

# Radio Science and techniques for Space Exploration

*PHYS 4330 3.0*

## Long Baseline Interferometry

*PHYS 6190 3.0*

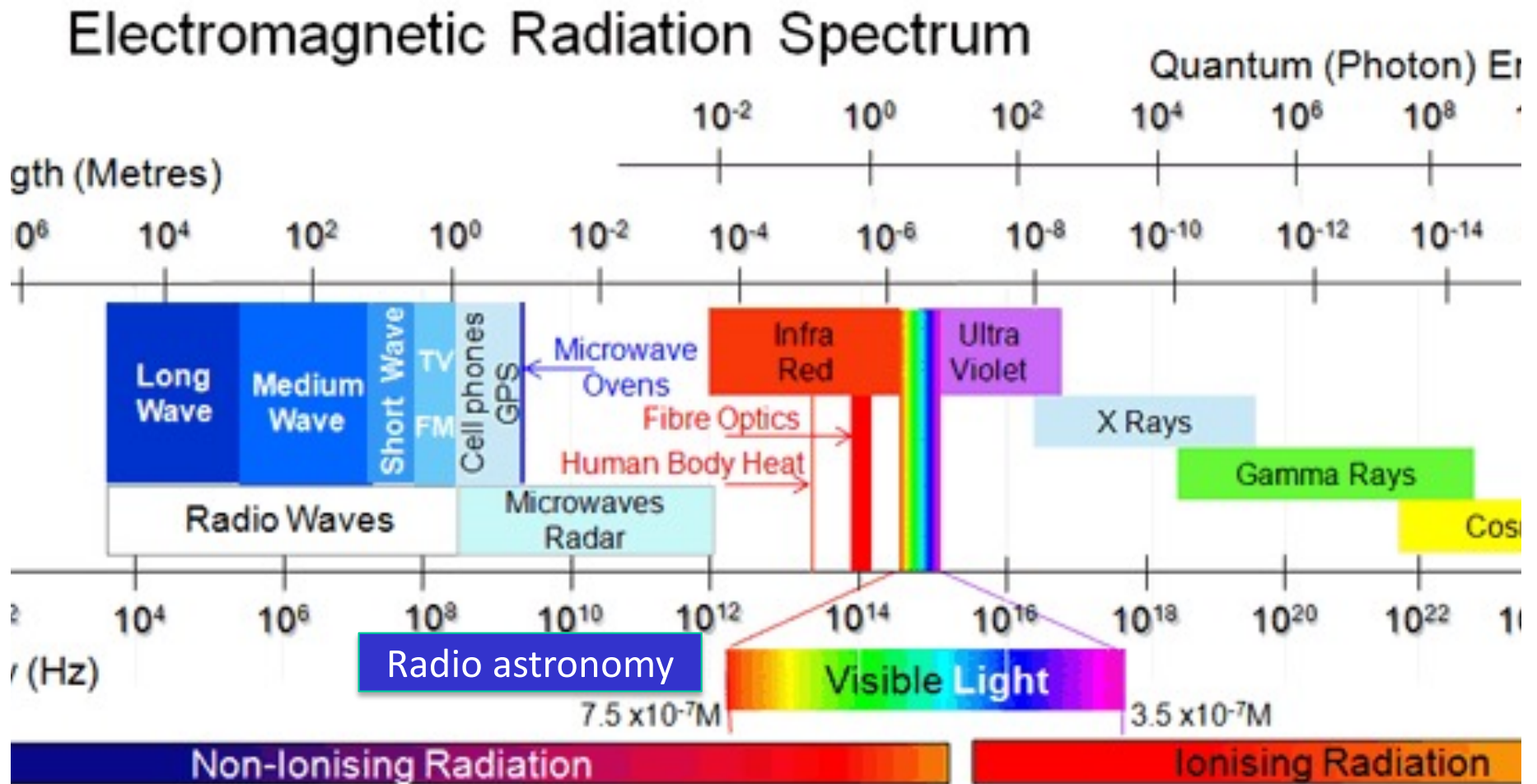


Norbert Bartel  
Professor of Astrophysics  
York University



PHYS 4330	Tu, Th 13:30 – 14:30	ML 213			
<b>JANUARY</b>		<b>FEBRUARY</b>		<b>MARCH - APRIL</b>	
Thursday 4	<b>0. Introduction</b>	Thursday 1	Cont.	Thursday 1	Cont.
Tuesday 9	<b>1. Signal Processing Fundamentals</b>	Tuesday 6	<b>2. Radio Astronomy Fundamentals</b>	Tuesday 6	<b>3. Radio observatory and DSN Instrumentation Fundamentals</b>
Thursday 11		Thursday 8		Thursday 8	
Tuesday 16	Thursday 15	Tuesday 13		Thursday 15	
Thursday 18	Tuesday 20	Thursday 22		Tuesday 20	
Tuesday 23		Thursday 22	<b>Reading Week</b>	Thursday 22	
Thursday 25		Tuesday 27	<b>Midterm exam</b>	Tuesday 27	
Tuesday 30				Thursday 29	<b>4.VLBI and DSN Appl. to Spacecraft Navigation</b>
				<b>APRIL</b>	<b>5. Introduction to Radar Systems -Radar Fundamentals</b>
				Tuesday 3	
				Thursday 5	

# The electromagnetic spectrum

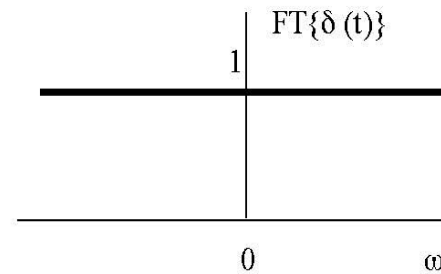
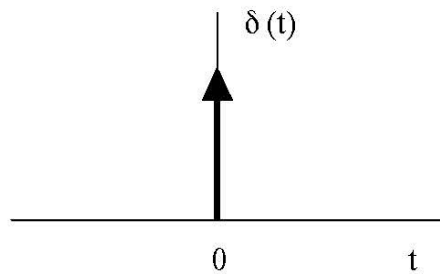


Radio range over 8 orders of magnitude from  $10^4$  to  $10^{12}$  Hz  
 Radio astronomy over 5 orders of magn. from  $10^7$  to  $10^{12}$  Hz

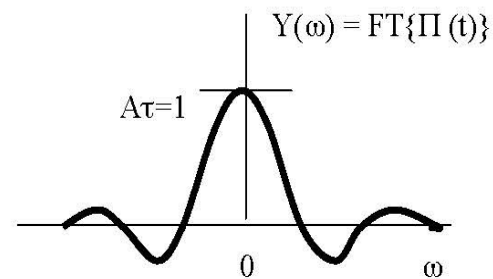
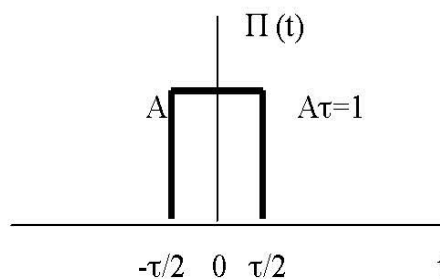
# 1. Signal processing fundamentals

## Chapter 1a

## Fourier transforms



Note: This result can also be obtained through a limiting argument;

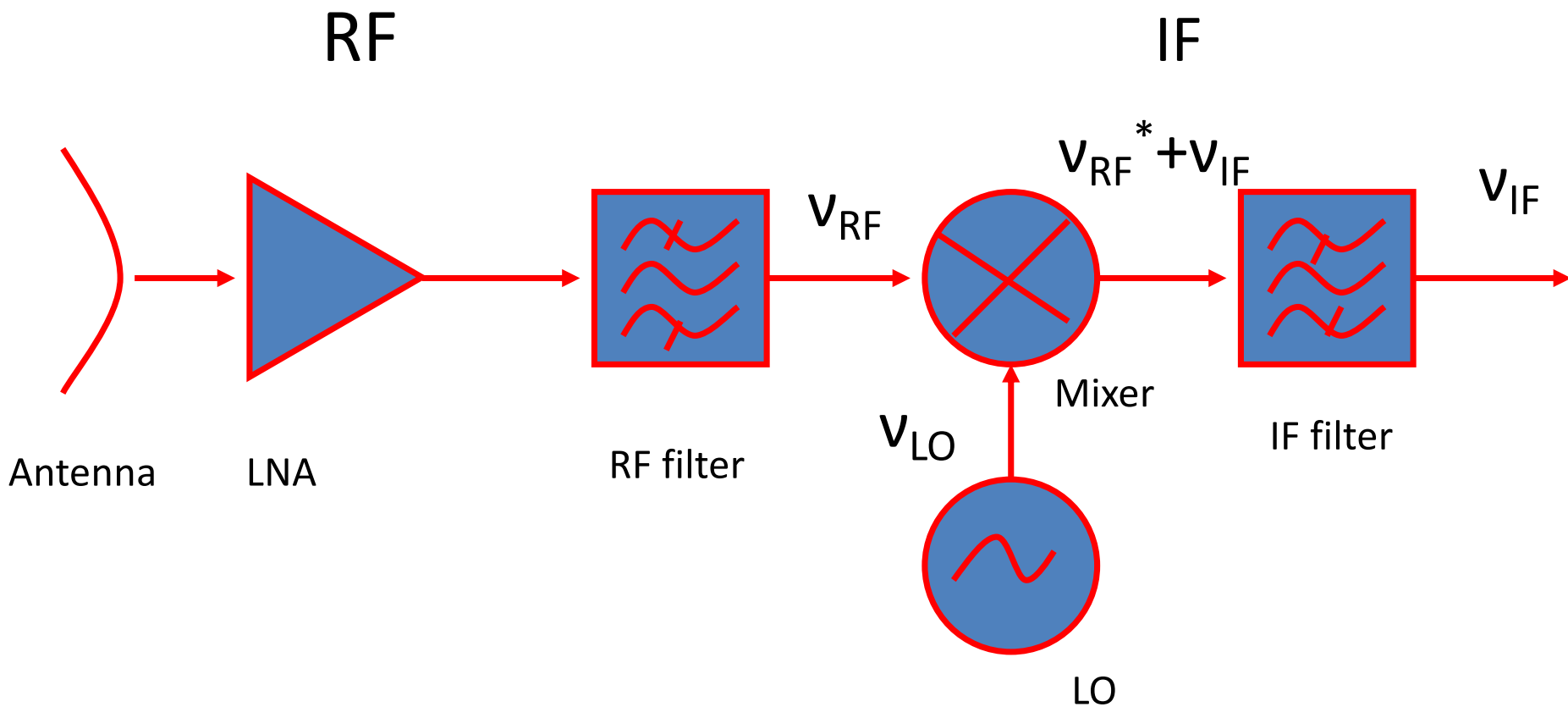


FT of a constant:



