

# Dealing with NOISE

Part I: Noise in general

Part II: Low Signal to Noise case

Stéphane GUILLOTEAU

Observatoire de Bordeaux

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# System Temperature

- The output power of the receiver is linked to the **Antenna System Temperature** by:

$$P_N = \gamma k T_{ant} \Delta \nu \quad (1)$$

- When looking at a source, the output power becomes  $P_N + P_a$  where

$$P_a = \gamma k T_a \Delta \nu \quad (2)$$

- $T_a$  is called the **antenna temperature** of the source.
- This is not a purely conventional definition.  
It can be demonstrated that  $P_a$  is the power the receiver(+antenna) would deliver when observing a blackbody (filling its entire beam pattern) at the physical temperature  $T_a$ .
- Thus,  $T_{ant}$  is the temperature of the “equivalent” blackbody seen by the antenna (in the Rayleigh Jeans approximation)

# System Temperature

- So,  $T_{ant}$  , is given by (just summing the input powers...)

$$\begin{aligned} T_{ant} &= T_{bg} && \text{cosmic background} \\ &+ T_{sky} \sim \eta_f(1 - e^{-\tau_{atm}})T_{atm}, && \text{sky noise} \\ &+ T_{spill} \sim (1 - \eta_f - \eta_{loss})T_{ground}, && \text{ground noise pickup} \\ &+ T_{loss} \sim \eta_{loss}T_{cabin}, && \text{optical losses in the receiver cabin} \\ &+ T_{rec} && \text{receiver noise} \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

- Note that this is a broad-band definition. It is a **DSB** (Double Side Band) noise temperature

# System Temperature

- Many astronomical signals are narrow band.  $g$  being the image to signal band gain ratio, the equivalent DSB signal giving the same antenna temperature as a pure SSB signal is only

$$P_{DSB} = (1 \times P_{SSB} + g \times 0)/(1 + g)$$

- We usually refer the **system temperature** and **antenna temperature** to a perfect antenna ( $\eta_f = 1$ ) located outside the atmosphere, and **single sideband signal**:

$$T_{sys} = \frac{(1 + g)}{\eta_f} e^{\tau_{atm}} T_{ant} \quad (4)$$

$$T_A^* = \frac{(1 + g)}{\eta_f} e^{\tau_{atm}} T_a$$

- this **antenna temperature**  $T_A^*$  is weather independent, and is linked to the source flux by an antenna dependent quantity only:

$$T_A^* = \frac{\eta_a A}{2k} S_\nu \quad (5)$$

# The Noise Equation

- The noise power is  $T_{sys}$ , the signal is  $T_A^*$ , and there are  $2\Delta\nu\Delta t$  independent samples to measure a correlation product in a time  $\Delta t$ , so the Signal to Noise is

$$\mathcal{R}_{sn} = \frac{T_{sys}}{T_A^*} \sqrt{2\Delta\nu\Delta t} \quad (6)$$

- The noise on a single baseline is thus

$$\Delta S = \frac{\sqrt{2}kT_{sys}}{\eta_a A \sqrt{\Delta\nu\Delta t}} \quad (7)$$

- this is  $\sqrt{2}$  *less* than that of a *single* antenna in total power
- but  $\sqrt{2}$  *worse* than that of an antenna with the *same total collecting area*
- this *sensitivity loss* is because we ignore the autocorrelations

# The Noise Equation

- Quantization must be accounted for

$$\Delta S = \frac{\sqrt{2}kT_{sys}}{\eta_q\eta_a A\sqrt{\Delta\nu\Delta t}} \quad (8)$$

with  $\eta_q$  the quantization efficiency (0.93 for the 2-bit, 4-level correlator).

