym	Full name	Lead institution(s)	Location	Start
CHARA	Center for High Angular Resolution Astronomy	Georgia State University	Mt Wilson, CA, USA	2000
COAST	Cambridge Optical Aperture Synthesis Telescope	Cambridge University	Cambridge, England	1992
GI2T	Grand Interféromètre à 2 Télescopes	Observatoire Cote D'Azur	Plateau de Calern, France	1985
IOTA	Infrared-Optical Telescope Array	Smithsonian Astrophysical Observatory, University of Massachusetts (Amherst)	Mt Hopkins, AZ, USA	1993
ISI	Infrared Spatial Interferometer	University of California at Berkeley	Mt Wilson, CA, USA	1988
Keck-I	Keck Interferometer (Keck-I to Keck-II)	NASA-JPL	Mauna Kea, HI, USA	2001
MIRA-I	Mitake Infrared Array	National Astronomical Observatory, Japan	Mitaka Campus, Tokyo, Japan	1998
NPOI	Navy Prototype Optical Interferometer	Naval Research Laboratory, US Naval Observatory	Flagstaff, AZ, USA	1994
PTI	Palomar Testbed Interferometer	NASA-JPL	Mt Palomar, CA, USA	1996
SUSI	Sydney University Stellar Interferometer	Sydney University	Narrabri, Australia	1992
VLTI-UT	VLT Interferometer (Unit Telescopes)	European Southern Observatory	Paranal, Chile	2001
Keck*	Keck Auxiliary Telescope Array	NASA-JPL	Mauna Kea, HI, USA	$\sim 2004?$
LBTI*	Large Binocular Telescope Interferometer	LBT Consortium	Mt Graham, AZ, USA	~ 2006
MRO*	Magdalena Ridge Observatory	Consortium of New Mexico Institutions, Cambridge University	Magdalena Ridge, NM, USA	~2007
OHANA*	Optical Hawaiian Array for Nanoradian Astronomy	Consortium (mostly French Institutions, Mauna Kea Observatories, others)	Mauna Kea, HI, USA	~2006
VLTI-AT*	VLT Interferometer (Auxiliary Telescopes)	European Southern Observatory	Paranal, Chile	$\sim \! 2004$

Imaging

or, How difficult can it be to do a Fourier transform?

Neal Jackson (with thanks to Tom Muxlow for many images)

Imaging

or, How difficult can it be to do a Fourier transform?

Neal Jackson (with thanks to Tom Muxlow for many images)

- 1. Deconvolution basics: CLEAN, MEM, multiscale cleaning, details
- 2. Problems associated with wide fields
- 3. Problems associated with high dynamic range

Deconvolution

Recall the basic operation of an interferometer baseline:

$$R(x,y) = \iint I(u,v)e^{2\pi i(ux+vy)}dudv$$

In principle just measure I(u,v) for all u,v..... But instead we have the "dirty image"

$$R_D(x,y) = \iint I(u,v)S(u,v)e^{2\pi i(ux+vy)}dudv$$

where the sampling function S is 1 in the parts of the uv plane we've sampled and 0 where we haven't.

Deconvolution (ctd)

We can use the convolution theorem to write

$$R_D(x,y) = R(x,y) * B$$

where B is known as the dirty beam

$$B(x,y) = \iint S(u,v)e^{2\pi i(ux+vy)}dudv$$

and is the FT of the sampling function.

Problem is then one of deconvolution.

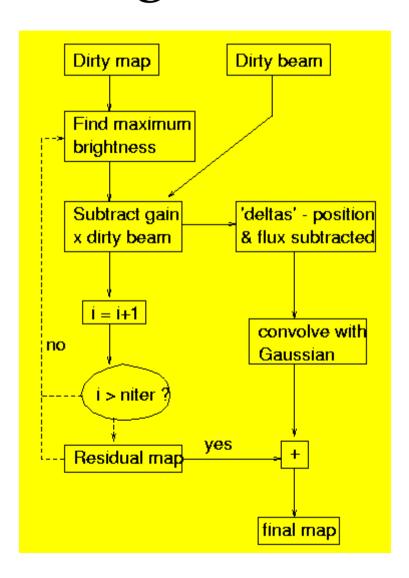
Important comment

Infinite number of images are consistent with the data (including the dirty map itself)

Extra information/assumptions must be supplied

Simplest (but not only) scheme: sky is mostly empty, and consists of a finite number of point sources

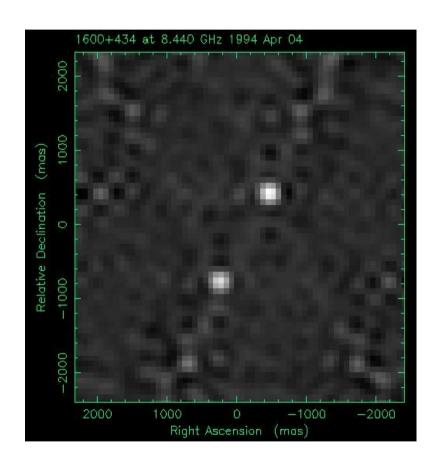
Hogbom CLEAN deconvolution

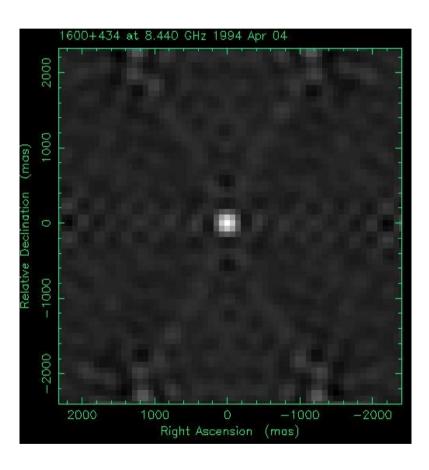


Brute-force iterative deconvolution using the dirty beam

Effectively reconstructs information in unsampled parts of the u-v plane by assuming sky is sum of point sources