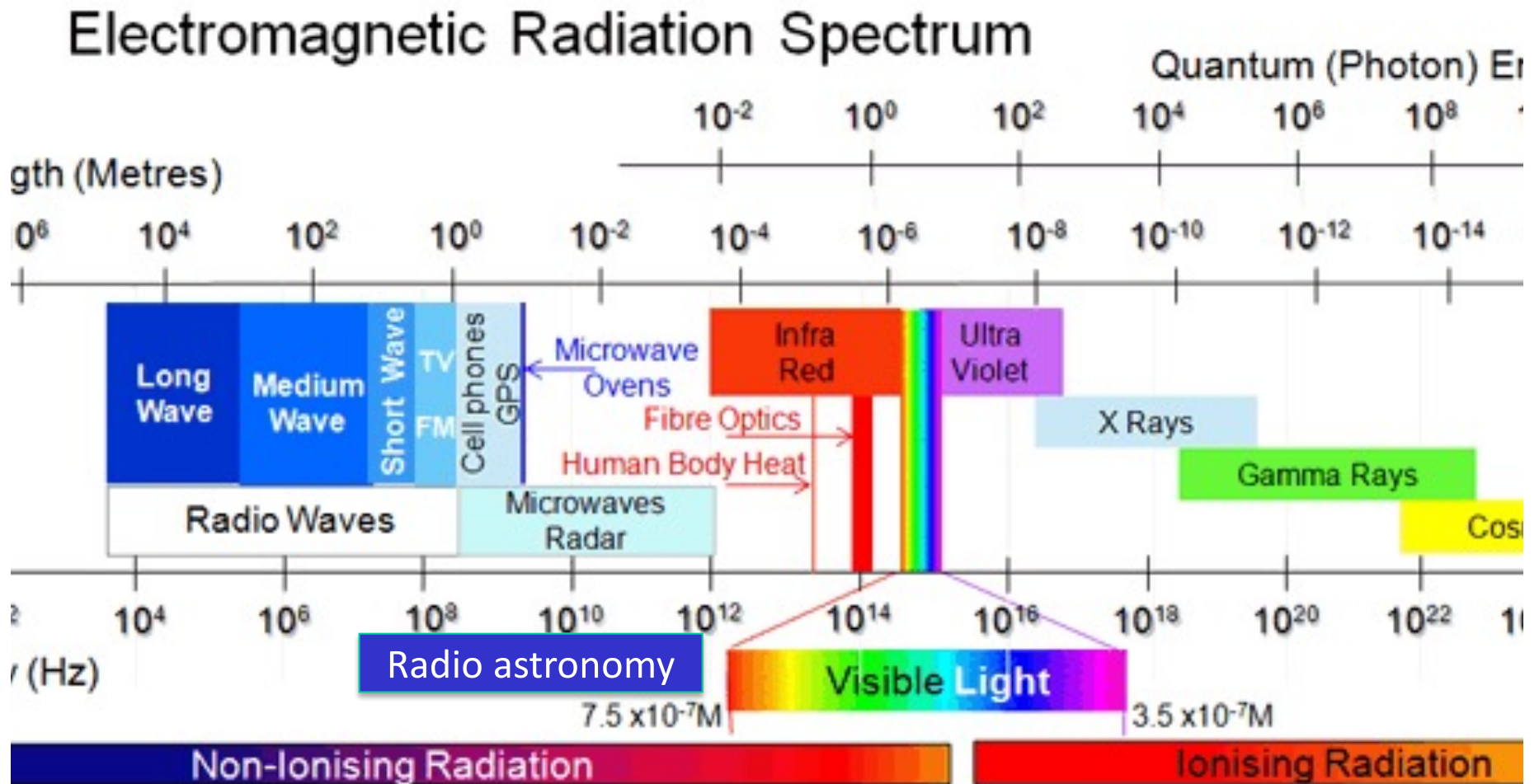
# Chapter 1b

## Filter theory



## 2. Radio astronomy fundamentals

# The electromagnetic spectrum

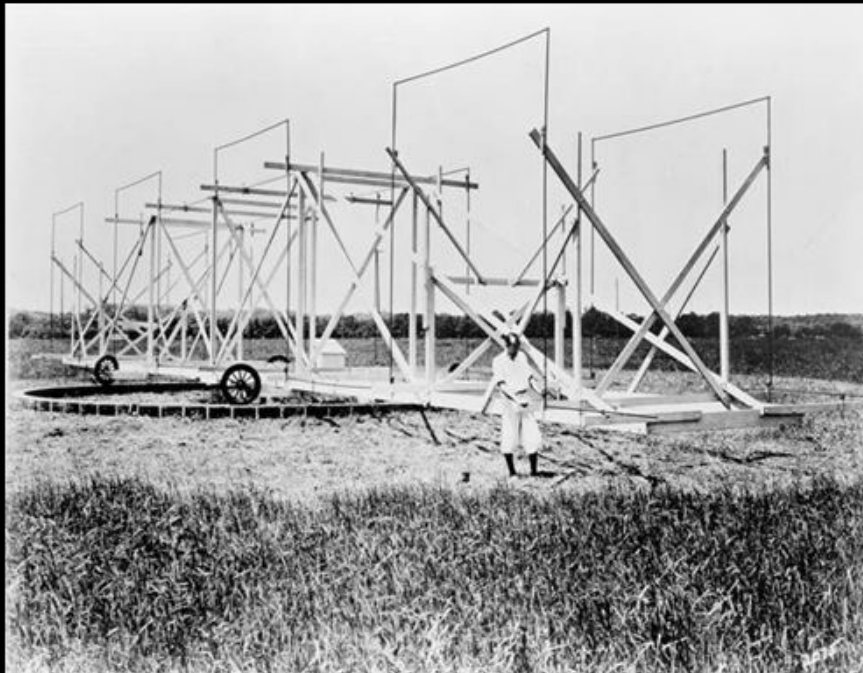


Radio range over 8 orders of magnitude from  $10^4$  to  $10^{12}$  Hz  
 Radio astronomy over 5 orders of magn. from  $10^7$  to  $10^{12}$  Hz

# Karl Jansky (1905-1950)

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

## *Jansky's Telescope*

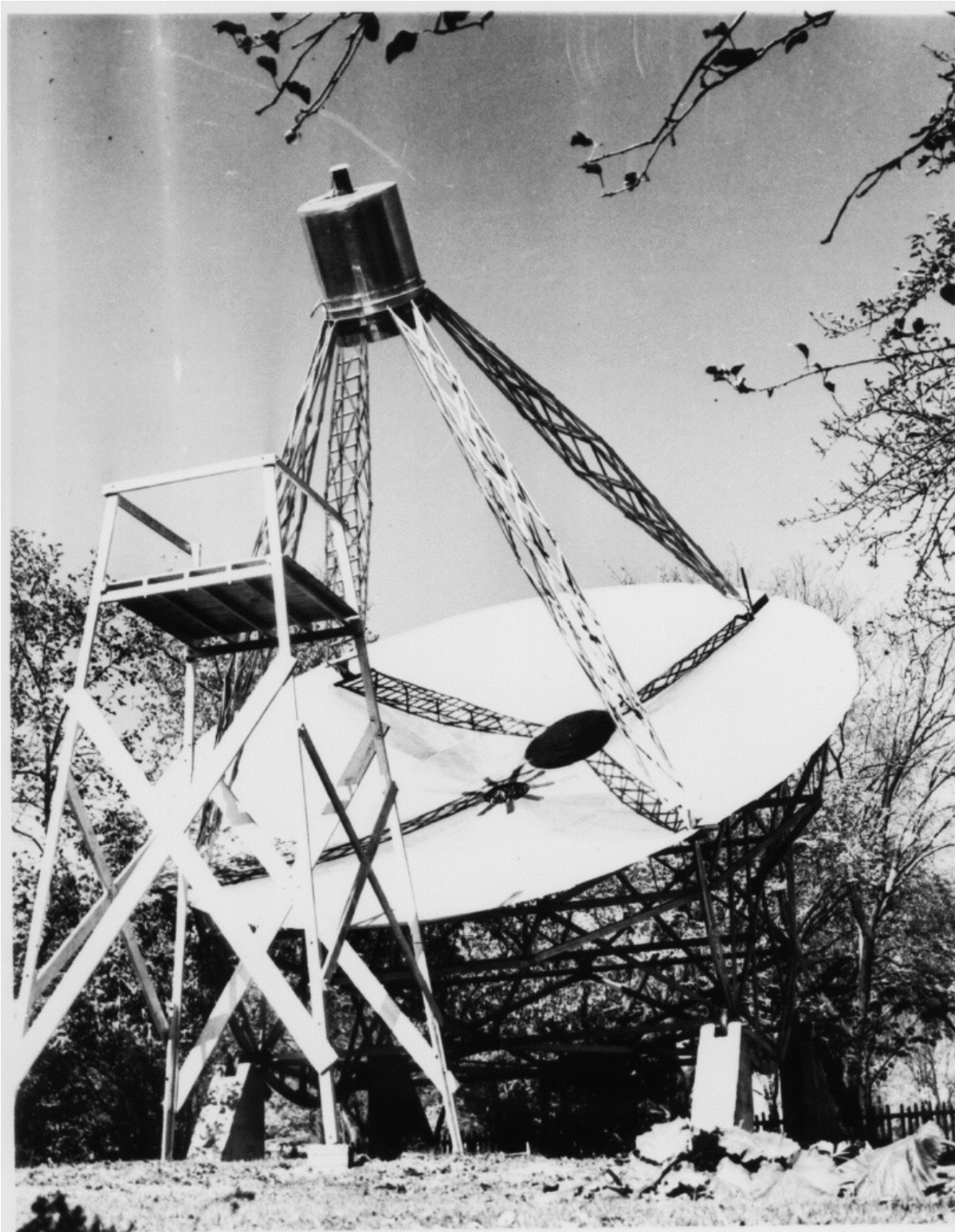


- Karl Jansky built a radio antenna in 1931.
  - Polarized array
  - Study lightning noise
- Detected noise that shifted 4 minutes each day.
  - Direction of Sagittarius
  - Consistent with galactic source

Discovery of extraterrestrial radio waves

$\nu = 20.5 \text{ MHz}$





# Grote Reber

1911-2002

Pioneered work in radio astronomy.  
Built 9 m paraboloidal radio telescope  
and conducted the first sky survey  
at radio frequencies.

$$\nu = 160 \text{ MHz}$$



# Jan Oort (1900-1992)

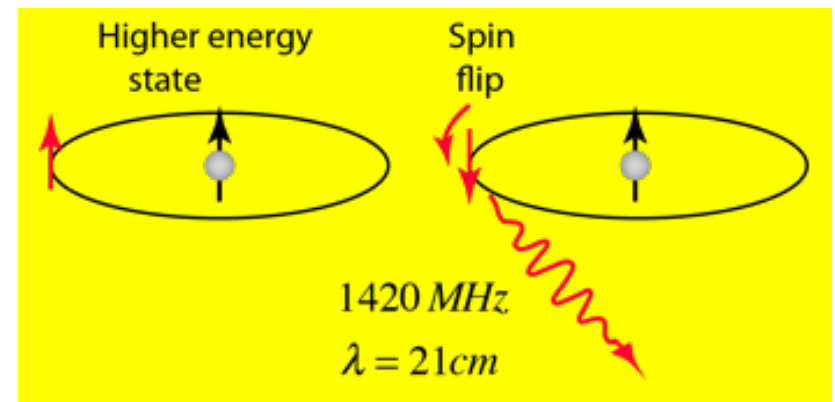
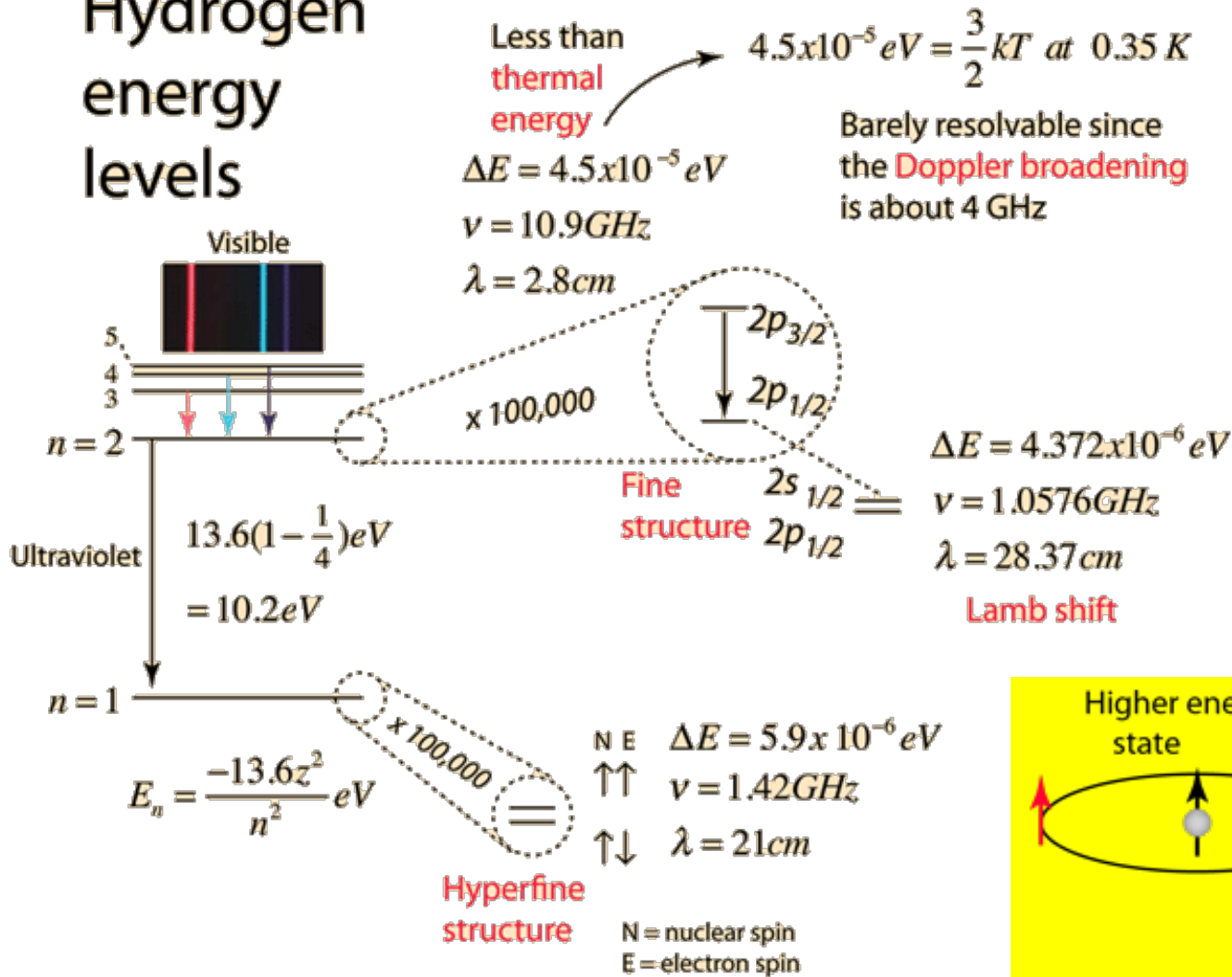
- Static must be broad band extending over the whole radio wavelength range.
- Realized that finding a spectral line in the radio would be groundbreaking.





