Single dish calibration

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10th IRAM mm Interferometer School 1-5 October 2018



Motivation:

The aim of astronomical observations is often to obtain <u>physical parameters</u> of the emitting regions, like temperatures, densities, column densities, masses, polarisation (angle, degree), time variability (periodicity), etc..

To derive these quantities from the detected data, the data have to be calibrated. This means for example to translate the observed counts into intensities.

Many of the properties of the receiving system have to be known, as accurately as possible, as they influence the observed data. For example, the telescope has a finite angular resolution, as the spectrometers have a finite frequency resolution.

Here, we will speak about electro-magnetic waves in the mm-regime, detected with single-dish radio telescopes.

## IRC+10216: An evolved star





- Mass loss of AGB stars via stellar ejecta enrich the ISM and largely control the chemical evolution of galaxies
- Here, CO emission of the shells of carbonrich AGB star IRC+10216 at 120pc distance
- Envelope is nearly spherical, expanding at 14.5 km/s.
- The resolution of 11" corresponds to an expansion time of 500 yr. The map shows the mass loss history of the last 8000 yr. The typical shell separation is 800-1000 yr.
- A companion star with a period of 800 yr would explain all key features.
- Cernicharo et al. 2015, A&A, 575, A91
- IRC+10216 exhibits a very rich chemistry.
   Nearly 50% of the known interstellar species have been found here.

# Detection of methyl silane CH<sub>3</sub>SiH<sub>3</sub> in IRC+10216

- The detection of organo-silicon molecule CH<sub>3</sub>SiH<sub>3</sub> may help in understanding of silicon-carbon chemistries in the inner envelope of AGB stars, and the formation of SiC grains from gas-phase Si<sub>n</sub>C<sub>m</sub>.
- Ten rotational transitions detected with the IRAM 30m telescope between 80 and 350 GHz:

J=4-3 to J=16-15

- Blue: Observed spectrum

Green: Modelled CH<sub>3</sub>SiH<sub>3</sub> spectrum Red arrows indicate K-ladder.

- Cernicharo, Agundez et al. 2017 (A&A, 606, 5)







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## 30m telescope: principal components



- 1. pedestal
- 2. azimuth bearing
- 3. elevation axis
- 4. Nasmyth cabin with frontends & optics
- 5. backstructure

steel space frame

temperature controlled

6. surface of primary mirror

420 aluminum honeycomb panels thermal insulation, deicing

7. quadrupod, subreflector, wobbler

## 30m telescope: Signal path



A B Θ G F Ð

A/ Radiofrequency, RF, Signal

B/ Paraboloic primary mirror

C/ Hyperbolic secondary mirror Quadrupod support

D/ Flat tertiary mirror M3

E/ Nasmyth optics M3, M4, ...

F/ Heterodyne Receiver Local oscillator Mixer Intermediate frequency, IF

IF-Transport through cable spiral

Spectrometers / Backends



Fig. 7.6 The geometry of (a) Cassegrain, (b) Gregory, (c) Nasmyth and (d) offset Cassegrain systems

Parabolic primary dish, but different secondary mirrors and positions of the receivers:

+ Cassegrain: hyperbolic, convex subreflector (e.g. APEX)

+ Gregory: elliptical, concave subreflector behind the prime focus (e.g. Effelsberg 100m)

+ Nasmyth: hyperbolic subreflector and flat tertiary mirror (e.g. IRAM 30m, 12m APEX, SMT/HHT)

+ Offset Cassegrain: "half" parabolic and hyperbolic subreflector (e.g. 100m GBT, 10m SPT)

Advantages of the different optical configurations:

+ Secondary focus:

5-10 times larger f/D ratios, less sensitive to lateral focus offsets, larger fields-of-view allowing for array receivers, spillover towards cold sky not warm ground

+ Nasmyth system: receivers are not tilted with elevation, more space

+ Offset Cassegrain: less blockage by subreflector and support structure, less standing waves

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## Radio telescopes: Nasmyth optics of the 30m telescope





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Variable amount of precipitable water vapor (pwv), ATM model by J.Pardo & J.Cernicharo