- Noise is uncorrelated from one baseline to another
- there are  $n(n-1)/2$  baselines for  $n$  antennas
- thus the **point source** sensitivity is

$$\Delta S = \frac{2kT_{sys}}{\eta_q\eta_a A\sqrt{n(n-1)\Delta\nu\Delta t}} = \frac{\mathcal{J}T_{sys}}{\eta_q\sqrt{n(n-1)\Delta\nu\Delta t}} \quad (9)$$

since

$$\mathcal{J} = \frac{2k}{\eta_a A}$$

is the Jy/K conversion factor of one antenna

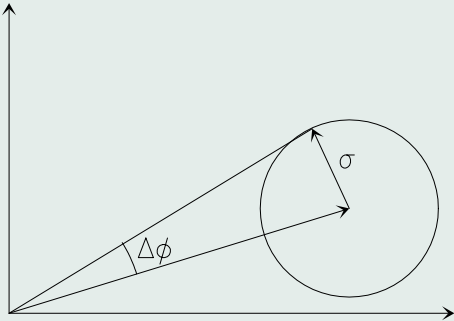
# Noise on Amplitude and Phase

- Noise properties for 1 baseline vary with Signal-to-Noise ratio
- On the amplitude & flux density

$$S \ll \sigma \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \sigma_A \simeq \sigma \sqrt{2 - \frac{\pi}{2}} \left( 1 + \left( \frac{S}{2\sigma} \right)^2 \right) \\ \langle S \rangle \simeq \sigma \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2}} \left( 1 + \left( \frac{S}{2\sigma} \right)^2 \right) \end{array} \right. \quad (10)$$

$$S \gg \sigma \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \sigma_A \simeq \sigma \\ \langle S \rangle \simeq S \end{array} \right. \quad (11)$$

- On the phase



$$S \ll \sigma \quad \left\{ \sigma_\phi \simeq \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{3}} \left( 1 - \sqrt{\frac{9}{2\pi^3} \frac{S}{\sigma}} \right) \right. \quad (12)$$

$$S \gg \sigma \quad \left\{ \sigma_\phi \simeq \frac{\sigma}{S} \right. \quad (13)$$

- Source detection is much easier on the *phase* than on the *amplitude*, since for  $S/N \sim 1$ ,  $\sigma_\phi = 1 \text{ radian} = 60^\circ$ .

# Noise in Images: preamble

- The Fourier Transform is a *linear combination* of the visibilities with some rotation (phase factor) applied. How do we derive the noise in the image from that on the visibilities ?
- Noise on visibilities
  - the *complex* (or *spectral*) correlator gives the same variance on the real and imaginary part of the complex visibility,  $\langle \varepsilon_R^2 \rangle = \langle \varepsilon_I^2 \rangle = \langle \varepsilon^2 \rangle$
  - noise in Real and Imaginary parts are uncorrelated  $\langle \varepsilon_R \varepsilon_I \rangle = 0$
- Effect of rotation: **NONE**  
any phase factor (rotation) applied to the complex visibility still result in the same properties on the variance of the real and imaginary parts, because  $\cos^2(\phi) + \sin^2(\phi) = 1$

$$\varepsilon'_R = \varepsilon_R \cos(\phi) - \varepsilon_I \sin(\phi)$$

$$\varepsilon'_I = \varepsilon_R \sin(\phi) + \varepsilon_I \cos(\phi)$$

$$\langle \varepsilon'^2_R \rangle = \langle \varepsilon_R^2 \rangle \cos^2(\phi) - 2\langle \varepsilon_R \varepsilon_I \rangle \cos(\phi) \sin(\phi) + \langle \varepsilon_I^2 \rangle \sin^2(\phi) = \langle \varepsilon^2 \rangle$$

$$\langle \varepsilon'_R \varepsilon'_I \rangle = \langle \varepsilon_R^2 \rangle \cos(\phi) \sin(\phi) - \langle \varepsilon_I^2 \rangle \cos(\phi) \sin(\phi) = 0$$



## Noise in Imaging: first order

- In the imaging process, we combine (with some **weights**) the individual visibilities  $V_i$ . At the phase center:

$$I = \left( \sum w_i V_i \right) / \left( \sum w_i \right) \quad (14)$$

- Assuming a point source at the phase center,  $V_i = V + \varepsilon_{Ri}$

$$I = \left( \sum w_i (V + \varepsilon_{Ri}) \right) / \left( \sum w_i \right) \quad (15)$$

where  $\varepsilon_{Ri}$  is the (real part) of the noise.