(Quasi-)Hogbom CLEAN in action

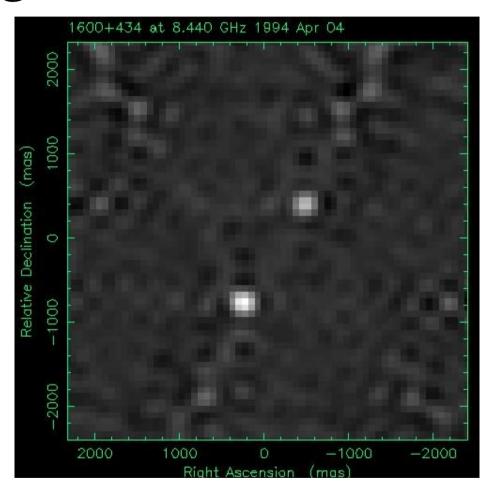




Dirty map

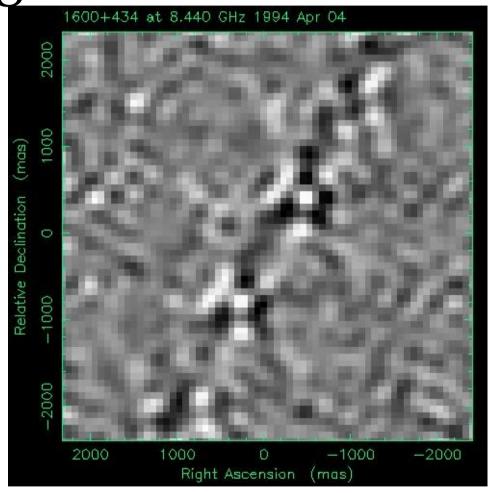
Dirty beam

Hogbom CLEAN in action



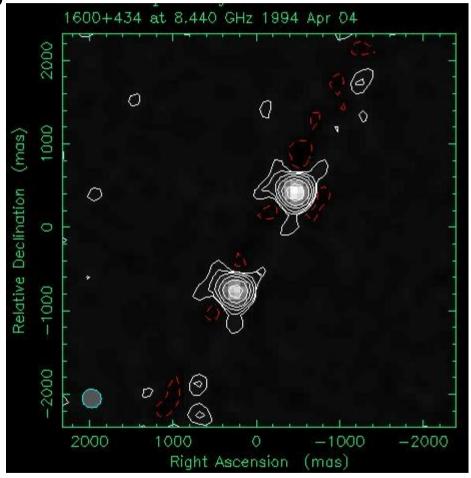
Residual after 1 CLEAN (gain 0.5)

Hogbom CLEAN in action



Residual after 100 CLEANs (gain 0.1)

Hogbom CLEAN in action



CLEAN map (residual+CCs) after 100 CLEANs (gain 0.1) Remaining artefacts due to phase corruption (see later lectures)

CLEAN in practice (i) details of algorithm:

"minor cycles" - subtract subimages of dirty beam

" major cycle" - FT residual map and subtract

CLEAN in practice: (ii) how to help the algorithm

"minor cycles" - subtract subimages of dirty beam

" major cycle" - FT residual map and subtract

CLEAN can be helped by "windows" (areas in which you tell the algorithm flux lies and within which it is allowed to subtract)

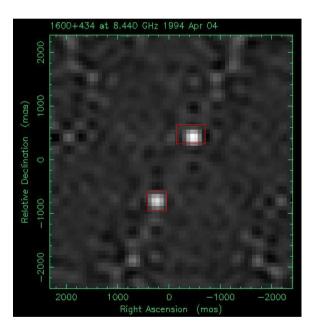


CLEAN in practice: (ii) how to help the algorithm

"minor cycles" - subtract subimages of dirty beam

" major cycle" - FT residual map and subtract

CLEAN can be helped by "windows" (areas in which you tell the algorithm flux lies and within which it is allowed to subtract)



CLEAN in practice: (iii) multifrequency synthesis

- large fractional bandwidth
- require a spectral solution at each point of the image
- known as MFS (multi-frequency synthesis)

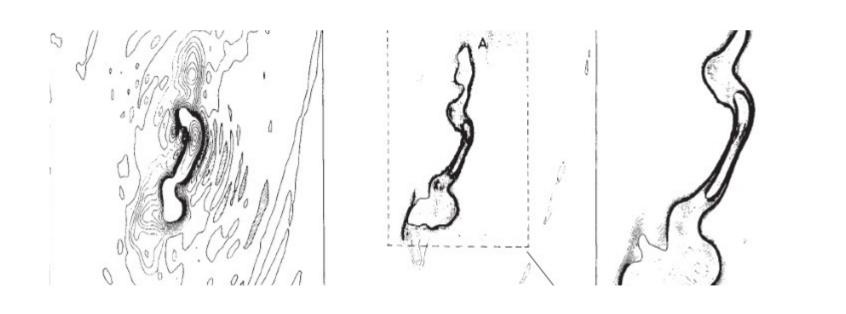
Maximum entropy method

All deconvolution methods supply missing information. CLEAN does this by saying that sky is Σ point sources.