## Taumeter water vapour statistics 2012 - 2017



+ Summer: ⟨pwv⟩ ~ 6.5 mm + Winter: ⟨pwv⟩ ~ 4 mm

- + Summer months April September: 50% < 6mm, 25% < 4.2mm
- + Winter months October March: 50% < 4.2mm, 25% < 3mm



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## Intensity calibration: Antenna temperature I

Idea of the chopper wheel calibration (Penzias & Burrus 1973):

The calibration signal is the difference between an absorber at ambient temperature and the sky.





$$\begin{split} V_{amb} &= G \left( T_{amb} + T_{rec} \right) \\ V_{sky} &= G \left( T_{sky} + T_{rec} \right) \\ V_{ON} &= V_{sky} + G T_A \\ V_{OFF} &= V_{sky} \end{split}$$

G is the varying factor to be calibrated out Here, we neglect contribution from the ground ( $F_{eff}$ =1).

$$\Delta V_{cal} = V_{amb} - V_{sky} = G (T_{amb} - T_{sky}) = G (T_{amb} - T_{amb} (1 - e^{-\tau A})) = G T_{amb} e^{-\tau A}$$
  
 
$$\Delta V_{sig} = V_{ON} - V_{OFF} = G T_A = G T_A' e^{-\tau A}$$

$$T_{A}' = \frac{\Delta V_{sig}}{\Delta V_{cal}} T_{amb}$$

- au is the zenith opacity
- A is the airmass 1/sin(El)
- $T_{A}'$  is the antenna temperature (of the source),

corrected for atmospheric extinction

The simple ratio of signal and calibration, multiplied by the ambient temperature, gives the source temperature outside of the atmosphere, in first approximation ( $F_{eff}=1$ ,  $T_{atm}=T_{amb}$ ,  $G_{im}=1$ ) !! See "Radio Astronomy Techniques", Downes 1988

## **Receiver temperature**



## Hot/Cold/Sky Calibration



### *input:* T<sub>HOT</sub>

T<sub>COLD</sub>

T<sub>AMB</sub>

 $\mathsf{G}_{\mathsf{im}}$ 

sensor lookup table meteo station -13dB meteo station Pressure Humidity meteo station

### output: $T_{RX}(v)$ , $T_{CAI}$ , $T_{SYS}$ , pwv, zenith opacity

(The atmospheric model ATM is used to correct for any opacity difference between signal and image band !)

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## Heterodyne receivers: Image band rejection



Frequency survey of the Galactic star forming region W3OH by Nicolas Biver using the dual-sideband mixers of the EMIR receiver band E230.



Heterodyne principle: single processing by mixing two frequencies to obtain the mixing product, the intermediate frequency  $f_{IF}=f_1-f_2$ .

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## Heterodyne receivers: Image band rejection



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## Temperatures in radio-astronomy



Black body radiation:  

$$B_{\nu}(T) = \frac{2h\nu^3}{c^2} \frac{1}{e^{h\nu/kT} - 1}$$

**Rayleigh-Jeans limit:** 

$$h\nu \ll kT$$
  $B_{\rm RJ}(\nu,T) = \frac{2\nu^2}{c^2}kT$   
 $\frac{\nu}{\rm GHz} \ll 20.84\left(\frac{T}{\rm K}\right)$ 

At mm wavelengths with its rather high frequencies, RJ approximation is not valid anymore for typical low temperatures of molecular clouds: 230 ~ 20.84 x 10K = 208.4

## Radiation temperature: $J(T) = \frac{c^2}{2k\nu^2} I = \frac{h\nu}{k} \frac{1}{e^{h\nu/kT} - 1}$

In the RJ-Limit: J(T)=T. First order correction is 5.5K at 230GHz:

 $J_{\nu}(T_{\mathrm{B}}) = T_{\mathrm{B}} - \frac{h\nu}{2k}$ 

In radio astronomy, the brightness is measured by the <u>brightness temperature</u> Tb. This is the temperature which would result in the given brightness/intensity if inserted into the RJ-Law:

$$T_{\rm b} = \frac{c^2}{2k} \frac{1}{\nu^2} I_{\nu} = \frac{\lambda^2}{2k} I_{\nu} \,.$$

If the emitting source is not a thermodynamic black body,  $\rm T_{\rm b}$  will depend on frequency.