- thus the expectation of  $I = V$ , since  $\langle \varepsilon_{Ri} \rangle = 0$
- since  $\langle \varepsilon_{Ri} \varepsilon_{Rj} \rangle = 0$  the variance of  $I$  is

$$\sigma^2 = \langle I^2 \rangle - \langle I \rangle^2 = \frac{\sum w_i^2 \langle \varepsilon_{Ri}^2 \rangle}{(\sum w_i)^2} \quad (16)$$

- using  $\langle \varepsilon_{Ri}^2 \rangle = \sigma_i^2$  and the **natural weights**  $w_i = 1/\sigma_i^2$ , we find as expected

$$1/\sigma^2 = \sum (1/\sigma_i^2)$$

- At any other point in the image, the same remains true, since only a phase factor is applied to combined all visibilities together.

## Demonstration ...

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{\sum w_i^2 \langle \varepsilon_{Ri}^2 \rangle}{(\sum w_i)^2} \quad (17)$$

$$= \frac{\sum w_i^2 \sigma_i^2}{(\sum w_i^2)^2} \quad (18)$$

$$= \frac{\sum (\frac{1}{\sigma_i^2})^2 \sigma_i^2}{(\sum \frac{1}{\sigma_i^2})^2} \quad (19)$$

$$= \frac{\sum (\frac{1}{\sigma_i^2})}{(\sum \frac{1}{\sigma_i^2})^2} \quad (20)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sum \frac{1}{\sigma_i^2}} \quad (21)$$

as expected given the choice of weights...

# Noise in Imaging: Weighting and Tapering

- When using non-natural weights ( $w_i \neq 1/\sigma_i^2$ ), either as a result of **Uniform** or **Robust** weighting, or due to **Tapering**, the noise (for point sources) increases
- the increase is given by

$$w_{rms}/w_{mean}$$

where

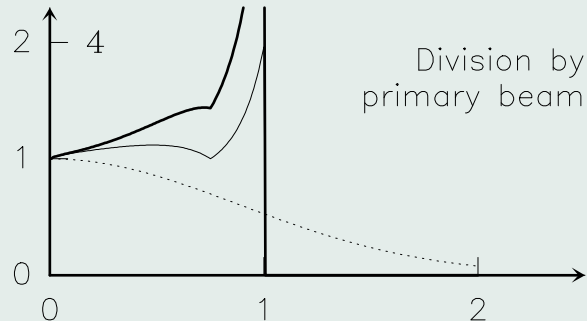
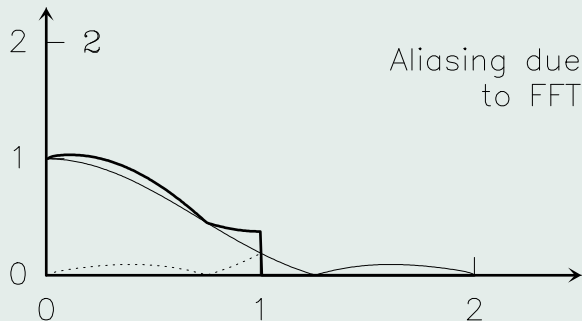
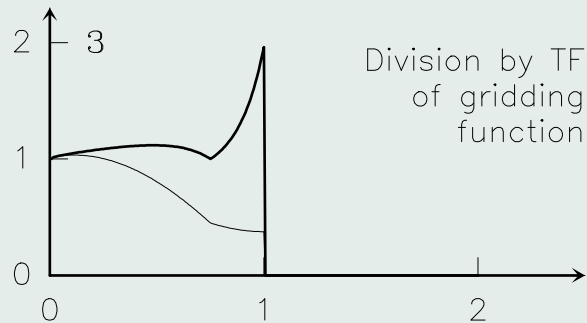
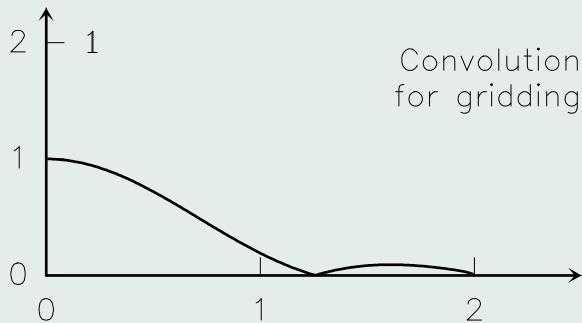
$$w_{rms} = \sqrt{\left(\sum (WT)^2\right) / n}$$