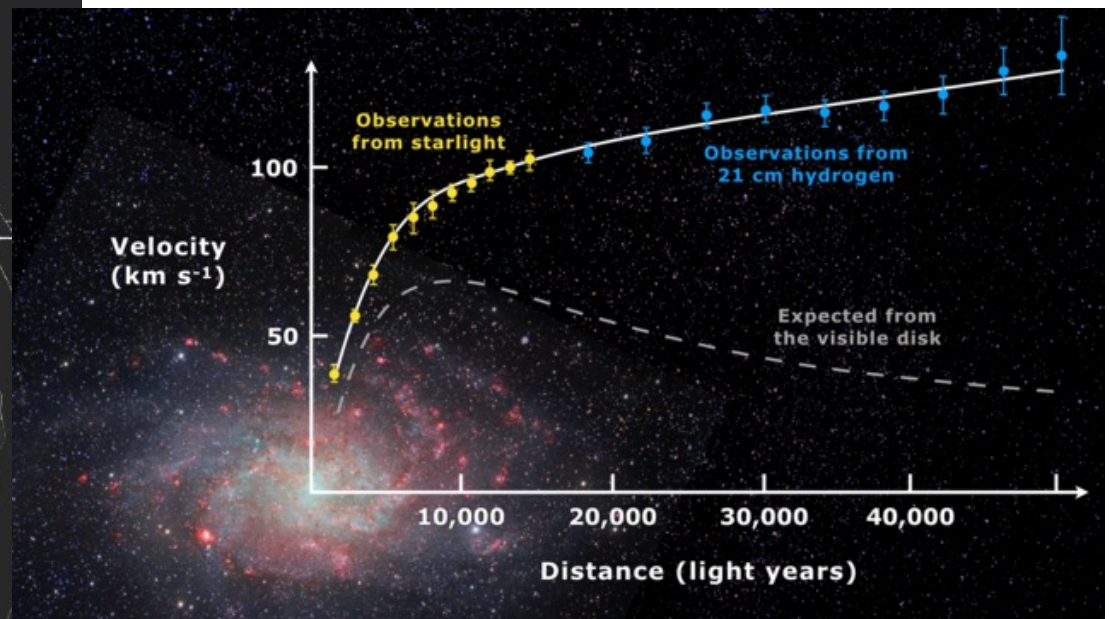
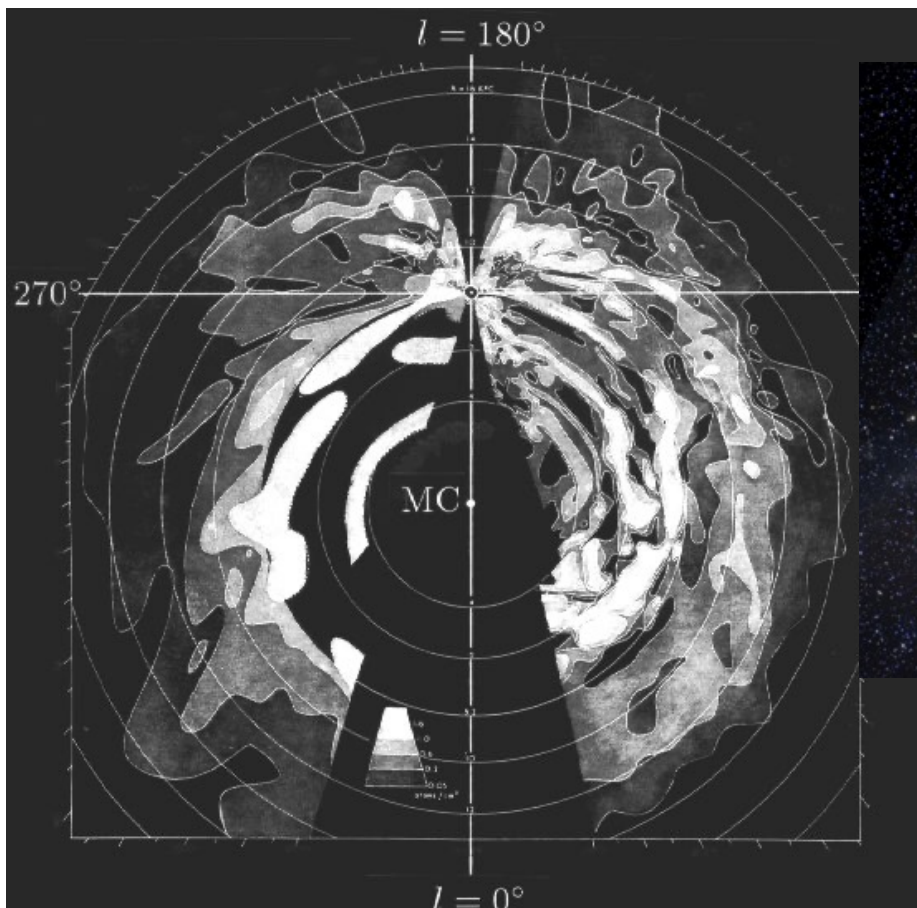
# Van der Hulst suggested 21 cm hyperfine transition of neutral hydrogen may be observable

## Hydrogen energy levels



# H. Ewen and E. Purcell discovered the 21 cm interstellar hydrogen line in 1951

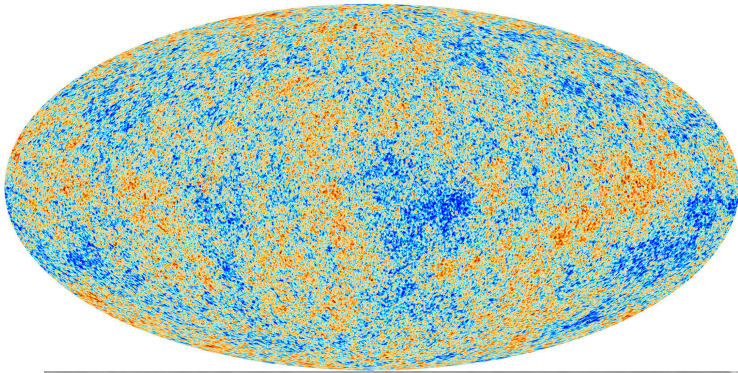
HI neutral hydrogen  
HII ionized hydrogen