 $T_{b}$  is also used when the RJ-approximation is not valid.

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## Antenna temperature II: Deriving the calibration factor

$$T_{\mathrm{A},i}^{*} = T_{\mathrm{cal}} * \frac{C_{\mathrm{source},i} - C_{\mathrm{atm},i}}{C_{\mathrm{chop},i} - C_{\mathrm{atm},i}} = T_{\mathrm{cal}} * \frac{\Delta C_{\mathrm{source},i}}{\Delta C_{\mathrm{cal},i}} = T_{\mathrm{cal}} * \frac{\mathrm{signal}_{i}}{\mathrm{gain}_{i}}.$$
$$C_{\mathrm{chop}} = g \Big[ G_{\mathrm{s}} J(\nu_{\mathrm{s}}, T_{\mathrm{chop}}) + G_{\mathrm{i}} J(\nu_{\mathrm{s}}, T_{\mathrm{chop}}) + T_{\mathrm{rec}} \Big] \qquad J_{\mathrm{cal}}^{*}$$

$$C_{\text{atm}} = g \Big( G_{\text{s}} \Big[ F_{\text{eff}} J(\nu_{\text{s}}, T_{\text{sky}}) + (1 - F_{\text{eff}}) J(\nu_{\text{s}}, T_{\text{cab}}) \Big] \\ + G_{\text{i}} \Big[ F_{\text{eff}} J(\nu_{\text{i}}, T_{\text{sky}}) + (1 - F_{\text{eff}}) J(\nu_{\text{i}}, T_{\text{cab}}) \Big] + T_{\text{rec}} \Big).$$

$$\Delta C_{\rm cal} = C_{\rm chop} - C_{\rm atm},$$

$$T_{\rm A}^* = T_{\rm A} \exp(\tau_{\rm s} A) * \frac{1}{G_{\rm s} F_{\rm eff}} = T_{\rm A}' \frac{1}{F_{\rm eff}} \qquad \frac{T_{\rm chop} - T_{\rm A}^{\rm sky}}{\langle C_{\rm chop} \rangle - \langle C_{\rm atm} \rangle} = \frac{T_{\rm chop} - T_{\rm cold}^{\rm corr}}{\langle C_{\rm chop} \rangle - \langle C_{\rm cold} \rangle}$$

 $\Delta C_{\text{source}} = C_{\text{source}} - C_{\text{atm}} = gT_{\text{A}} = gG_{\text{s}}F_{\text{eff}}\exp(-\tau_{\text{s}}A)T_{\text{A}}^{*}.$ 

The calibration factor  $T_{cal}$  is now defined such that

$$T_{\rm cal} = \frac{\Delta C_{\rm cal}}{\Delta C_{\rm source}} * T_{\rm A}^* = \frac{\Delta C_{\rm cal}}{gG_{\rm s}F_{\rm eff}\exp(-\tau_{\rm s}A)}$$

and we finally find:

$$\begin{split} T_{\rm cal} &= (1+G_{\rm im}) \Big[ J(\nu_{\rm s}, T_{\rm ATM}) - J(\nu_{\rm s}, T_{\rm bg}) \Big] \\ &+ (1+G_{\rm im}) \Big[ J(\nu_{\rm s}, T_{\rm cab}) - J(\nu_{\rm s}, T_{\rm ATM}) \Big] \exp(\tau_{\rm s} A) \\ &+ G_{\rm im} \Big[ J(\nu_{\rm s}, T_{\rm ATM}) - J(\nu_{\rm s}, T_{\rm bg}) \Big] \Big[ \exp((\tau_{\rm s} - \tau_{\rm i})A) - 1 \Big] \\ &+ (1+G_{\rm im}) / F_{\rm eff} \Big[ J(\nu_{\rm s}, T_{\rm chop}) - J(\nu_{\rm s}, T_{\rm cab}) \Big] \exp(\tau_{\rm s} A) \\ &= T \ (h\nu \ll kT) \quad T_{\rm bg} = 0. \end{split}$$

 $T_{\rm cal} =$ 

 $(1 + G_{im})$ 

 $*(T_{\rm chop} - T_{\rm A}^{\rm sky})$ 

For: J(T) follows:

 calibration factor:

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 $J(\nu, T_{\rm sky}) = J(\nu, T_{\rm ATM})(1 - \exp(-\tau A)) + J(\nu, T_{\rm bg}) \exp(-\tau A).$ 

The source signal enters only through the signal sideband, but the atmosphere etc. enter through both sidebands.