$$w_{mean} = \left(\sum WT\right) / n$$

- **Robust** weighting allows to improve angular resolution, and yet minimize (control) the noise increase
- **Robust** weighting and **Tapering** can allow to control the beam shape.

# Noise in Imaging: second order

- **Gridding** introduces a convolution in UV plane, hence a multiplication in image plane
- **Aliasing** folds the noise back into the image
- **Gridding Correction** enhances the noise at edge
- **Primary beam Correction** even more...



# Extended Source Sensitivity

- This is problematic. Here is the usual approach:
- We use **brightness temperature** for extended sources
- Use the flux to brightness conversion factor

$$S = \frac{2kT_b\Omega_s}{\lambda^2} = \frac{2kT_b\pi\theta_s^2}{4\ln(2)\lambda^2}$$

for a synthesized beam of solid angle  $\Omega_s$  (Gaussian of FWHM  $\theta_s$ )

- Since from the antenna equation  $\Omega_A A_{eff} = \lambda^2$ , the flux noise equation

$$\Delta S = \frac{2kT_{sys}}{\eta_q A_{eff} \sqrt{n(n-1)\Delta\nu\Delta t}}$$

gives the brightness noise equation

$$\Delta T_b = \frac{\Omega_A}{\Omega_s} \frac{T_{sys}}{\eta_q \sqrt{n(n-1)\Delta\nu\Delta t}} = \left(\frac{\theta_p}{\theta_s}\right)^2 \frac{T_{sys}}{\eta_q \sqrt{n(n-1)\Delta\nu\Delta t}}$$

which is just a simple “**beam dilution**” formula applied to the standard noise for one antenna in total power, and accounting for  $n$  antennas.

# Extended Source Sensitivity

- Brightness Noise Equation

$$\Delta T_b = \left( \frac{\theta_p}{\theta_s} \right)^2 \frac{T_{sys}}{\eta_q \sqrt{n(n-1) \Delta \nu \Delta t}}$$

- The previous formula is right only for sources just filling one synthesized beam.
- For more extended sources, it is **not** appropriate to count the number of synthesized beams  $n_b$  and divide by  $\sqrt{n_b}$ .
- This only gives a lower limit...
- **Why ?**
  - Averaging  $n_b$  beams is equivalent to smoothing
  - This is equivalent to tapering, i.e. to ignore the longest baselines...
  - This increases the noise ...
- Moreover, for very extended structures, **missing flux** may become a problem.

# Noise in Imaging: Bandwidth Effects

- The correlator channels have a non-square shape, i.e. their responses to narrow band and broad band signals differ.
- Hence the **noise equivalent** bandwidth  $\Delta\nu_N$  is not the **channel separation**  $\Delta\nu_C$ , neither the **effective resolution**  $\Delta\nu_R$
- These effects are of order 15-30 % on the noise.
- In practice,  $\Delta\nu_N > \Delta\nu_C$ , i.e. adjacent channels are correlated.
- Noise in one channel is less than predicted by the Noise Equation when using the channel separation as the bandwidth.
- But it does not average as  $\sqrt{n_c}$  when using  $n_c$  channels...
- When averaging  $n_c \gg 1$  *i.e. many* channels, the bandpass becomes more or less square. The effective bandwidth becomes  $n_c \Delta\nu_C$ .
- Consequence: **There is no (simple) exact way to propagate the noise information when smoothing in frequency.**
- Consequence: In GILDAS software, it is assumed  $\Delta\nu_N = \Delta\nu_C = \Delta\nu_R$ , and a  $\sqrt{n_c}$  noise averaging when smoothing