MEM demands that the smoothest map consistent with the data is the most likely

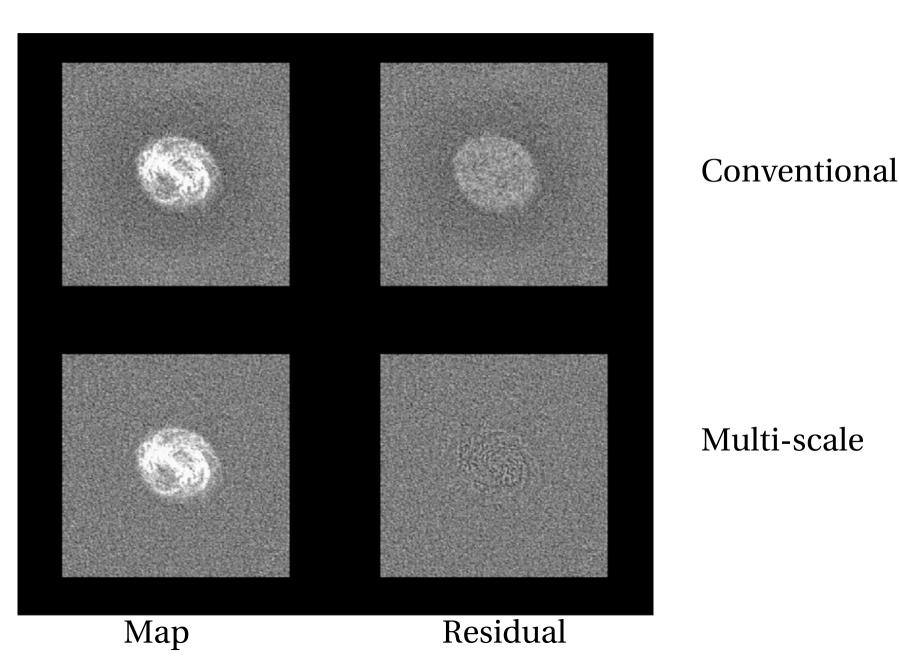
using an "entropy" estimator e.g. λpi ln pi

Maximum entropy method



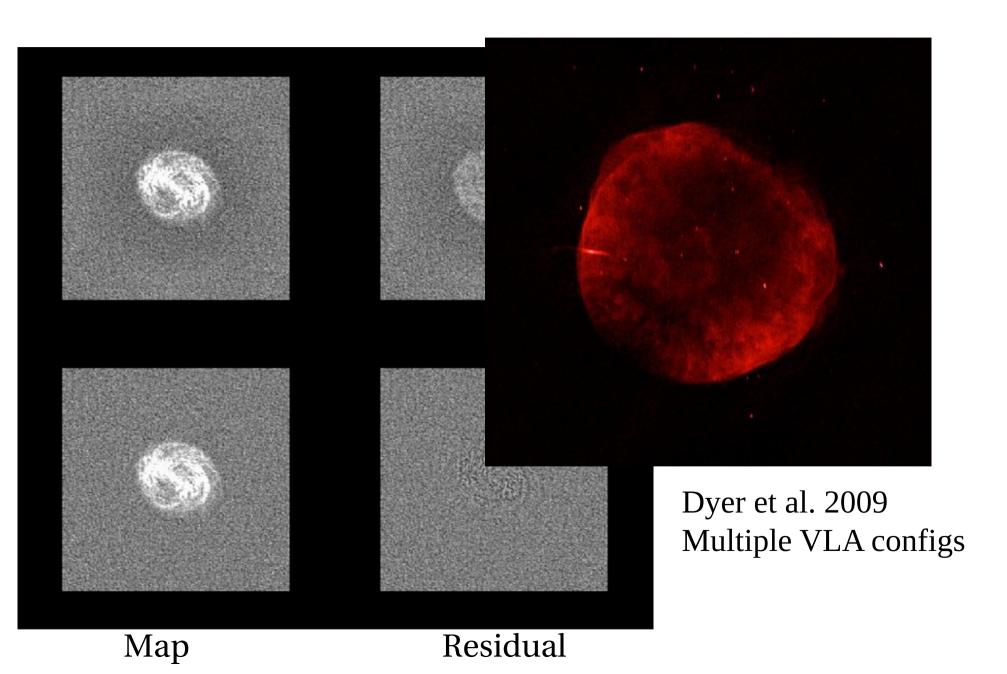
Gull & Daniell 1978

Multi-scale clean – better images of complex data smooth RM/beam; subtract from scale with maximum residual at each iteration