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## Antenna temperature II



basic equation:

$$T_{A}^{*} = \frac{\Delta V_{sig}}{\Delta V_{cal}} T_{ca}$$

calibration factor:

$$T_{\rm cal} = \frac{(1+G_{\rm im})}{F_{\rm eff} * \exp(-\tau_{\rm s}A)} * (T_{\rm chop} - T_{\rm A}^{\rm sky})$$

For a derivation, see last slide. Antenna temperatures  $T_A^*$  are corrected for the atmosphere and for the forward efficiency  $F_{eff}$ . These are usually output by the calibration pipeline at the 30m.

Main beam temperatures:

$$T_{\rm mb} = \frac{F_{\rm eff}}{B_{\rm eff}} T_{\rm A}^*$$

Main beam temperatures are brightness temperatures of a source which fills the main beam. The shape of the beam is explained in the next slides.



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## Telescope beam & point source sensitivity

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Let a plane wave with power density S be intercepted by the telescope. A certain amount  $P_e$  is extracted from this wave by the antenna. Their ratio has the dimension of an area and is called effective aperture of the antenna:

$$A_{\rm e} = P_{\rm e} / |\langle \boldsymbol{S} \rangle| \qquad A_{\rm e} = \eta_{\rm A} A_{\rm g}$$

 $A_g = 707 \text{ m}^2$  for the 30m.

Total flux density of a source,  $S_v$ measured in Jy: 1Jy = 10<sup>-26</sup> W m<sup>-2</sup> Hz<sup>-1</sup>:

$$S_{\nu} = \int_{\Omega_{\rm s}} I_{\nu}(\theta, \varphi) \cos \theta \, \mathrm{d}\Omega, \qquad S_{\nu} = \frac{2 \, k \, \nu^2}{c^2} T_{\rm b} \, \Delta\Omega$$



Mars scans in Azimuth & Elevation

Power detected [W Hz<sup>-1</sup>]:

$$w_{\nu} = k T_{A}' = \frac{1}{2} S_{\nu} A_{eff} = \frac{1}{2} \eta_{A} A_{g} S_{\nu}$$

$$\eta_{A} = \frac{2k}{A_{geom}} \frac{T_{A}'}{S_{v}} \quad \begin{array}{c} \text{Poi} \\ \text{sen} \\ \text{ape} \end{array}$$

Point source sensitivity or aperture efficiency

(factor 1/2 as only one polarisation is detected)

Observation of point sources of known flux density. Small primary calibrators of well known brightness temperature: Uranus & Mars

## Telescope beam pattern



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## Why modify the illumination with a taper ?



(a) Taper across the aperture of the main reflector Eq.(12.12), the value of the edge taper is indicated. (b) Focal plane beam pattern  $A_T(\theta,\phi)$  (in log-scale). (c) Cut through the beam pattern  $A_T(\theta,\phi)$ . The dashed line shows the level of the 1st side lobe, the dashed-dotted line the level of the 2nd side lobe.

**Taper function:** Gaussian or parabolic

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Beam pattern = FFT(illumination)

**Beam size (FWHM):**  $\theta_{mb} = \alpha \lambda / D$  [rad]

with  $\alpha = 1.0 \dots 1.3$ , depending on taper

Full width (diameter to 1<sup>st</sup> minimum):  $\theta_{fb} \approx 2.2 \ \theta_{mb}$ 

A "typical" single dish antenna observes one point.

## Measuring the extended beam pattern



# Observations of the Moon edge allow to measure the beam pattern (Kramer, Penalver, Greve 2013):



Figure 1: Scan of the Moon at 340 GHz in Azimuth (Left) and Elevation (Right).



Repeated for different frequencies.

Close to ideal conditions:

- + Very low water vapour,
- + second half of the night,
- + ~50deg elevation.

Differentiation leads to the composite beam profile.

## 30m beam pattern

Observations of the Moon edge allow to measure the beam pattern (Kramer, Penalver, Greve 2013):

Red points show observed composite beam profile. Black curves show best fitting models. Blue curves show situation described in Greve et al. 1998.