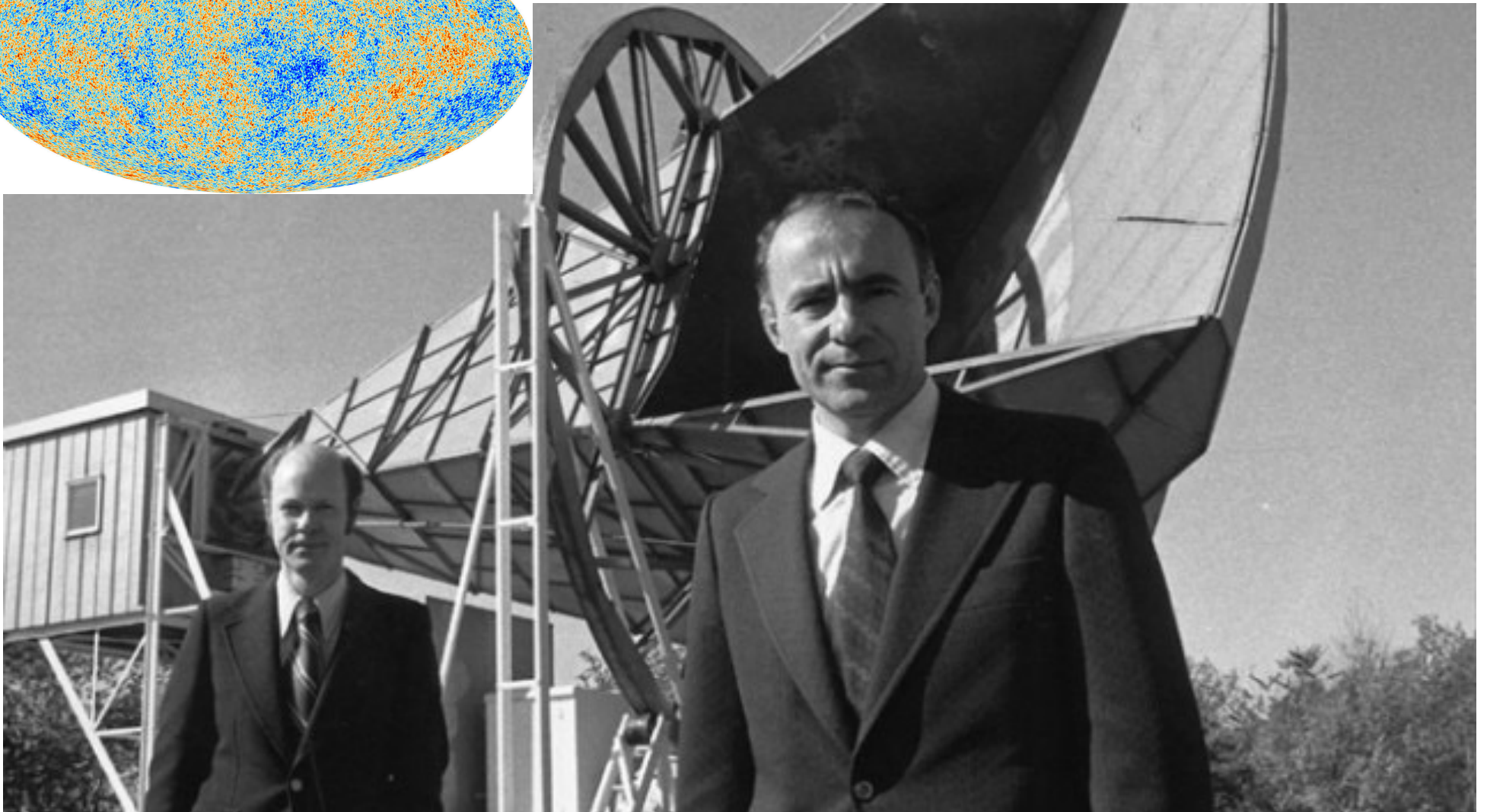
Wikipedia

Oort et al. 1958

# Horn antenna



Penzias and Wilson discover cosmic microwave background

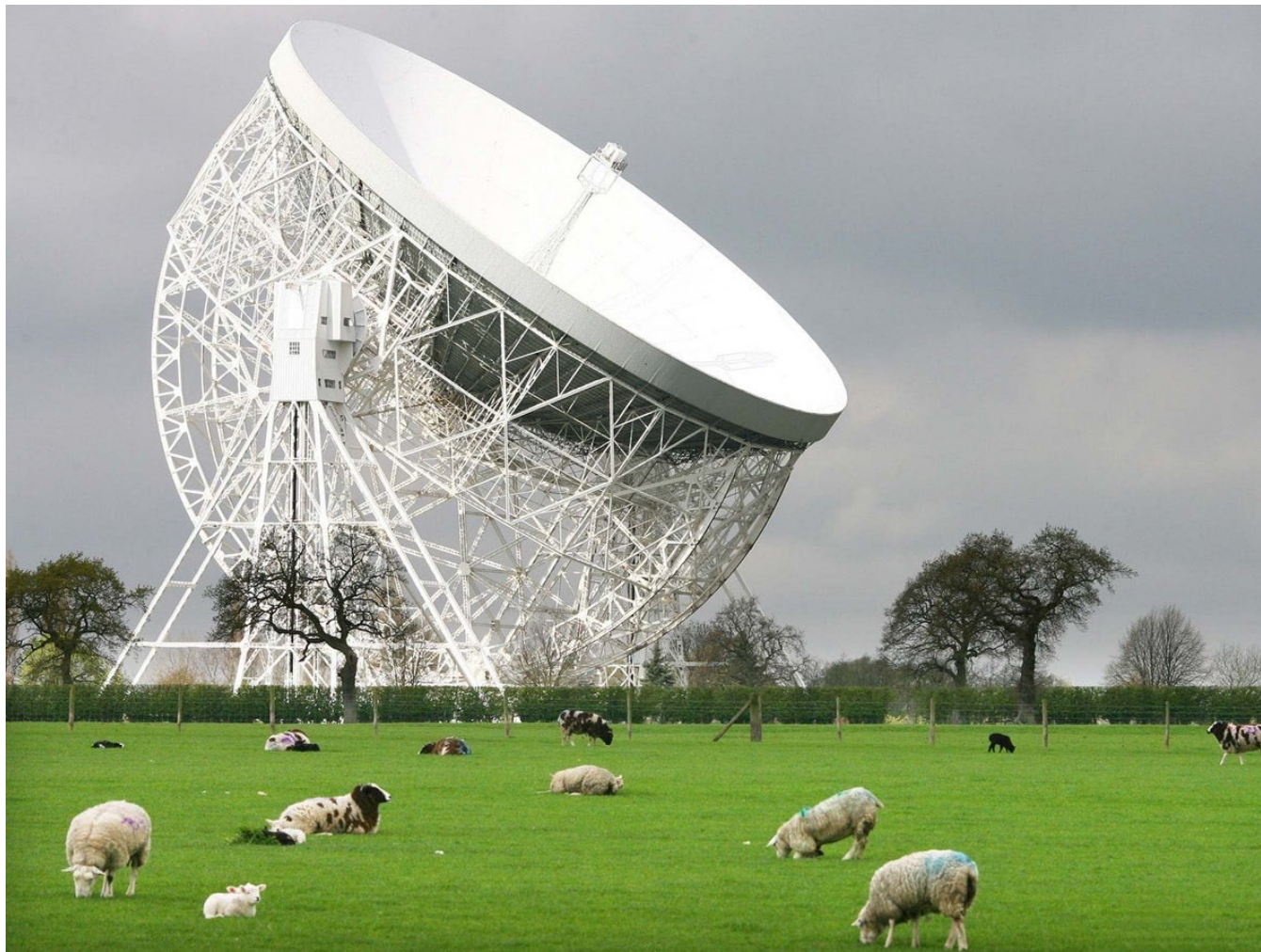




# Large radio telescopes

Jodrell Bank,  
UK

76 m



The Independent

# Large radio telescopes

Algonquin,  
Canada



46 m

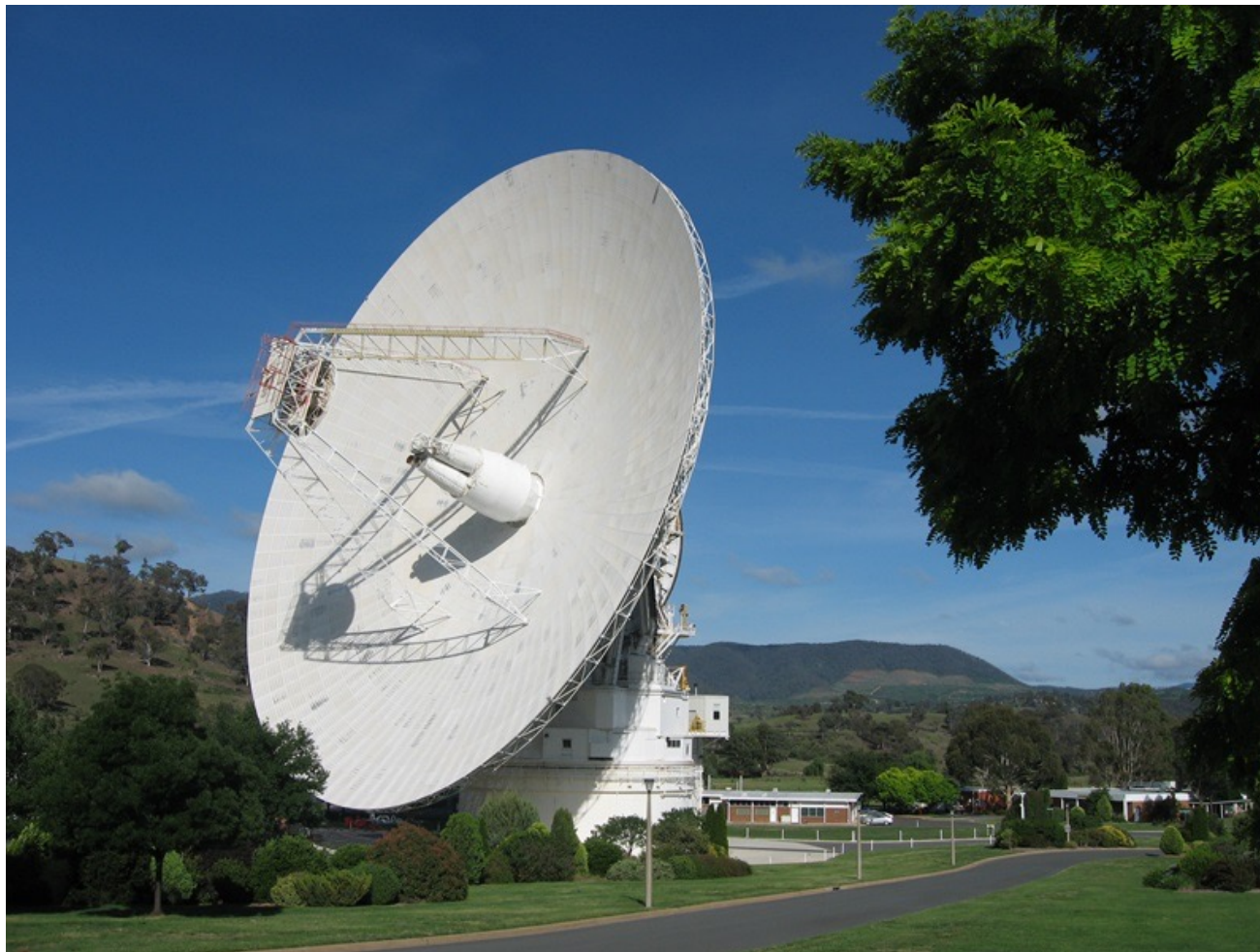


# Large radio telescopes

NASA Deep Space Network antenna

Tidbinbilla,  
Australia

70 m





# Large radio telescopes

Effelsberg,  
Germany

100 m





# Large radio telescopes

Green Bank,  
USA

110 m





# Large radio telescopes

Arecibo,  
Puerto Rico

100 m

300 m

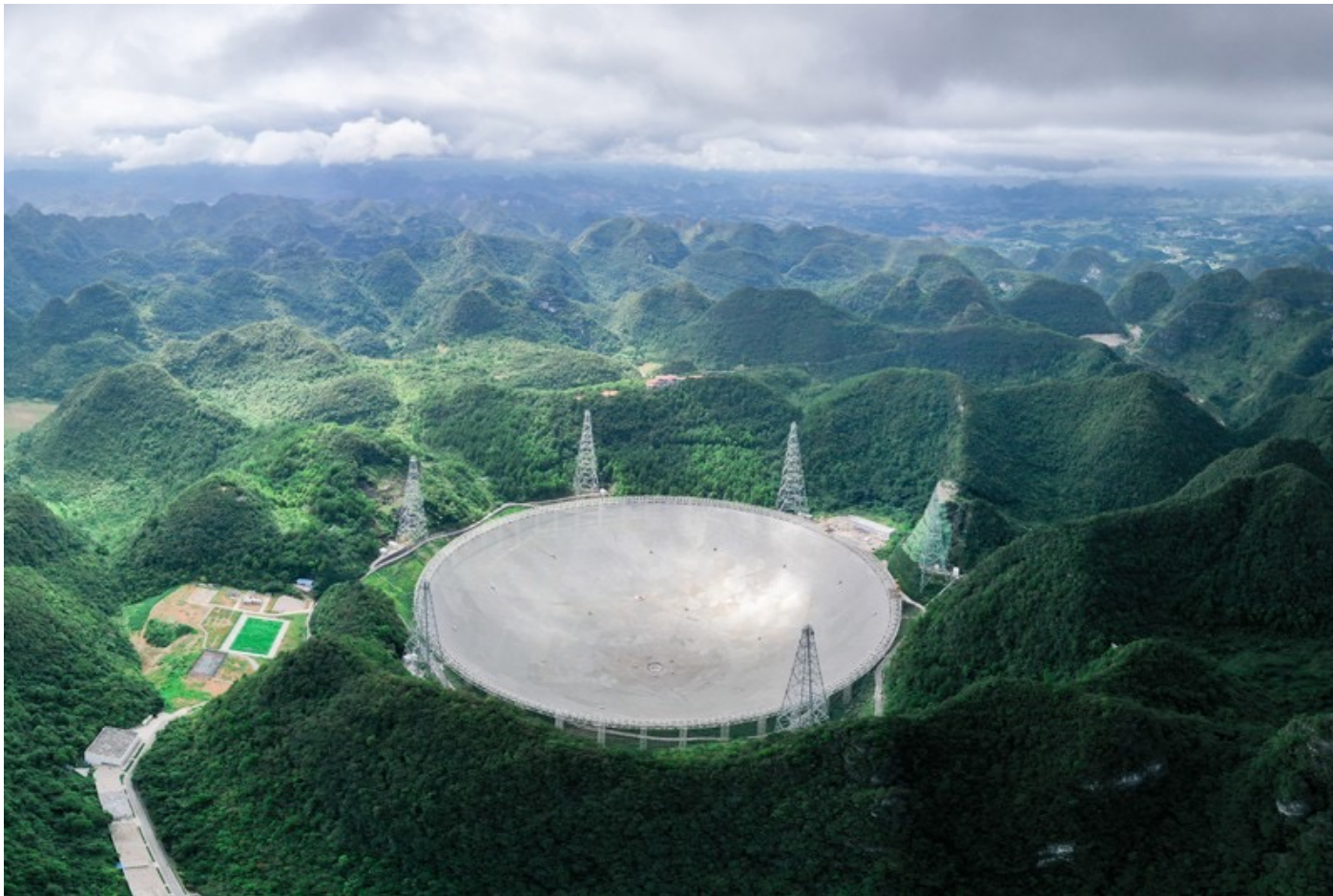


# Large radio telescopes

Fast Telescope

China

500 m





# Arrays of radio telescopes

Very Large Array (NRAO, New Mexico) – 27 x 25 m antennas



# Arrays of radio telescopes

CHIME (Canadian Hydrogen Intensity mapping Experiment)

4x 20x100 m cylinder reflectors with no moving parts

128 receivers along each cylinder, 4 polarization channels → 2048 inputs for the correlator

Penticton, BC

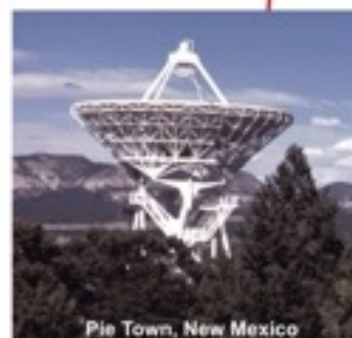
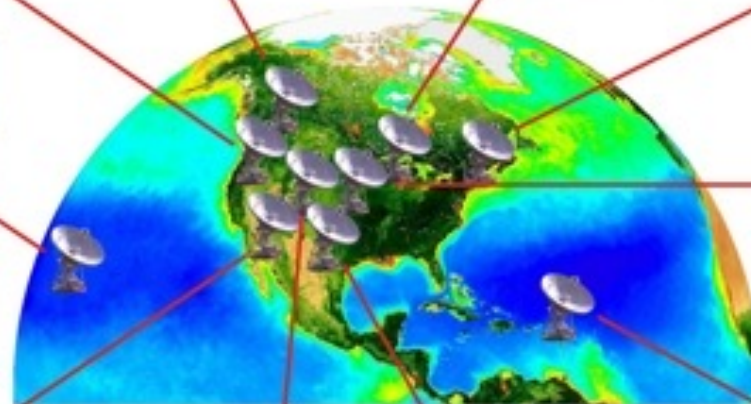