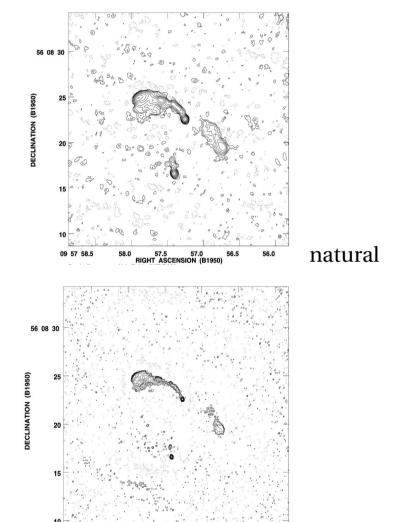
Multi-scale clean – better images of complex data

smooth RM/beam; subtract from scale with maximum residual at each iteration



Data weighting in the u-v plane

uniform



Generally more u-v tracks on inner part

Can choose to

- * weight all data equally (natural)
 - gives best S:N, less good beam
- * weight all u-v grid points equally (uniform)
 - gives good resolution, less S:N

- * Compromises possible
 - Briggs "robust" parameter $-5 \rightarrow 5$

Data weighting by telescope



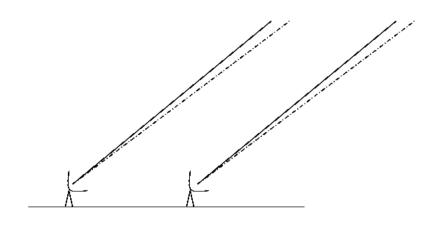


Many arrays have unequal size telescopes – international LOFAR, eMERLIN, VLBI For best S:N, adjust weights so larger telescopes contribute more

Wide-field imaging: limits due to bandwidth smearing

Finite range of wavelengths



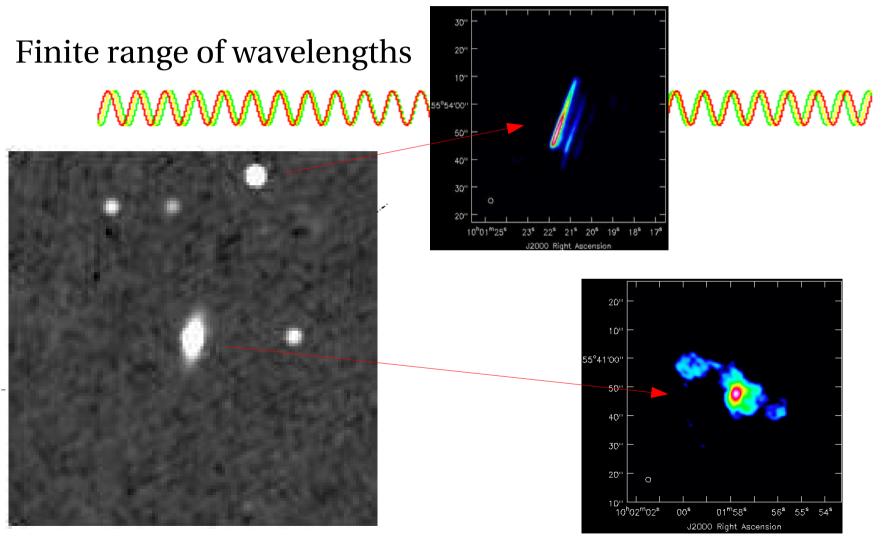


Fringe pattern OK at field centre but different colours out of phase at higher relative delay

Bigger range – smaller field of view (FT again)

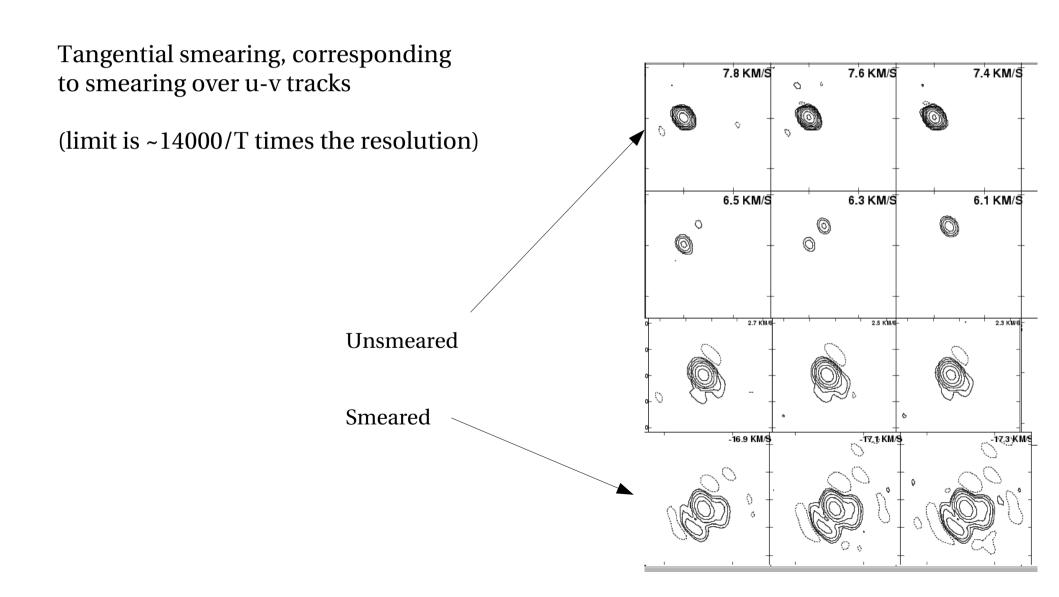
FOV = $(\lambda/\Delta\lambda)$ x (λ/L) i.e. $\lambda/\Delta\lambda$ resolution elements