Beam models include

- + main beam, plus
- + three Gaussian error beams, and a
- + model of panel buckling.





## **Telescope efficiencies**

Telescope efficiencies:

- + Main beam efficiency  $\eta_{\rm B} = \frac{\Omega_{\rm MB}}{\Omega_{\rm A}}$ + Forward efficiency:  $\eta_l = \frac{\Omega_{2\pi}}{\Omega_A}$ 
  - 1 Efficiencies •F<sub>eff</sub> 0.8 +3.EI 0.6 +2.EE Telescope 2.0 +1.EB B<sub>eff</sub> 0 100 200 300 Frequency [GHz]

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## Widths of the main beam and the errorbeams

Half power beam width of the main beam and of the errorbeams:

 $\Theta = \lambda / D$  or  $\theta * v = const.$  (Constant illumination of the primary.)



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## 2-dimensional beam pattern



30m beam patterns over 10'x10' at 1mm (left) and at 2mm (right) measured with NIKA2 (Adam et al. 2018). The colour scale is logarithmic and shows dB.

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# Observing modes: switching overcomes drifts



The enemies: - sky emission fluctuations - receiver gain fluctuations	Solutions for single pixel receivers: <u>switching</u> between two positions on the sky or between two frequencies
	<ul> <li>position switching (SWtotal, ONOFF, ~1 minute)</li> <li>wobbler switching (SWwobbler, ONOFF, ~1 second)</li> <li>frequency switching (SWfrequency, TRACK, ~200msec)</li> </ul>
	Depending on the stability times, fast switching is preferred.

## **Drifts and Allan variance**

Drifts require switched observations, i.e. loop of reference and calibration observations to overcome drifts of atmosphere, receiver, IF-Chain, Backend.





Allan variance quantifies the drift:

$$d = x_{\rm s} - x_{\rm r}$$
  $\sigma_{\rm A}^2(T) = 1/2\langle d^2 \rangle$ 

Distinguish between spectroscopic and total power Allan variance



1 Artificial data (Schiedes & Kramer 2011) October 2018

## Cycles

Drifts require loop of reference and calibration observations:

- + Schieder & Kramer, A&A, 2001, 373, 746 + Ossenkopf, A&A, 2008, 479, 915
- + Ossenkopf, A&A, 2009, 495, 677

Determined in principle by Allan stability  $t_A$ , which depends on the goal resolution the observation:



reference measurement
 hot-cold load calibration
 Typical cycle times at the 30m:

source measurement

Source/reference with wobbler: 1-2 seconds

Source/reference with telescope: 1-2 minutes

Hot/cold/sky calibration: 10-15 minutes

## Example: sequence of on-the-fly observations



#### Ossenkopf, HIFI observing modes

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## Observing modes at the 30m



	Single point observations (tracked)	Spectral scans	Mapping observations (on-the-fly)
Position switching	Pointed position switch onoff	Frequency overlap for image lines, Gim	Nyquist or lower sampling observations
Beam switching	Pointed DBS, compact source	Frequency overlap for image lines, Gim	
Frequency switching	Optimize frequency throw to suppress standing waves	For scarcely sampled line sources	Not often used

Not implemented:

- + load chop,
- + sky reference for frequency switching,
- + balanced off-positions



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## Aperture efficiency - sensitivity of the antenna

(cf. Baars, 2007)

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Product of all losses:  $\eta_A = \eta_i \eta_s \eta_r \eta_e \eta_f \eta_b \eta_{ge}$ 

With the efficiency components:

+  $\eta_i$  = illumination efficiency of the aperture by the feed function ("taper")

Most important contributor to aperture efficiency.

+  $\eta_s$  = spillover efficiency of the feed

Power detected from beyond the edge of subreflector and primary. Partly cold sky, partly warm background, elevation dependent.

- +  $\eta_r$  = radiation efficiency of the reflector surface (ohmic losses)
  - relevant for high frequency and for mirrors with paint layer
- +  $\eta_e$  = surface error efficiency ("Ruze loss", also called scattering efficiency)

Small scale, randomly distributed deviations of the reflector from the perfect paraboloidal shape cause phase errors over the aperture. Leads to Ruze formula.