# Arrays of radio telescopes

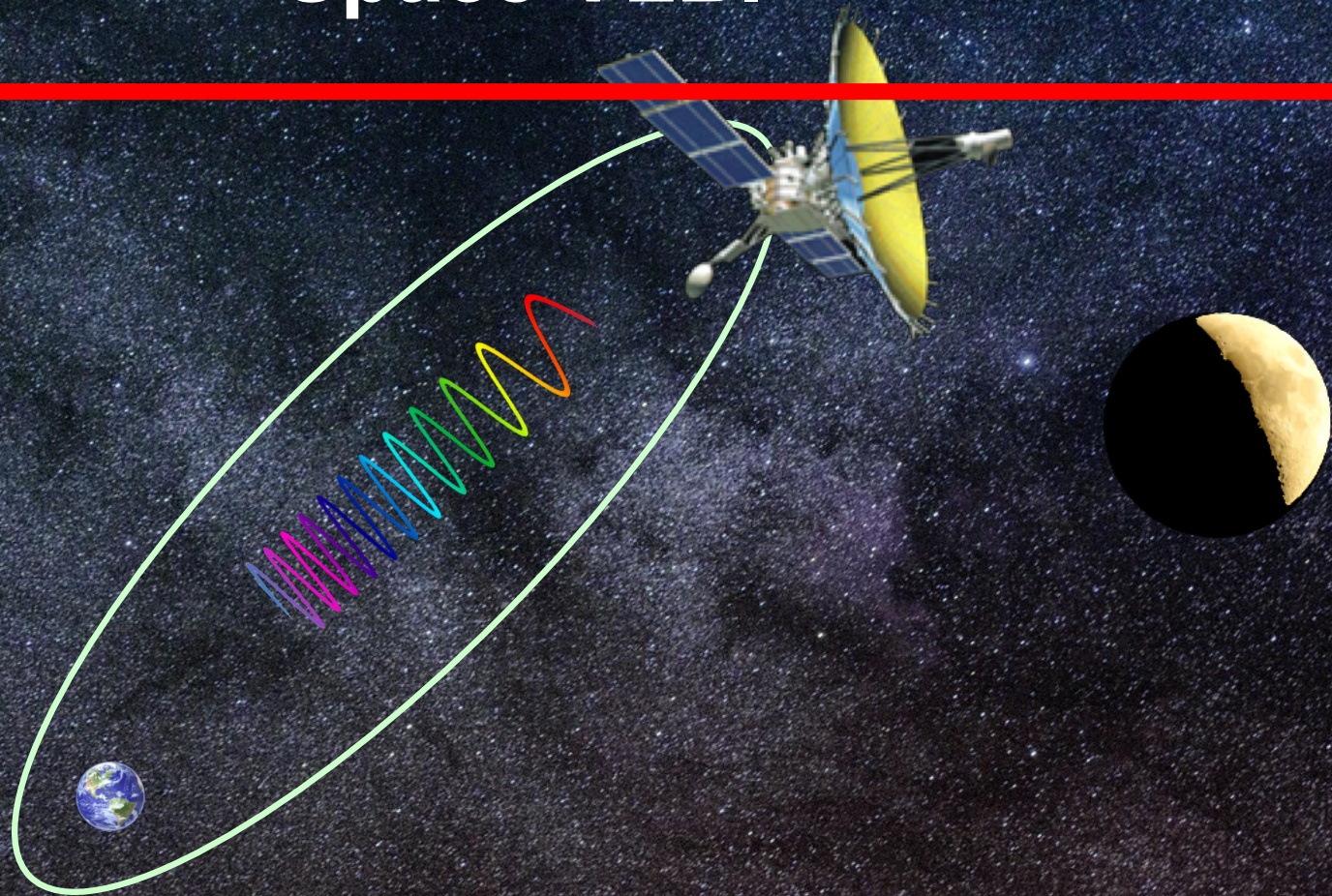
Very long baseline array (VLBA) – NRAO USA

10 x 25 m antennas





# Space VLBI



Space very long baseline interferometry, RadioAstron (Russia and international partners)



# 2. Radio astronomy fundamentals 25

## Chapter 2

A: aperture

G gain

$\lambda$  wavelength

B brightness distribution of source

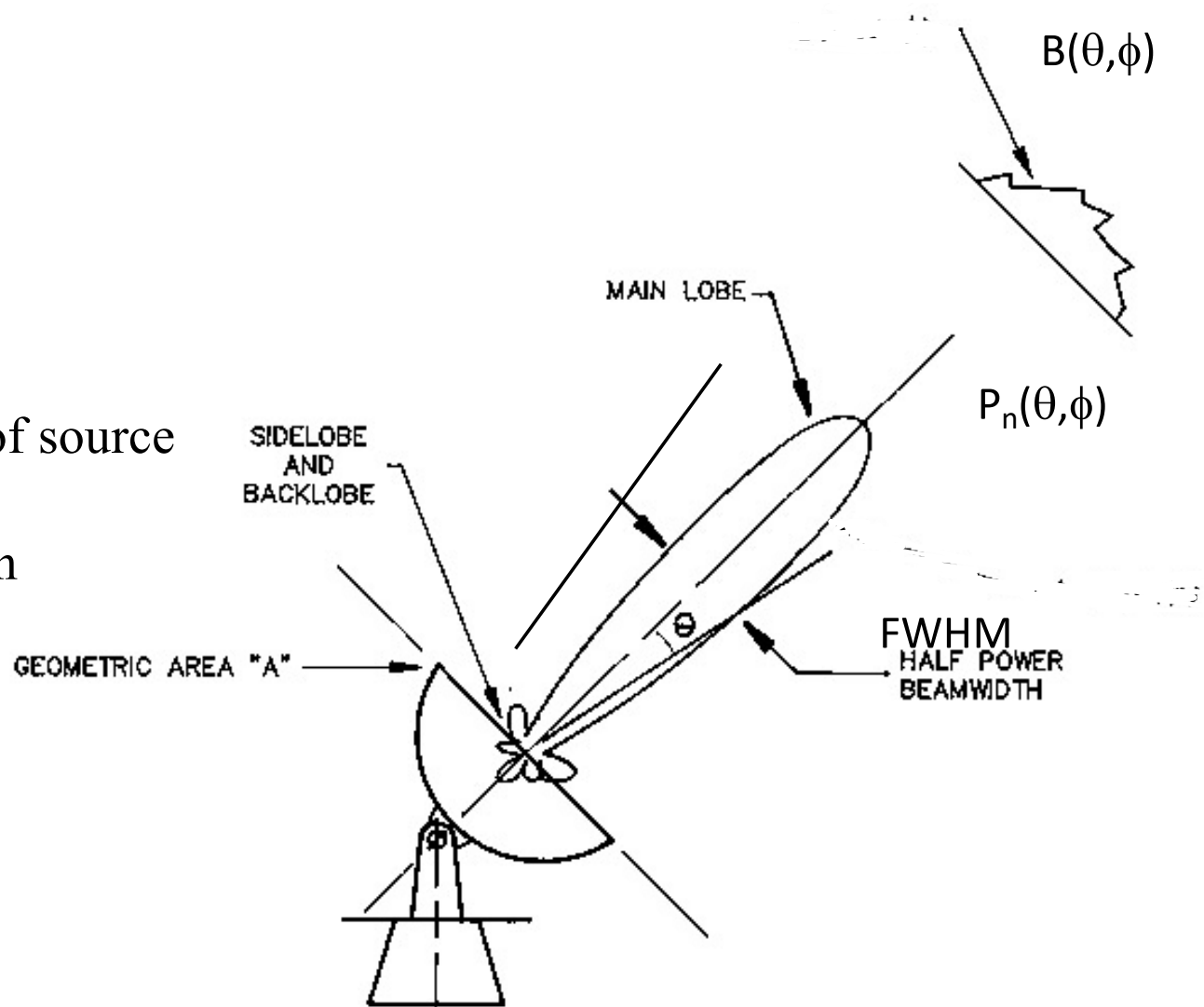
P beam pattern

$P_n$  normalized beam pattern

$$G = P(0,0) / P_{\text{isotropic}}$$

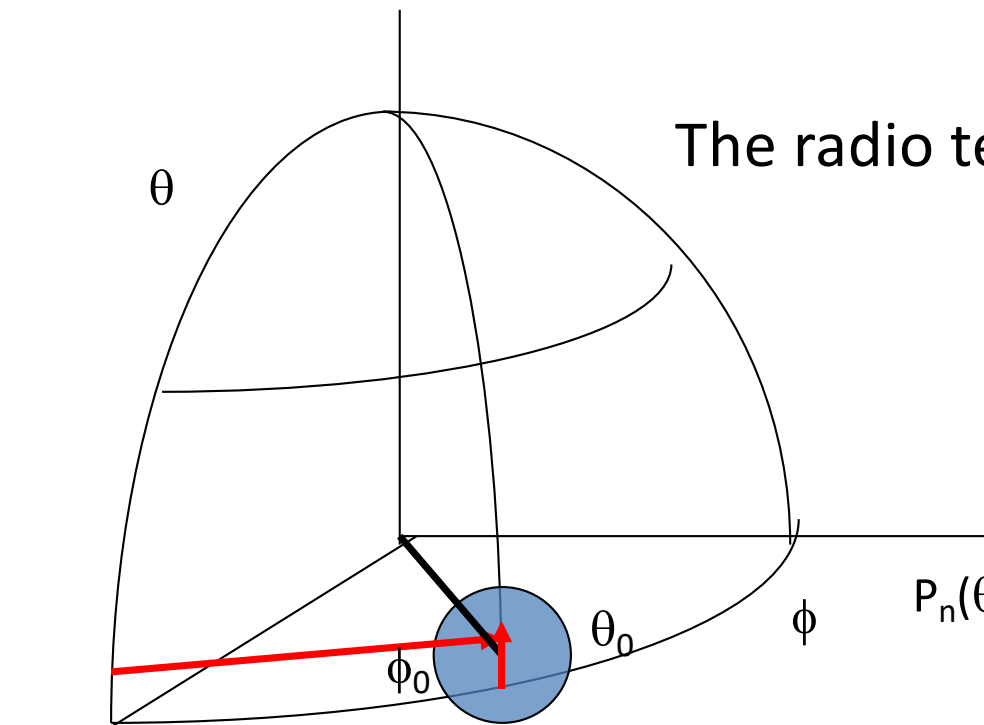
$$A_{\text{eff}} = \eta \frac{\pi D^2}{4}$$

$$G = \frac{4\pi}{\lambda^2} A_{\text{eff}}$$



Convolution plays an essential role in  
this course

# The radio telescope as a 1-pixel camera



$$P_n(\theta, \phi)$$

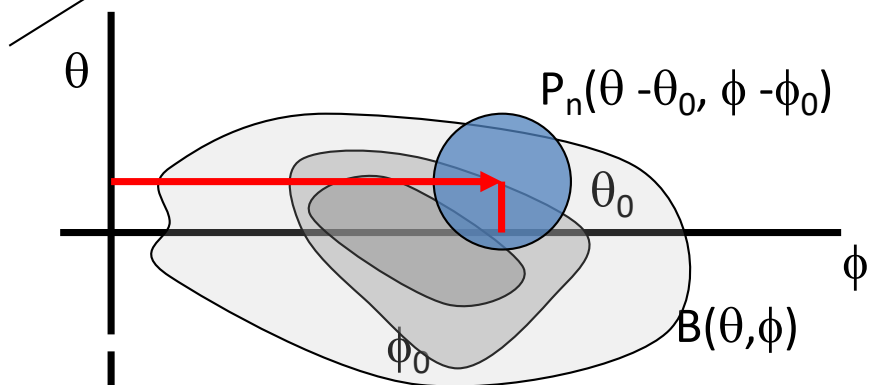
Beam pattern (FWHM),  
normalized to 1

$$P_n(\theta - \theta_0, \phi - \phi_0)$$

Beam pattern (FWHM)  
at pointing position,  $(\theta_0, \phi_0)$

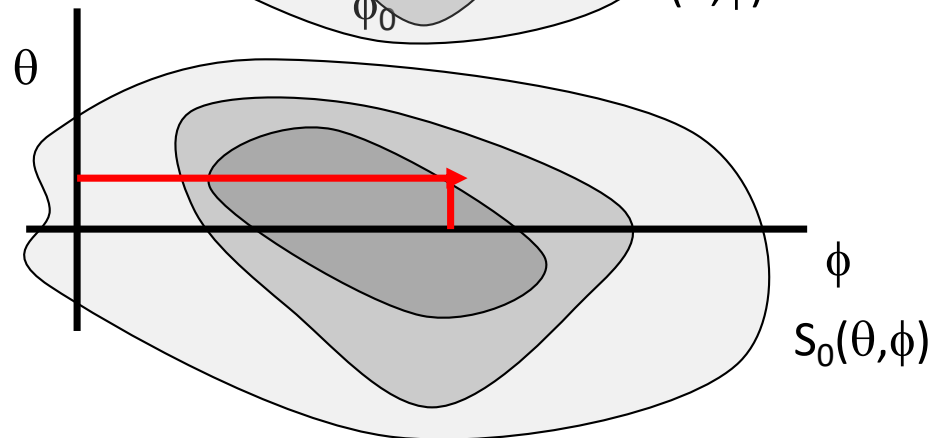
$$B(\theta, \phi)$$

Brightness distribution of source



$$S_0(\theta_0, \phi_0)$$

Measured flux density  
at pointing position,  $(\theta_0, \phi_0)$



$$S_0(\theta_0, \phi_0) = \int B(\theta, \phi) P_n(\theta - \theta_0, \phi - \phi_0) d\theta d\phi$$