Wide-field imaging: limits due to bandwidth smearing

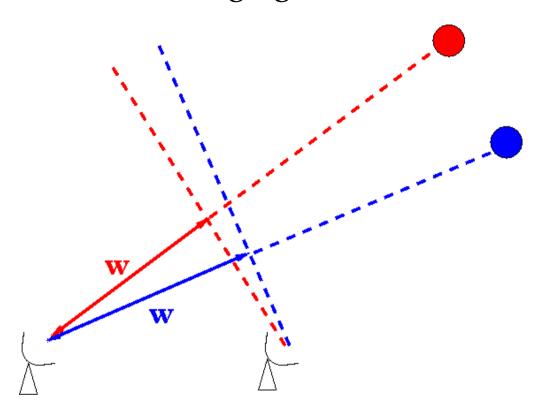


Effect is a radial smearing, corresponding to radial extent of measurements in u-v plane

Wide-field imaging: limits due to time-smearing

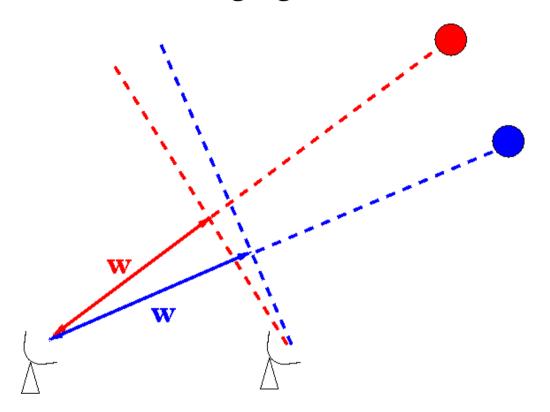


Wide-field imaging: limits due to non-coplanar baselines ("w-term")



- Component of baseline in source direction
- Not a problem for small fields of view; take out a phase term and it goes away across the whole field
- Quadratically worse with distance from centre of field

Wide-field imaging: limits due to non-coplanar baselines ("w-term")

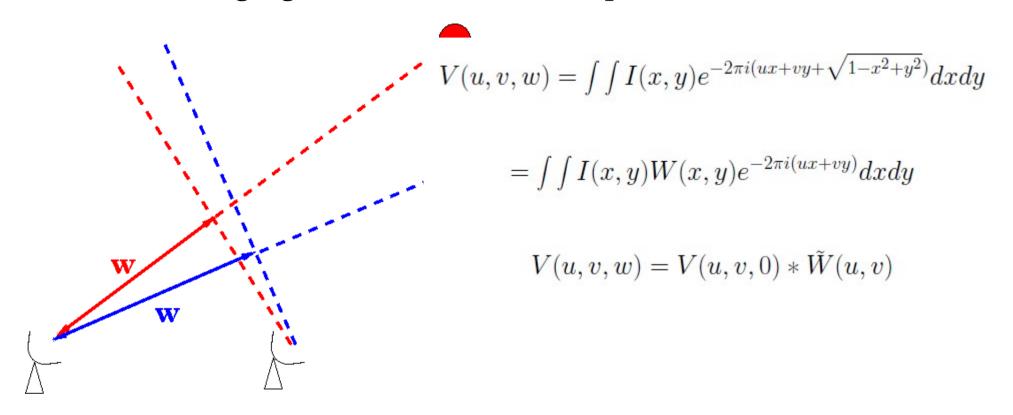


- Component of baseline in source direction
- Not a problem for small fields of view; take out a phase term and it goes away across the whole field
- Quadratically worse with distance from centre of field

Solutions:

- image in "facets" small regions of sky, then stitch together
- "W-projection"

Wide-field imaging: limits due to non-coplanar baselines ("w-term")



Solutions:

- "W-projection"
- project back into V(u,v,0) for all points together with particular (u,v)

Wide-field imaging limits: the primary beam

Similar principle to 2 wide slits in Young's slits experiment:

Pattern of 2 WS = Pattern of 2 NS * Pattern of 1 WS

Convolution with sinc function → visibilities drop at large angles to field centre

This happens at λ/w , where w = width of individual telescopes

Wide-field imaging limits: the primary beam



its experiment:

f 1 WS

drop at large angles to field centre

lividual telescopes

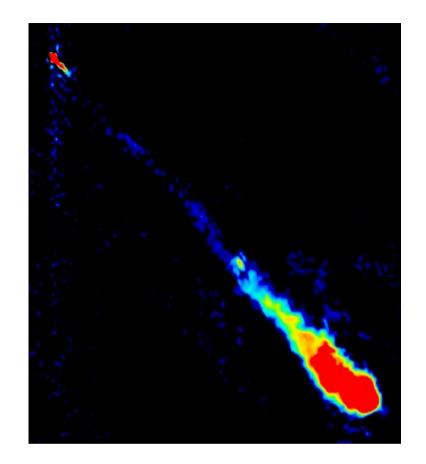
Phased-array feeds (e.g. ASKAP) – allow telescope beams to point in multiple directions – here 30 at once