## *A parte: Reweighting in Frequency ?*

- The receiver bandpass is not flat:  $T_{sys}$  depends on  $\nu$
- Hence the **weights** depend on the channel number  $i$
- When synthesizing broad band data, should we take the weights into account ?
- For **pure continuum data**
  - **Yes**: it improves S/N
  - **But**: ill-defined equivalent central frequency, and undefined equivalent detection bandwidth
- For **line data**
  - **No**: could degrade S/N if line shape is not consistent with the weights
  - **No**: undefined bandwidth: does not allow to compute a *integrated line flux*  
( $\int S_\nu(\nu) d\nu$ )
- In practice: not implemented in current GILDAS software



# Noise in Imaging: Decorrelation

- Each visibility is affected by a random atmospheric phase  $\phi$
- Assuming a point source at the phase center,  $V_i = V e^{i\phi_i} + \varepsilon_{Ri}$

$$I = (\sum w_i (V e^{i\phi_i} + \varepsilon_{Ri})) / (\sum w_i) \quad (22)$$

- the expectation of  $I$  is now only  $V e^{-(\Delta\phi)^2/2}$
- the noise does not change
- but the signal to noise is decreased
- the Signal is spread around the source (*seeing*)
- So the effect is different for an extended source...
- This may limit the **Dynamic range**, and the effective noise level may be much higher than the thermal noise

# Estimating the Noise

- The **weights** are used to give a **prediction** of the noise level in the images.
- Displayed by **UV\_MAP**
- Carried on in the image headers (**aaa%noise** variable for an image displayed with **GO MAP**, **GO NICE** or **GO BIT**)
- but does not handle properly the noise equivalent bandwidth
- neither the effects of decorrelation...
- **GO RMS** will compute the rms level on the displayed image. May be biased by the source structure
- **GO NOISE** will plot an histogram of image values, and fit a Gaussian to it to determine the noise level. Will be less biased than **GO RMS**.
- Both **GO NOISE** and **GO RMS** will include dynamic range effects (i.e. give you the “true” noise of your image, rather than the theoretical).

# Conclusions

- mm interferometry is not so difficult to understand
- even if you don't, the noise equation is all you need
- the noise equation

$$\Delta T_b = \frac{T_{\text{sys}}}{\eta n \sqrt{\Delta \nu t}} \left( \frac{\theta_P}{\theta_S} \right)^2 \quad (23)$$

allows you to check quickly if a source of given brightness  $T_b$  can be imaged at a given angular resolution  $\theta_S$  and spectral resolution  $\Delta \nu$  ( $n$  is the number of antennas,  $\theta_P$  their primary beam width, and  $\eta$  an efficiency factor of order 0.5)

- $T_{\text{sys}}$  is easy to guess: the simplistic value of 1 K per GHz of observing frequency is a good enough approximation in most cases.
- and you know  $T_b$  because you know the physics of your source!
- that is (almost) all you need to decide on the feasibility of an observation...

## Part II: Low Signal to Noise

When is a source detected ?

What parameters can be derived ?

# Low S/N: Continuum source

- Rule 1: do not resolve the source
- Rule 2: get the best absolute position before
- Rule 3: Use `UV_FIT` to determine the signal to noise ratio.
- if position accuracy better than 1/10th of beam
  - a  $3\sigma$  signal is sufficient to claim a detection.
  - Fix the position.
  - Use an appropriate source size.
- if position accuracy is about the beam
  - a  $4\sigma$  signal will be needed.
  - Do not fix the position.
  - Use an appropriate source size.
- if position is unknown
  - a  $5\sigma$  signal will be needed.
  - make an image to locate it.
  - Do not fix the position.
  - Use an appropriate source size.