+  $\eta_f$  = focus error efficiency (both lateral and axial defocus)

Non-optimum foci cause large scale, systematic phase errors over the aperture. Observer tries to minimize these by regular focus observations and corrections.

+  $\eta_{b}$  = blocking efficiency due to quadrupod, subreflector.

Partial shadowing of the aperture by central subreflector and support structure: (a) plane-wave blocking, (b) spherical wave blocking.

+  $\eta_{qe}$  = gain-elevation efficiency describing the change with elevation

## Aperture efficiency - illumination

Product of all losses:  $\eta_A = \eta_i \eta_s \eta_r \eta_e \eta_f \eta_b$ 

+  $\eta_i$  = illumination efficiency of the aperture by the feed function ("taper") Most important contributor to aperture efficiency.

Ratio of the gain of the antenna to that of a uniformly illuminated aperture. For a Gaussian illumination and an edge taper of -12dB,  $\eta_i$  = 0.87 (Fig.4.4. in Baars 2007).

The edge taper increases the resolution or half power beamwidth (HPBW):  $\theta_{A} = b (\lambda / D)$ In good approximation:  $b = 1.269 - 0.566 \tau + 0.534 \tau^{2} - 0.208 \tau^{3}$ with the edge taper  $\tau$  with T/dB = 20 log( $\tau$ ) and 0< $\tau$ <1. For T = -12dB,  $\tau = 0.25$ ,  $b \sim 1.15$ , i.e. the beam is broadened by ~12%.



P.Goldsmith, 1999



(Baars, 2007)

## Aperture efficiency - spillover



Product of all losses:  $\eta_A = \eta_i \eta_s \eta_r \eta_e \eta_f \eta_b$ 

+  $\eta_s$  = spillover efficiency of the feed

Power detected from beyond the edge of subreflector and primary. Partly cold sky, partly warm background, elevation dependent.



## **Aperture efficiency - blocking**

Product of all losses:  $\eta_A = \eta_i \eta_s \eta_r \eta_e \eta_f \eta_b$ 

+  $\eta_b$  = blocking efficiency due to quadrupod, subreflector. Partial shadowing of the aperture by central subreflector and support structure (quadrupod):

- (a) after reflection at the primary,
- (b) before reflection at the primary. Projection of quadrupod onto the aperture of the primary.





Abbildung 3.4: Von den Stützbeinen wird am Rand des Reflektors eine trapezförmige Fläche abgedeckt. Die Krümmung (in der Projektion auf die Ebene) der Strecke  $\overline{P2P3}$  entsteht durch die paraboloide Gestalt des Hauptreflektors. Die gekrümmte Fläche kann durch ein gerades Trapez genähert werden. z(r) ist in Abb. 3.3 aufgetragen.

(a) Blocked area caused by obstruction of the reflected spherical waves from the outside of the primary on their way to the primary focus. Here: KOSMA <u>3m telescope</u>, Hiyama 1998 (Diplomarbeit, Univ. zu Koeln) 10th IRAM mm Interferometer School - Grenoble - 125 October 2018

#### 6.6. IRAM 30-m Millimeter radio Telescope (MRT)



Name	MRT
Institute	IRAM (Spain)
Diameter (m)	30
Wavelength range (cm)	0.8 mm - 7 mm
Width of strutt (cm)	24 (60)
Illumination	Uniform / Tapered
Blocking percentage	4.2/2.7
Blocking Efficiency	0.92 0.95



Aperture blocking of the 30m telescope Baars 2013

Blocking leads to a lowered aperture efficiency due to the decrease of the reflector area and the reduction of incoming energy available for reflection to the focus.

It also leads to an increase of the sidelobe level.

Some blocking efficiencies:

- + Effelsberg-100m: 0.85
- + IRAM-30m: 0.95
- + ALMA MT Mechatronics 12m: 0.97



The homology design of this antenna incorporates the quadripod in the design of the reflector structure. This made it possible to move the penetration radius to a somewhat larger value than usual. On the other hand, the strong requirements on the stiffness and stability required the lower 1.4 m of the legs to have a larger cross-section. This is visible in the picture, taken during construction. The numbers given here result from an average value for entry into the calculation. A more precise calculation with the exact geometry decreases the blocking efficiency by one percent.