(Also retrofit of WSRT with PAFs: "APERTIF")

Achieving high dynamic range

- Usually two major problems prevent achievement of very high dynamic range
- Lack of u-v coverage

- Closing errors (factorisable by telescope) removable using self-cal (next lecture)
- Non-closing errors (baseline-based)* mismatched bandpasses in correlator
 - * calibrate on very bright source



3C273, Davis et al. (MERLIN) 1,000,000:1 peak – RMS

See also de Bruyn & Brentjens work with WSRT

Signal-to-noise

Radio interferometer noise level =

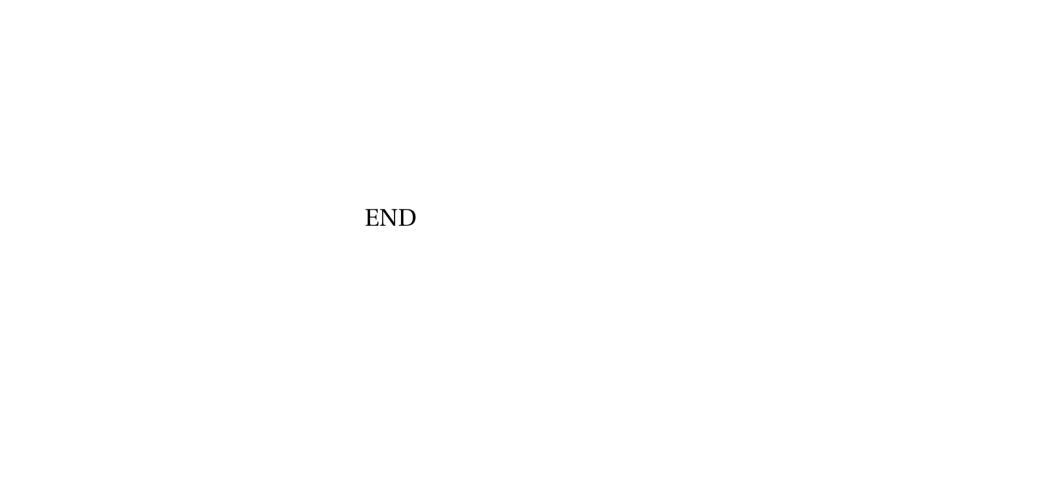
$$\frac{\sqrt{2}k_BT_{\rm sys}}{\sqrt{n_bT\Delta\nu}A\eta}$$

Tsys = system temperature, nb = number of baselines, T=integration time, Δv =bandwidth in Hz, A=area of apertures, η =aperture efficiency

NB linearly as 1/A not (1/PA)

In practice you rarely get to this!

Optical: need photons in coherence vol $r_0^2ct_0$ taking throughput into account



5. Dealing with the atmosphere

What the atmosphere does

- # Corrupts phase and amplitude of incoming signals
- # Corruption is different for different telescopes/apertures
- # Corruption changes with time (scales ms to mins)
- # Corruption varies with position (<size of tel. for optical)
- # Sources: water vapour..., ionosphere (LF radio)

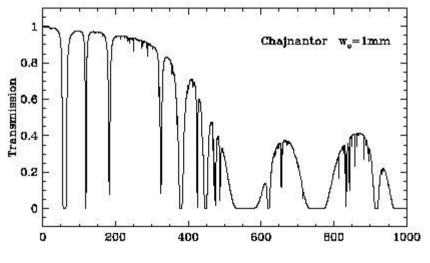
How bad is the problem? I. Phase

Waveband		Problem	Phase variation timescale
Radio mm near-IR optical	<300MHz few GHz >20GHz	ionosphere water &c water water atm cells	seconds-minutes minutes sec (site dependent) highly site dependent ~100 milliseconds 1-10 milliseconds

Optical: Fried parameter r_0 – length scale of fluctuations Timescale = r_0 /wind velocity

The shorter the wavelength, the more rapid the phase fluctuation and the harder the problem becomes.

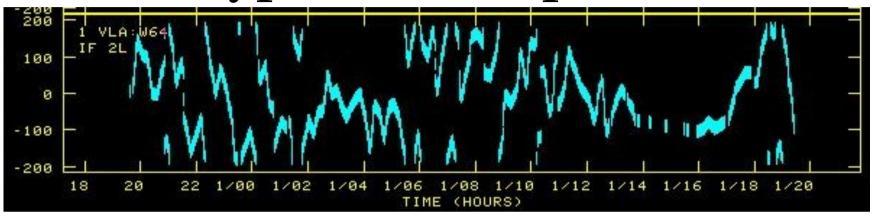
How bad is the problem? II. Amplitude



Mm wavelengths: amplitude drops precipitously with atmospheric water vapour column