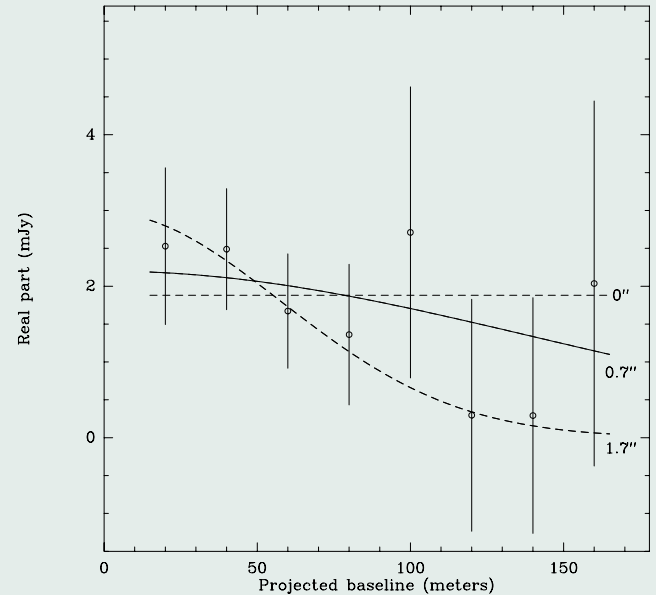
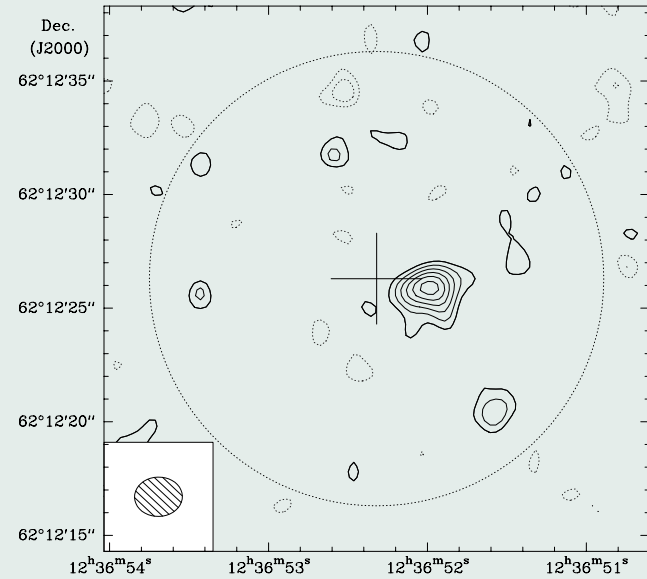
# Continuum source parameters

- Rule of thumb

*All fluxes are biased by 1 to 2  $\sigma$*

- If position is free, flux is biased by 1  $\sigma$
- at least  $4\sigma$  to get a position to 25 % of beam size
- With  $< 6\sigma$ , cannot measure any source size !
  - divide data in two, shortest baselines on one side, longest on another. Each subset get a  $4.2\sigma$  error on mean flux.
  - Error on the difference is then just  $3\sigma$ , i.e. any difference must be larger than 33 % to be significant
  - Mean baseline length ratio for the subsets is 3.
  - No smooth source structure can give a visibility difference larger than 30 % on such a baseline range ratio.
- If size is free,  $\sigma$  on flux increases quite significantly.

## Example: HDF source



Left:  $7\sigma$  detection of the strongest source in the Hubble Deep Field. Note that contours are *cheating* (start at  $2\sigma$  but with  $1\sigma$  steps).

Right: Attempt to derive a size. Size can be as large as the synthesized beam... Note that the integrated flux increases with the source size.