$$S_0 = B * P_n$$

# 3. Radio observatory and DSN instrumentation fundamentals

500 (~250) m FAST telescope



305-m Arecibo telescope



100-m Effelsberg telescope

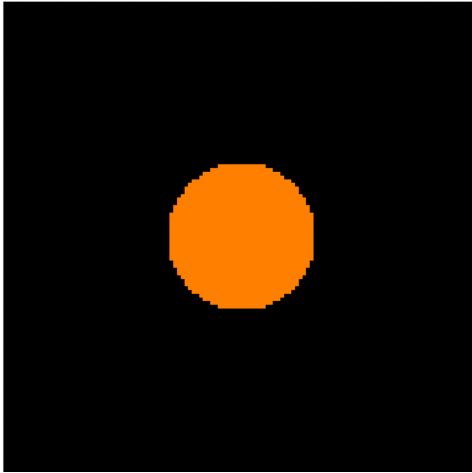


110-m Green Bank telescope

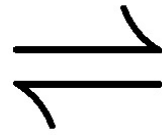


# Beam pattern of a circular aperture

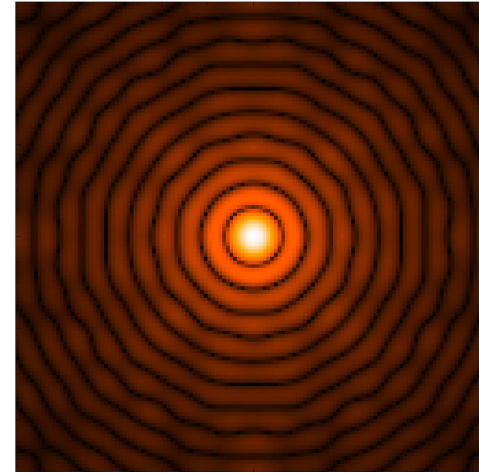
Aperture distribution



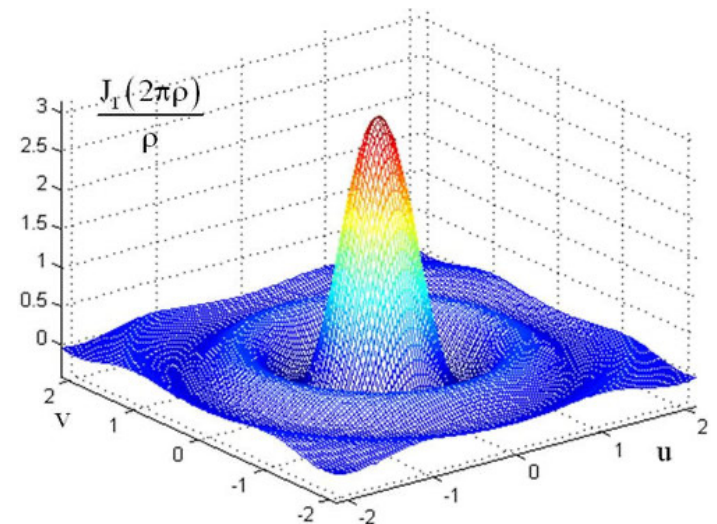
Disk



Field pattern



$J_1(x)$  Bessel function of first order



# Antenna beam pattern

$f(u,v)$  = complex aperture field distribution  
 $u,v$  = aperture coordinates (in  $\lambda$ )

$F(l,m)$  = complex far-field voltage pattern  
 $l = \sin\theta\cos\phi$  ,  $m = \sin\theta\sin\phi$

$F(l,m) = \text{FT} \{f(u,v)\}$

$P(l,m) = F(l,m)^2$

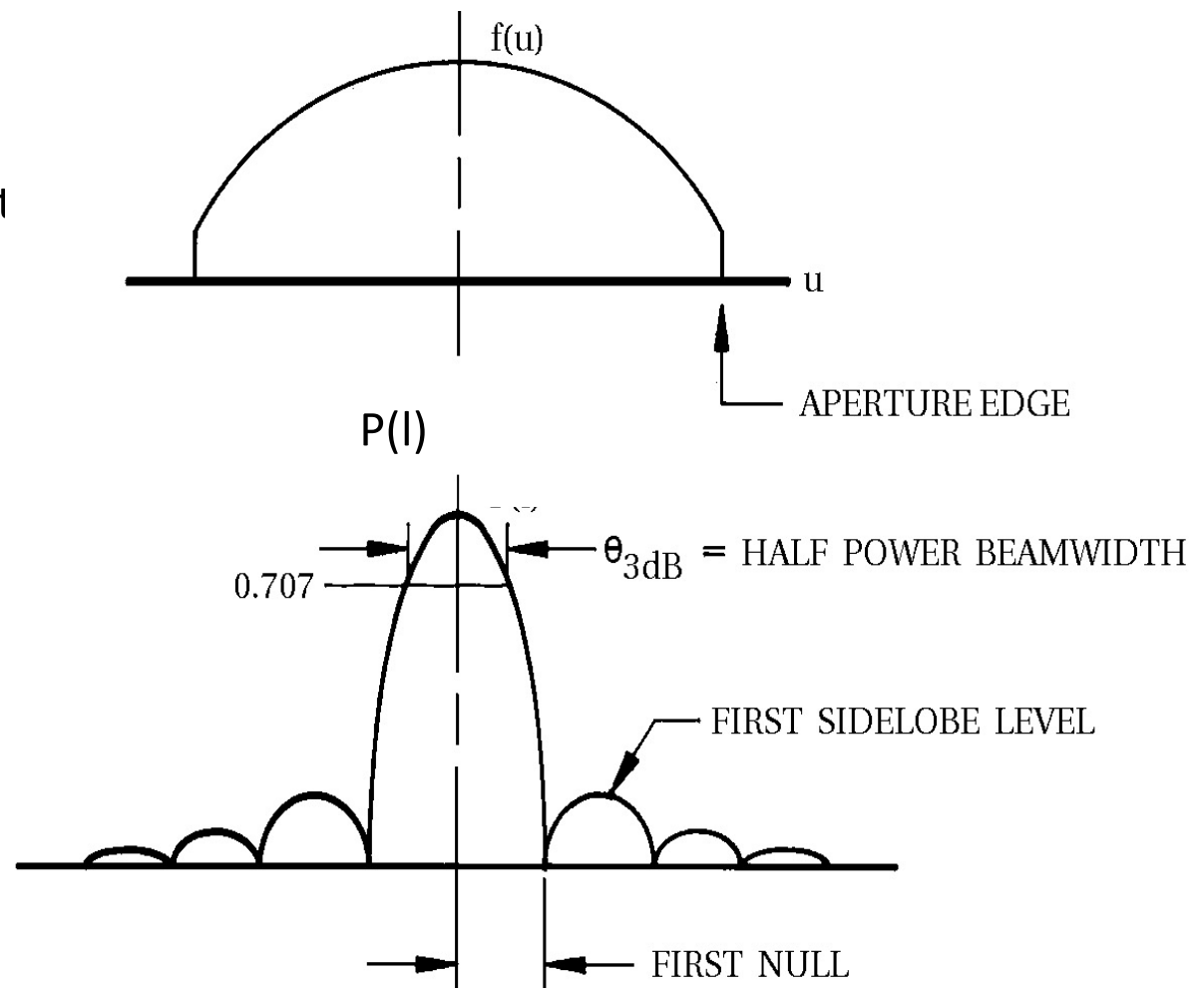
For small angles:

$$P_n(\theta, \phi) = P(l, m) / P_{\max}(l, m)$$

$\text{FWHM} \sim 1.2\lambda/D$  [rad]

For  $D=25\text{m}$ ,  $\lambda = 3.6 \text{ cm}$ :

$\text{FWHM} = 6 \text{ arcmin}$

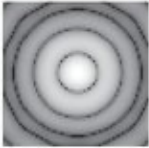
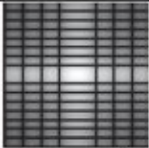


# Circular and quadratic aperture

Aperture

Beam pattern  
(Point spread function)



Aperture	PSF	PSF equation
round, diameter $d_x$		$\left[ \frac{2 J_1(x)}{x} \right]^2$
rectangle, sides $d_{x,y}$		$\left( \frac{\sin x}{x} \right)^2 \left( \frac{\sin y}{y} \right)^2 =  f(\varrho, m) ^2$