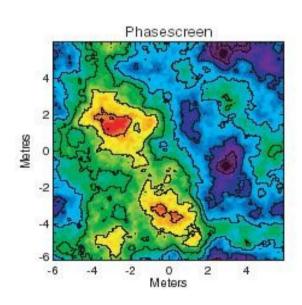
Carilli & Holdaway 1999

Typical examples

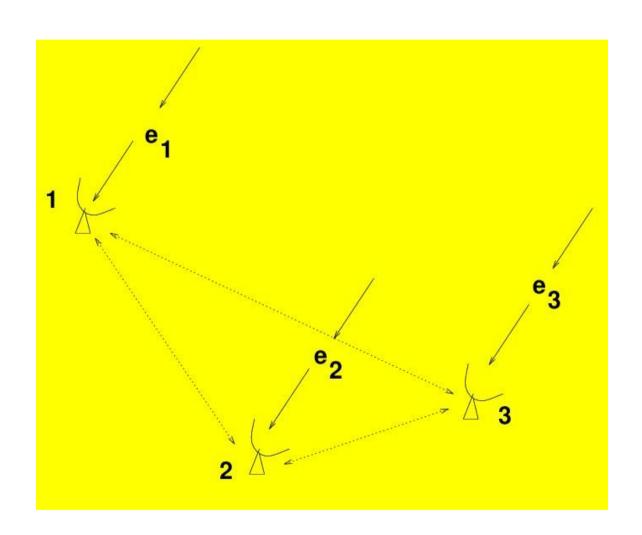


VLA, 8.4GHz

Realization of phase-screen with ro=50cm (Monnier 2003)



One approach: closure phase



Phase error on baseline a-b is ea-eb (±0)

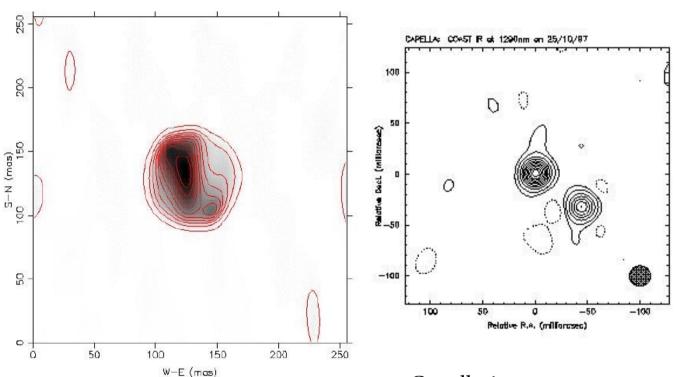
Add phases around triangle:

 $CP = \Psi_{12} + \Psi_{23} + \Psi_{31}$

ecp=0 !!!

BUT: requires bright source (S:N in one coherence time)

Closure-phase mapping: COAST



Betelgeuse (Young et al. 2004, Proc. Nat. Astr. Meeting)

Capella (www.mrao.cam.ac.uk/telescopes/coast)

Self-calibration

Development of closure techniques which implicitly preserves closure phase and amplitude (Cornwell & Wilkinson 1981)

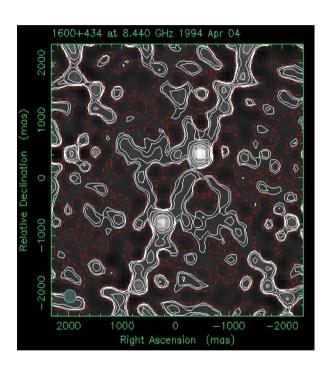
Given
$$R_{ij}^{
m obs} = g_i g_j R_{ij}^{
m real}$$

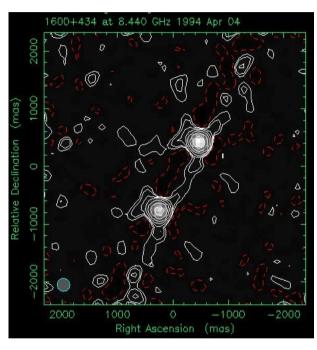
use an arbitrary model to determine gi and gj for an arbitrary model, and then replace the observed visibilities with

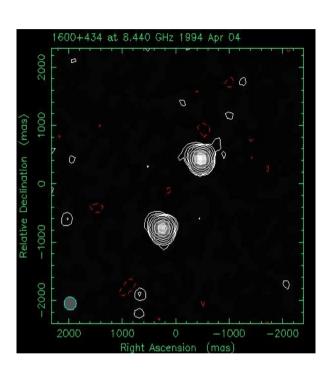
$$R_{ij}^{
m obs}/g_ig_j$$

Shocking but it works; relies on errors separating by telescope.