# Line sources

- Things get even worse for spectral lines
- Line velocity unknown: observer will select the brightest part of the spectrum → bias
- Line width unknown: observer may limit the width to brightest part of the spectrum → another bias
- If position is unknown, it is determined from the integrated area map (or visibilities) made from the tailored line window specified by the astronomer. This gives a biased total flux !.
- These biases are all positive (noise is added to signal).
- Any speculated extension will increase the total flux, by enlarging the selected image region (same effect as the tailored line window).
- Net result 1 to 2  $\sigma$  positive bias on integrated line flux.
- Things get really messy if a continuum is superposed to the weak line...



# The correct approach

- Point source or unresolved source ( $< 1/3$  of the beam)
  - Determine position (e.g. from 1.3 mm continuum if available, or from integrated line map if not, or from other data)
  - Derive line profile by fitting point or small (FIXED SIZE), FIXED POSITION, source into  $UV$  spectral data
  - Fit line profile by Gaussian (with or without constant baseline offset, depending on whether the continuum flux is known or not)
- Extended sources, and/or velocity gradient
  - Fit multi-parameter (6 for an elliptical gaussian) source model for each spectral channel into  $UV$  data
  - Consequence : signal in each channel should be  $> 6\sigma$  to derive any meaningful information.
  - Strict minimum is  $4\sigma$  (per line channel...) to get flux and position for a fixed size Gaussian
  - Velocity gradients not believable unless even better signal to noise is obtained per line channel !...

## Conclusions: for weak spectral lines

- Do not believe velocity gradient unless proven at a  $5\sigma$  level. Requires a  $S/N$  larger than 6 in each channel. Remember that position accuracy per channel is the beamwidth divided by the signal-to-noise ratio...
- Do not believe source size unless  $S/N > 10$  (or better)
- Expect line widths to be very inaccurate
- Expect integrated line intensity to be positively biased by 1 to  $2\sigma$
- even more biased if source is extended
- **These biases are the analogous of the Malmquist bias**

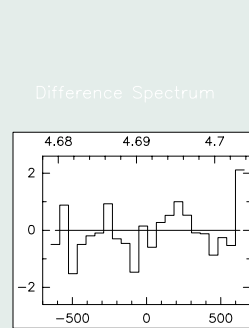
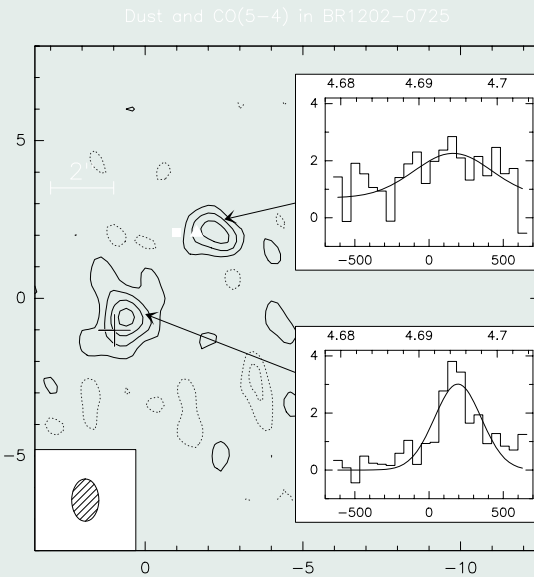
## How to analyze weak lines ?

- Perform a statistical analysis (e.g.  $\chi^2$ , or other statistical test) comparing **model prediction** to **observations, i.e. VISIBILITIES**
- The GILDAS software offer tools to compute visibilities from an image / data cube (**UV\_FMODEL**)
- Beware that (original) channels are correlated (  $\Delta\nu_N > \Delta\nu_C$  )
- Appropriate statistical tests can actually provide a better estimate of the noise level than the prediction given by the weights.
- Up to you to develop the model adapted to your science case (and select the proper statistical tool for your measurement).