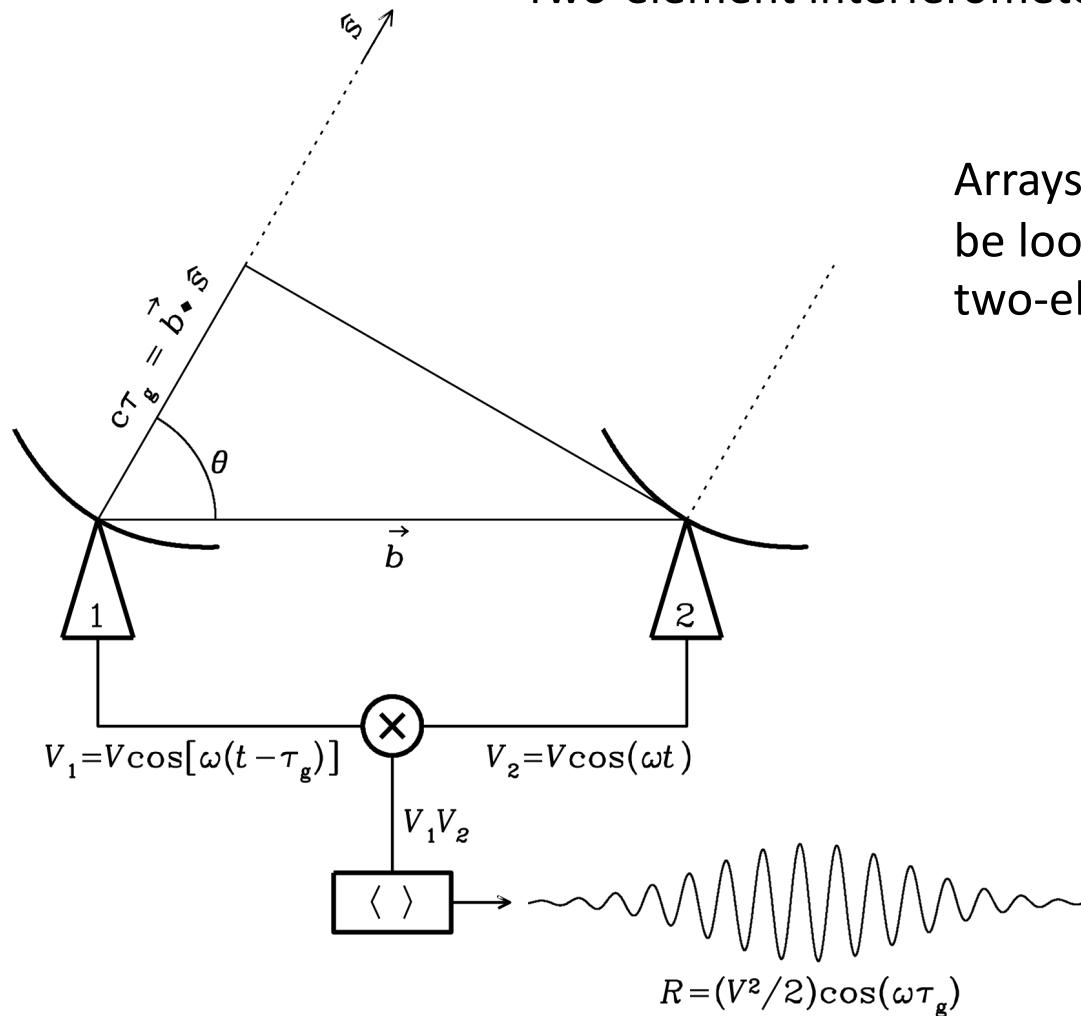
$$x = \pi \varrho \frac{L_x}{\lambda}$$

$$y = \pi m \frac{L_y}{\lambda}$$



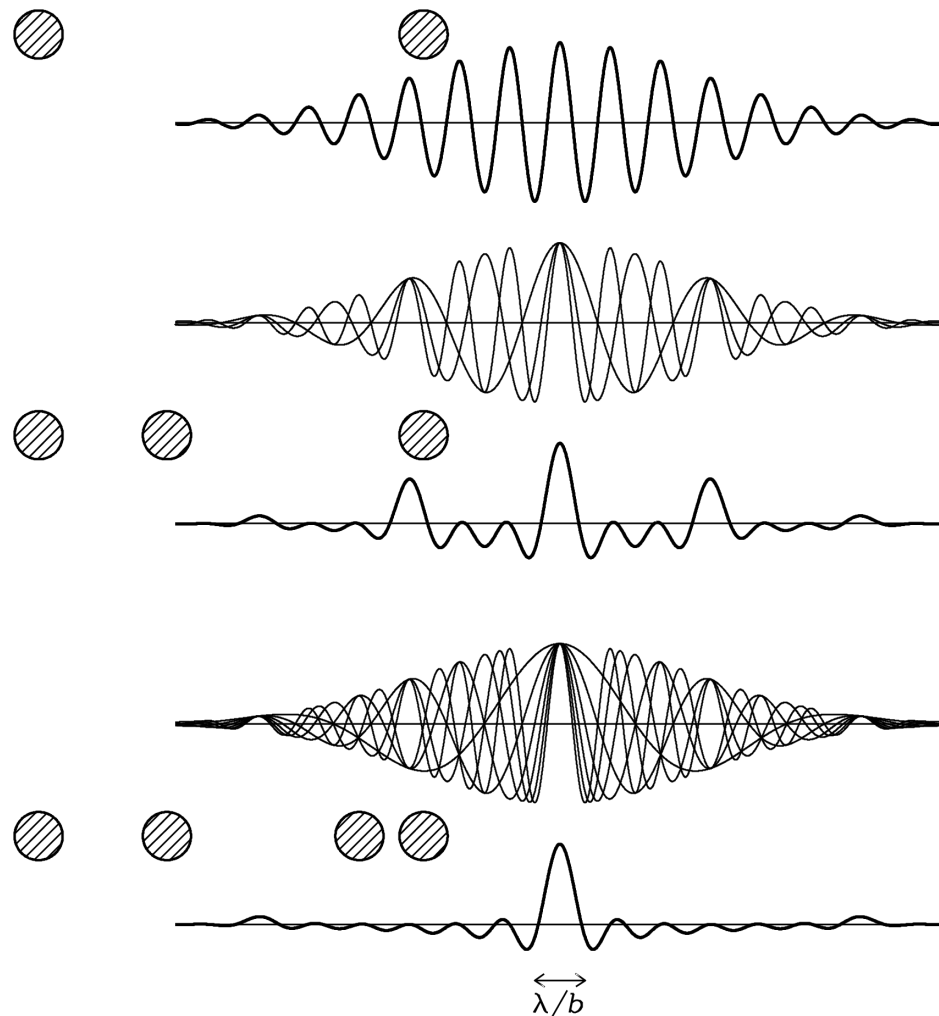
# Interferometer

Two-element interferometer



Arrays of  $N$  antennas can be looked at as  $N(N-1)/2$  two-element interferometers

# Radiation pattern of an array of two-element interferometers







# Westerbork Synthesis radio Telescope The Netherlands



# Australian Telescope Compact Array





# Very Large Array USA





# Very Long Baseline Array USA

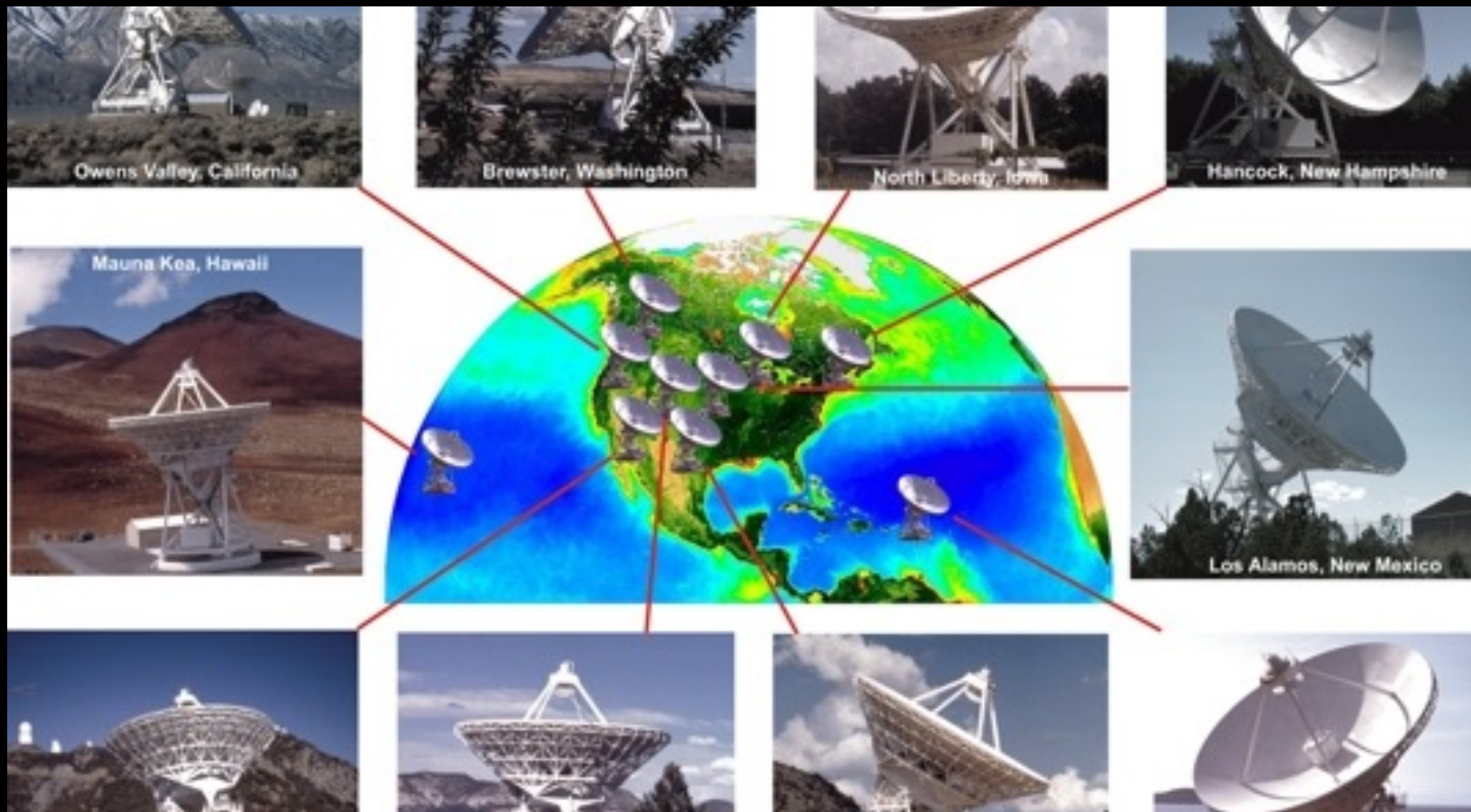
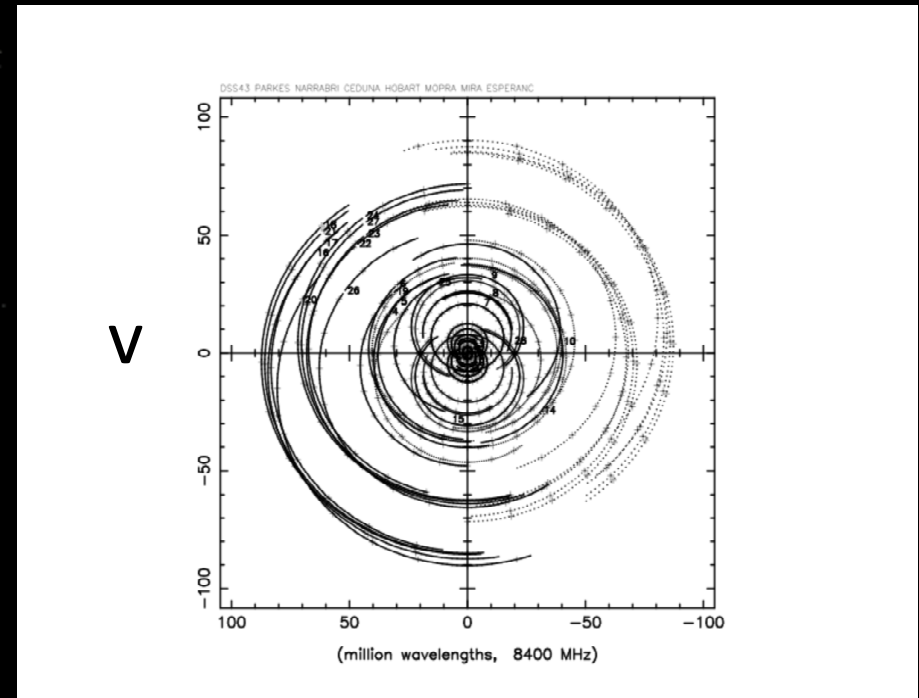
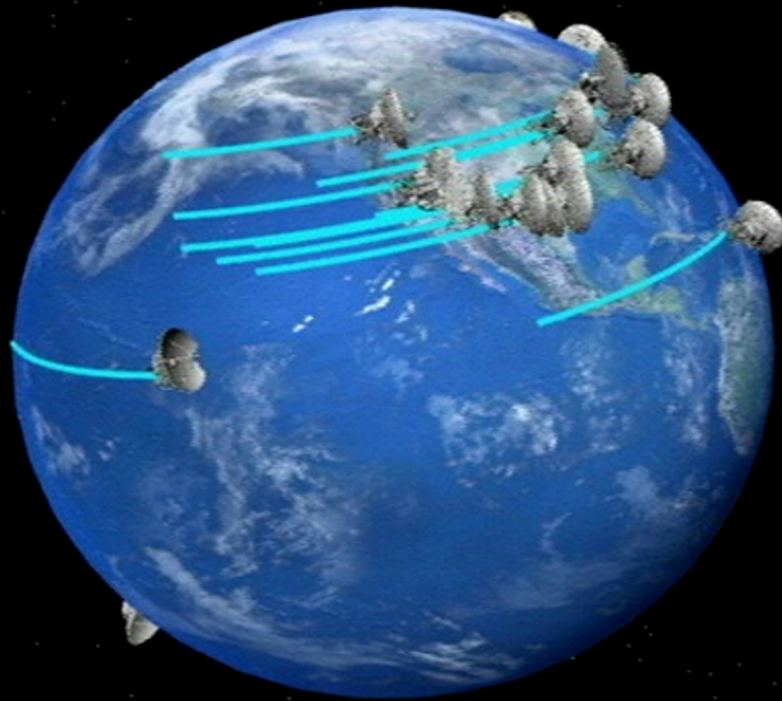


Image courtesy of NRAO/AUI and Earth image courtesy of the SeaWiFS Project NASA/GSFC and ORBIMAGE