Self-calibration in action



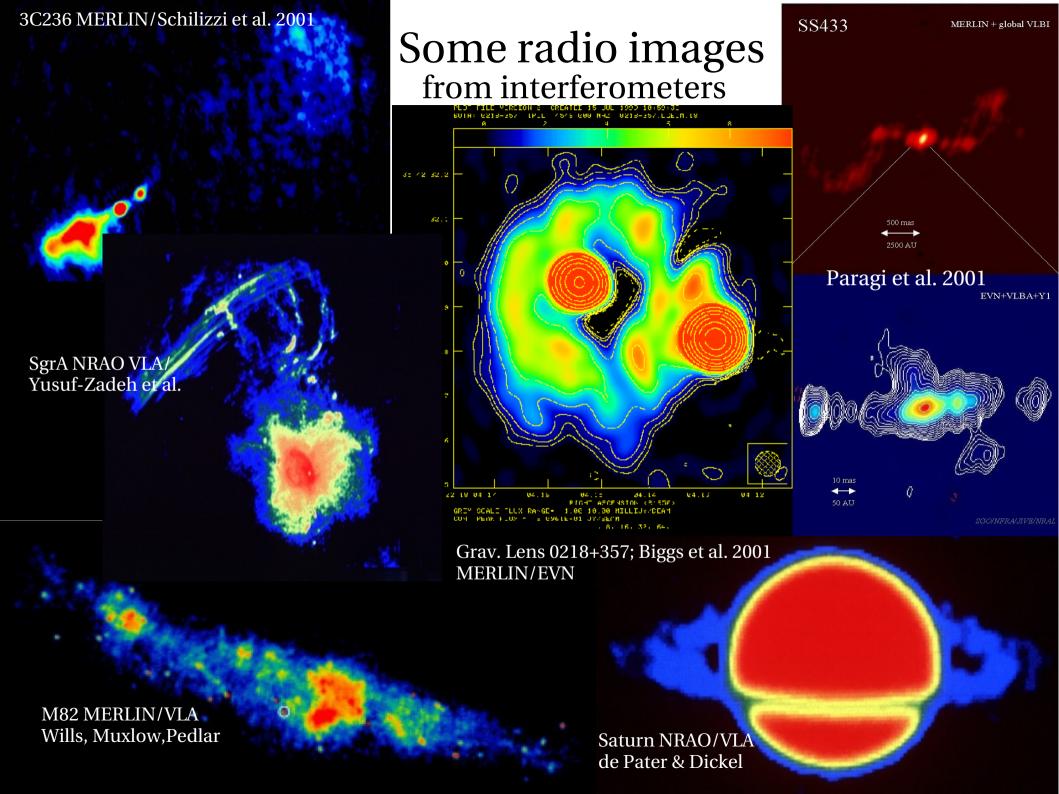


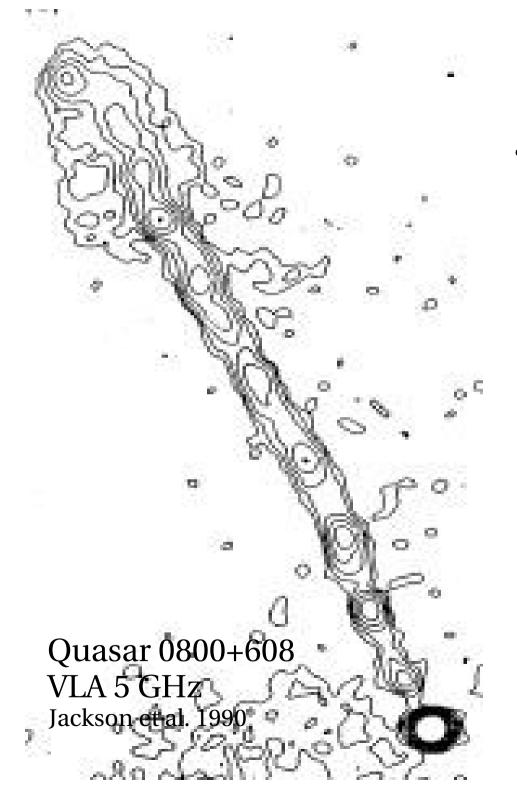


Dirty map

CLEANed map

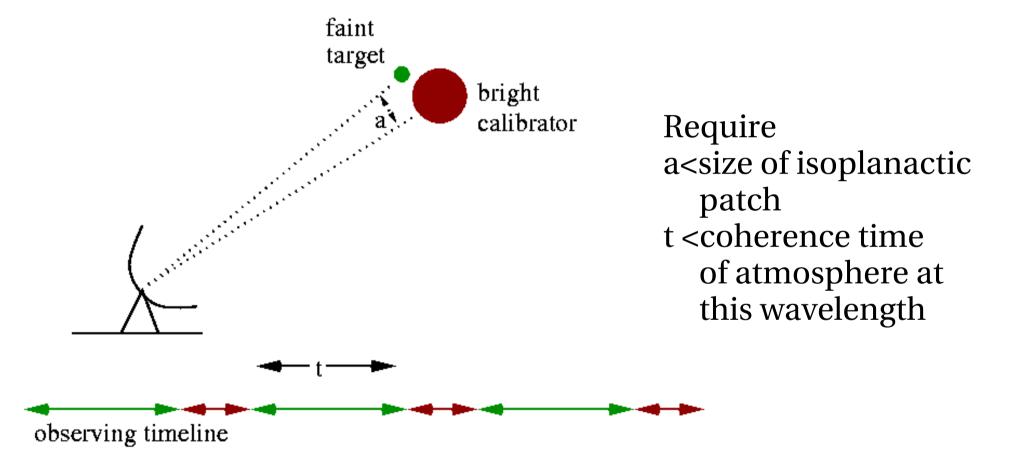
CLEANed map with phase selfcalibration





...and one more

Phase calibration



Can nod back and forth, or have target and calibrator in same FOV

Phase calibration

Phase calibrator must be

- * bright (S:N in reasonable time/atmospheric coh. time)
- * close (same corruption)

(cf. adaptive optics on single telescopes)

If isoplanactic patch is small

* calibrator may not exist

Summary

Interferometry is hard because

- it is more technically demanding
- you have to worry about atmospheric effects

Interferometry is worthwhile because

- it is the only way to obtain the high resolution needed to observe a vast range of astrophysical phenomena (including jets!)