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## Aperture efficiency - surface errors

Institut de Radioastronomie Millimétrique

**Product of all losses:**  $\eta_A = \eta_i \eta_s \eta_r \eta_e \eta_f \eta_b$ 

+ η<sub>e</sub> = surface error efficiency ("Ruze loss", also called scattering efficiency)
 Small scale, randomly distributed deviations of the reflector from the perfect paraboloidal shape cause phase errors over the aperture. (Ruze 1952, Baars 1973, Baars 2007)

 $η_e = η_A / η_{A0} = exp(-σ^2) = exp(-4 π ε / λ^2)$ 

With the surface deviation  $\varepsilon$ , the root-mean-square phase error  $\sigma = 4\pi \varepsilon/\lambda$  in radian, and the aperture efficiency for a paraboloid without surface error  $\eta_{A0}$  i.e. in the limit of long wavelengths.

## Measured aperture efficiencies at the 30m



(measured by Juan Peñalver in August 2007)

Ruze's formula:  
( 
$$\varepsilon$$
 = rms surface roughness)  $\eta_A(\lambda) = \eta_{A0} e^{-(\frac{4\pi\epsilon}{\lambda})^2}$ 

#### Herschel: aperture efficiency: blocking and surface rms



## Aperture efficiency: elevation dependence



Measurements on Mars on 20-Sep-2011. Used ATM 2009. E1 at 145 GHz, E3 at 280 GHz pwv between 2.5 and 6 mm. Mars disk diameter 4.96". Observing time from 2:57 to 8:24 UT Flux at 145 GHz = 58.63(56.84)J, at 280 GHz = 215.66(192.45)J



The 30m, like the 100m telescope, has a <u>homologous design</u>, i.e. the primary reflector maintains to a large degree its paraboloid shape, while the focus changes with elevation. The 100m Effelsberg telescope was the first with this design. More modern telescope have a stiffer design, but incorporating the same principle. Residual deviations cause, however, the <u>gain-elevation curve</u>.

# Study to improve the surface accuracy of the 30m telescope





The pre-study indicates that the surface rms and the gain-elevation curve can be improved with two actions:

1/ dismounting and re-aligning all 420 panels on their 210 sub-frames. (At the same time, panel paint shall be replaced.)

2/ installing about 50-60 actuators, to use lookuptables, to improve the gain-elevation curve.

## Why upgrading the 30m ?

- Improved surface accuracy will
  - improve the beam efficiencies, <u>sensitivities</u>, calibration accuracy, and also
  - imaging quality in particular, beyond 200 GHz, and for low declination sources.
- Its first surface paint layer will be replaced.
- <u>New servo and control system</u> will improve
  - Slewing and tracking speeds to:
    - allow for more efficient observations of Galactic GMCs, and
      - to better overcome atmospheric fluctuations for NIKA2 observations,
    - and to raise the <u>elevation limit</u> beyond 83°.
  - Reaction to <u>wind</u> will be improved, improving tracking performance, and losses of observing time due to high wind.
  - Implementation of <u>new scanning patterns</u> will be easier.



## **Extra transparencies:**

# Forward efficiency main beam and the errorbeams



#### Remark:

- Skydips allow to measure the atmospheric opacity together with the forward efficiency.





The aim of astronomical observations is to obtain parameters of the emitting regions, like temperatures, densities, column densities, polarisation, time variability, etc.. To derive these quantities from the detected data, the properties of the receiving system have to be accurately known. In other words, the data have to be calibrated.

#### • Telescope

- Atmosphere
- Point spread function of the telescope
- Receivers: temperature, sideband gain ratio
- Antenna temperature and "Chopperwheel" calibration
- Telescope efficiencies: aperture, main beam, forward
- Stability and observing switching modes

#### based on:

- Lectures by ClemensThum at IRAM summerschool 2007
- Lecture by Pierre Hily-Blant at IRAM summerschool 2010
- Tom Wilson 2009: Introduction to Mm-Astronomy, Saas-Fe Lecture
- Jaap Baars 2007; The paraboloidal reflector antenna in radio astronomy, Springer
- Tom Wilson et al.: Tools of Radio Astronomy, Springer



## IRC+10216

Molecular shells surrounding the star CW Leo at only 130pc distance.