# Examples

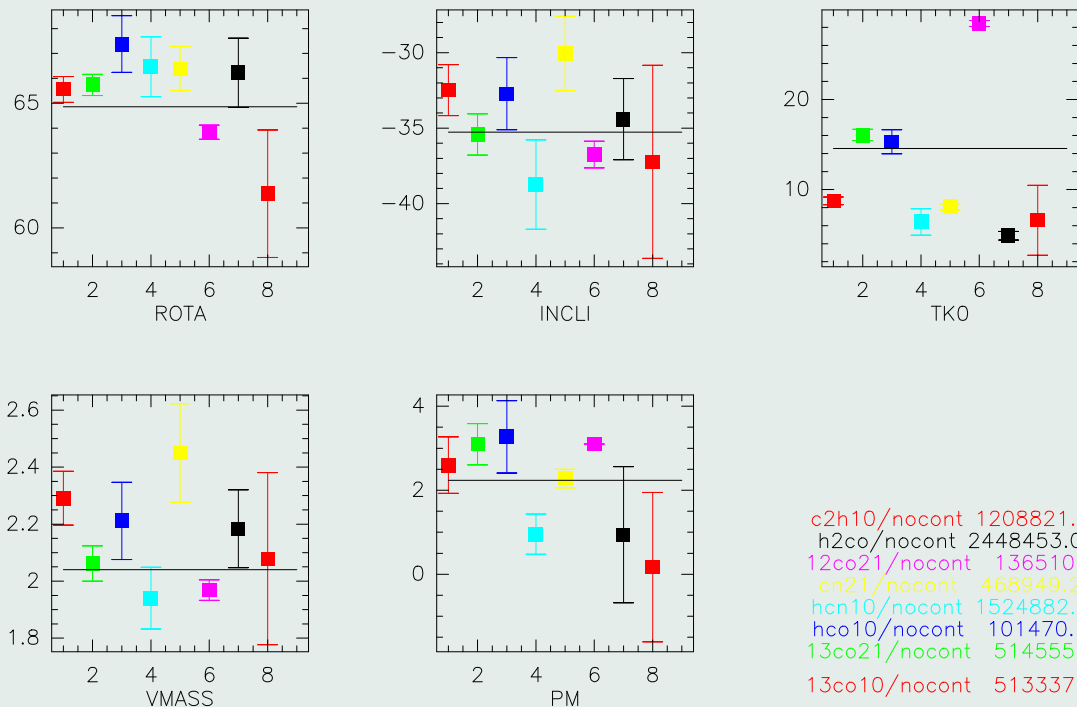
- Examples are numerous, specially for high redshift CO.
- e.g. 53 W002 :
  - OVRO (Scoville et al. 1997) claims an extended source, with velocity gradient. Yet the total line flux is  $1.51 \pm 0.2$  Jy.km/s i.e. (at best) only  $7 \sigma$ .
  - PdBI (Alloin et al. 2000) finds a line flux of  $1.20 \pm 0.15$  Jy.km/s, no source extension, no velocity gradient, different line width and redshift.
  - Note that the line fluxes agree within the errors...
- Remark(s)
  - But the images (contours) look convincing !
  - Answer : beware of “cheating” contours which start at  $2 \sigma$  (sometimes even 3), but are spaced by  $1 \sigma$
  - But the spectrum looks convincing, too !
  - Answer : beware of “cheating” spectra, which are oversampled by a factor 2. The noise is then not independent between adjacent channels.

## Example of Velocity Gradient: BR 1202-0725



- The image is a contour map of dust emission at 1.3 mm, with  $2\sigma$  contours
- The inserts are redshifted CO(5-4) spectra from the indicated directions
- A weak continuum (measured **independently**) exist on the Northern source
- The rightmost insert is **a** difference spectrum (with a scale factor applied, and continuum offset removed): **No SIGNIFICANT PROFILE DIFFERENCE!**
- i.e. **No Velocity Gradient** measured.

## Example of Analysis with Noise: DM Tau



- Error bars derived from a  $\chi^2$  analysis in the UV plane, using a line radiative transfer model for proto-planetary disks.