<sup>12</sup>CO 2-1 line at 230GHz mapped with HERA/30m by Cernicharo, Marcelino et al. 2014. Map size ~7'x7'.

Such stars provide <sup>3</sup>/<sub>4</sub> of the matter returned to the interstellar medium.

The mass and chemical composition of their ejecta largely control the chemical evolution of galaxies.

Here, we can study the mass loss history over the past 8000 years.

The gas expands radially at 14.5 km/s. The typical shell separation is 1000 yr.

The mass loss rate is  $\sim 2 \ 10^{-5} \ M_{sun} \ yr^{-1}$ .



## Millimeter Astronomy

#### 8<sup>th</sup> IRAM 30m Summer School

ram

September 11-18, 2015 Pradollano, Sierra Nevada, Spain

> Israel Hermelo Carsten Kramer Javier Lobato Claudia Marka Pablo Mellado Miguel Muñoz

Register at: www.iram-institute.org Email contact: school2015@iram.es Lectures: Solar System: Planets, Moons,

Solar System: Planets, Moons and Comet 67P

#### by Nicolas Biver (OBSPM, Paris)

Chemistry of the Interstellar Medium, Prototypical regions: SgrB2 and Orion KL

by Javier Goicoechea (CSIC, Madrid)

Nearby Galaxies by Frank Bigiel (MPIA, Heidelberg)

Star formation and line emission at

high redshifts by Axel Weiss (MPIfR, Bonn) Continuum cameras, dust emission in the universe by Alexandre Beelen (IAS, Paris)

Heterodyne receivers

CLASS/GILDAS - a data processing software

by Sébastien Bardeau and Jérôme Pety (IRAM, Grenoble)

NOEMA - The Northern Extended Millimeter Array

by Jérôme Pety (IRAM, Grenoble)

Millimeter calibration by Carsten Kramer (IRAM, Granada)





Patronato de la Alhambra y Generalife CONSEJERÍA DE CULTURA Y DEPORTE



## Millimeter Astronomy

#### 7<sup>th</sup> IRAM 30m Summer School

September 13-20, 2013 Pradollano, Sierra Nevada, Spain

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Manuel Gonzalez Carsten Kramer (chair) Javier Lobato Pablo Mellado Miguel Munoz

Register at: www.iram-institute.org Email contact: school2013@iram.es Basic Physical Processes in Molecular Clouds, Chemistry: From pre-stellar cores to protostars by Bertrand Lefloch (Obs, Grenoble) by Francois

Magnetic fields and Polarimetry, Stratospheric Observatory for Infrared Astronomy (SOFIA)

by Helmut Wiesemeyer (MPIfR, Bonn)

Solar System: Planets, Moons, and Comets by Nicolas Biver (OBSPM, Paris)

Photon dominated regions

Lectures:

by Asuncion Fuente (OAN, Madrid)

Continuum arrays, observations, sources, New results from Planck and Herschel by Francois-Xavier Desert (IPAG, Grenoble)

Low- and High-Mass Star formation by Nicolas Peretto (CEA, Paris)

Heterodyne receivers

by Alessandro Navarrini (IRAM/Grenoble)

CLASS/GILDAS - a data processing software

by Jérome Pety (IRAM, Grenoble)

Introduction to millimeter astronomy, Millimeter calibration by Carsten Kramer (IRAM, Granada)

## **The Galactic Center**

2mm GISMO/30m (green) 250µm LABOCA/APEX (blue) 20cm VLA (red)

2mm emission tracing thermal dust emission of molecular clouds, but also free-free and synchrotron emission from ionized gas and non-thermal filaments.

Sources:

...,SgrB2, SgrB1, Radio Arc, Sickle, Arched Filaments, SgrA, SgrC, ...

GISMO/30m observations:

Total observing time: 6.5hours. NEFD ~ 9mJy sqrt(sec) rms ~ 2-2.5 mJy Dynamic range ~ 1000 (Staguhn et al. 2013 in prep.)

IRAM

## Equivalent paraboloid



The equivalent paraboloid is the single reflector equivalent of whatever focussing system is employed.

P.Goldsmith 1999