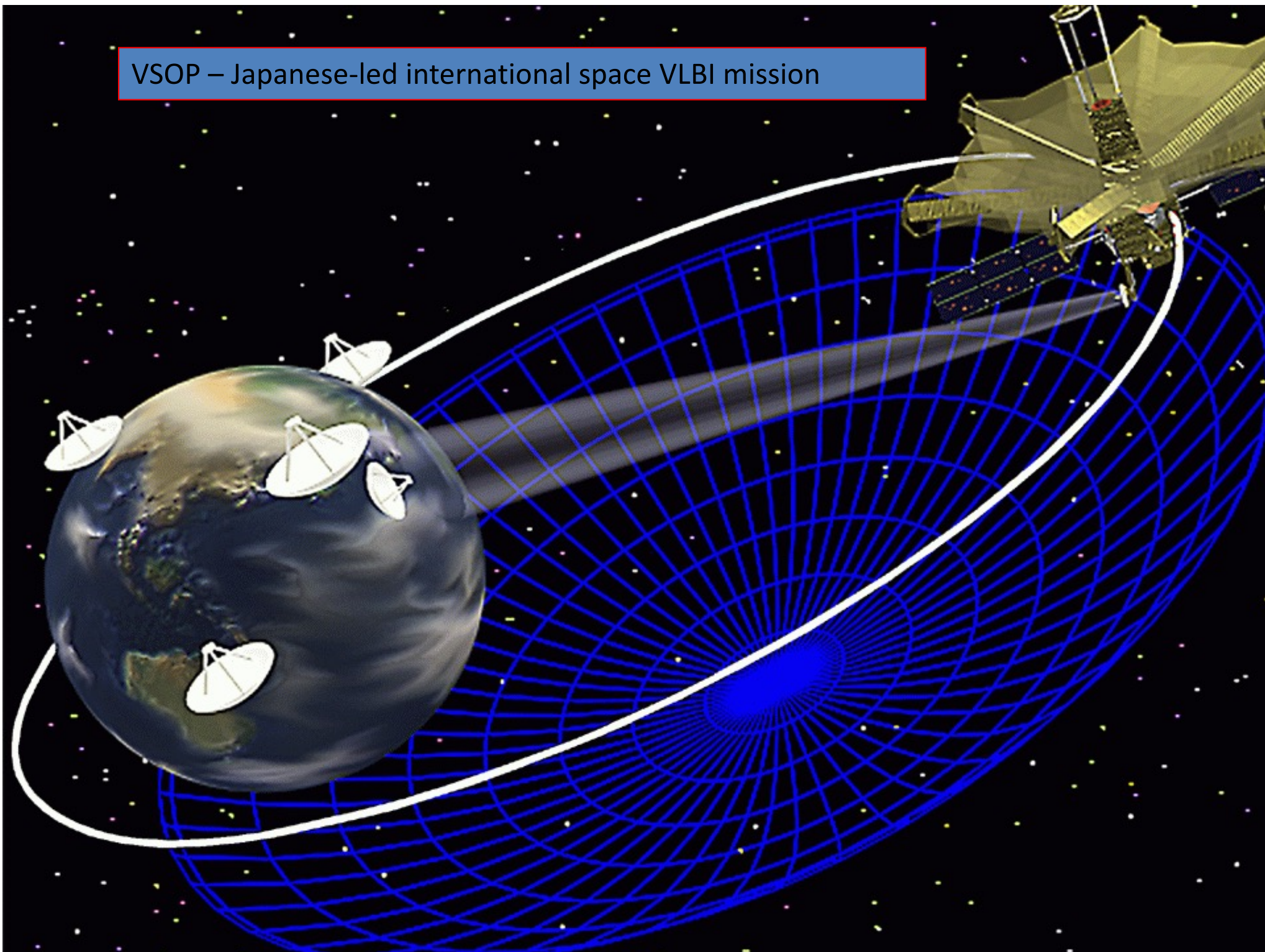
# Very Long Baseline Interferometry Global



Max baseline: 10,000 km  
 $D=10,000$  km  
 $\lambda = 1.3$  cm  
FWHM = 0.3 mas



VSOP – Japanese-led international space VLBI mission





# CHIME

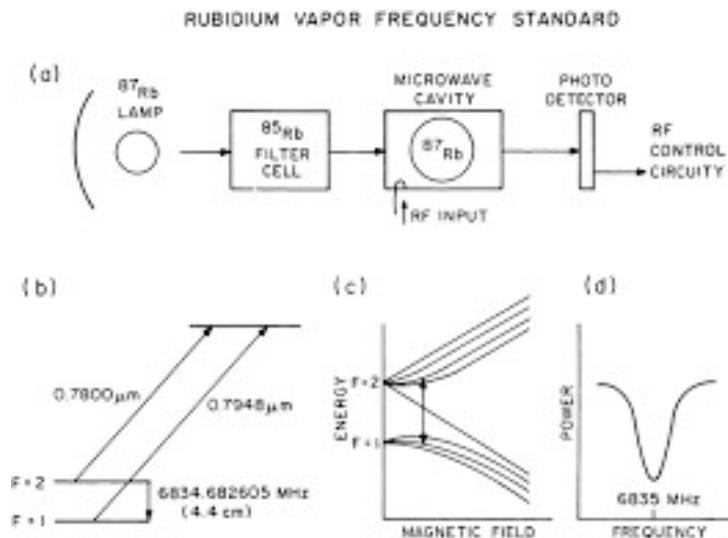


# Time and frequency standards

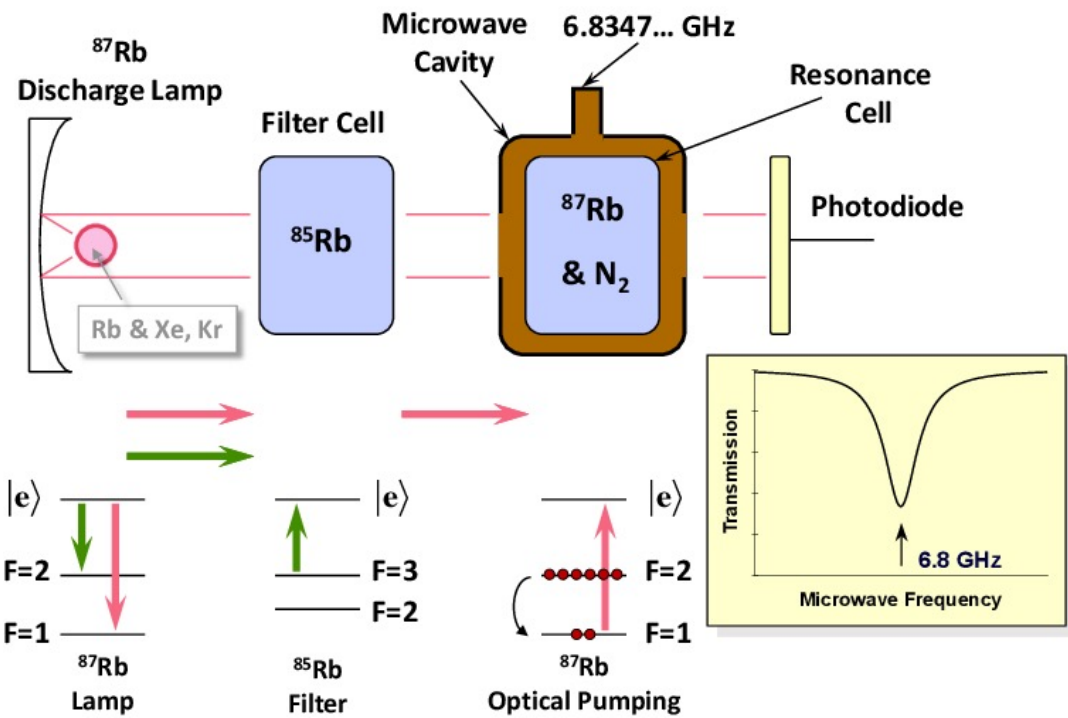
- Rubidium standards
- Cesium standards
- Hydrogen masers
- Optical clocks

# Rubidium standard

- The rubidium atomic clock is the smallest, most widely used and cheapest of the atomic frequency standards. They are also the least accurate of the atomic frequency standards and often used as secondary standards.
- All commercial rubidium frequency standards operate by disciplining a [crystal oscillator](#) to the rubidium hyperfine transition of 6.8 GHz (6834682610.904 Hz). The intensity of light from a rubidium [discharge lamp](#) that reaches a [photodetector](#) through a resonance cell will drop by about 0.1% when the rubidium vapor in the resonance cell is exposed to [microwave](#) power near the [transition frequency](#). The crystal oscillator is stabilized to the rubidium transition by detecting the light dip while sweeping an [RF synthesizer](#) (referenced to the crystal) through the transition frequency. (Wikipedia).







# Caesium clock

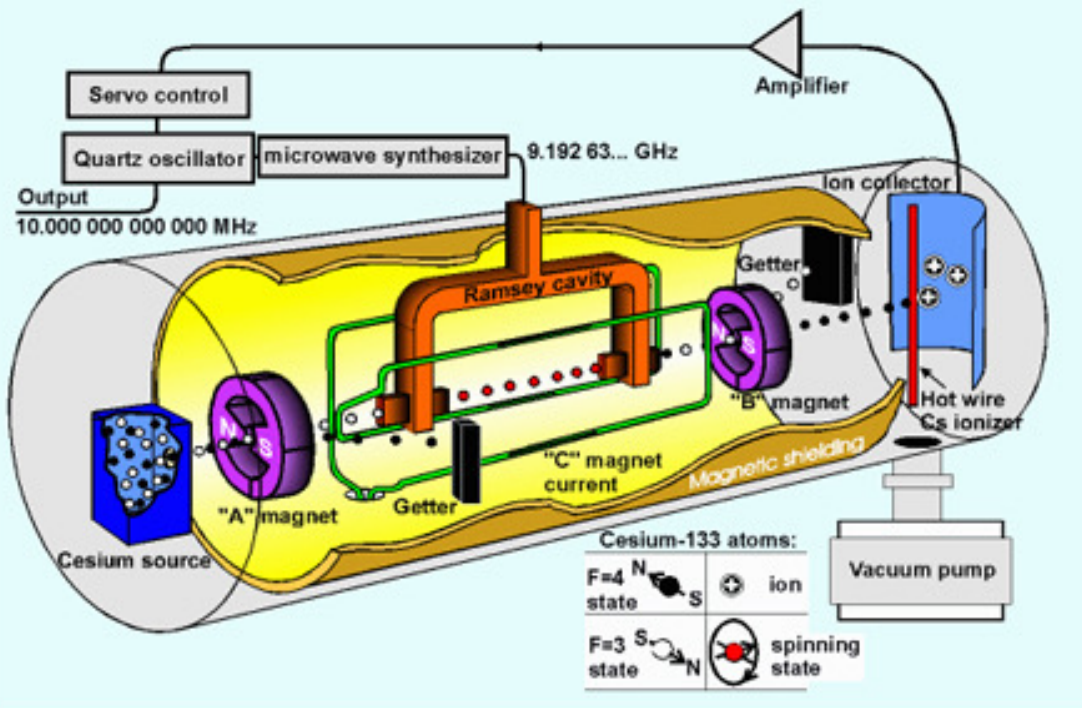
National Research Council Canada



<https://nrc.canada.ca/en/certifications-evaluations-standards/canadas-official-time/what-cesium-atomic-clock>

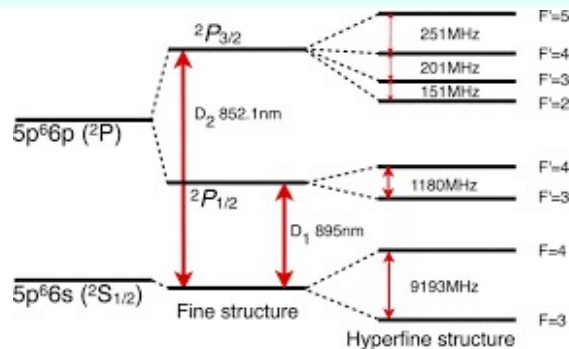
# Caesium clocks

Traditional Caesium Beam Frequency Standard



- Cs 133 is evaporated
- Magnet A splits path of Cs in F3 and F4, latter are absorbed
- Ramsey cavity is resonant at the transition frequency of 9192631770 Hz. Transitions occur.
- B magnet splits F3 and F4 Cs atoms
- F3 atoms are absorbed by hot wire, F4 atoms are collected and counted by electron multiplier.
- Quartz oscillator is fine tuned so that the Cs F4 atom numbers are maximized, measured by the electron multiplier output.
- This constitutes the measurement of the atom's resonance frequency.
- 9192631770 Hz is divided down to 10 MHz and used in a servo-loop to lock the quartz oscillator
- Every 10 million cycles 1 pulse is issued, exactly 1 s apart.

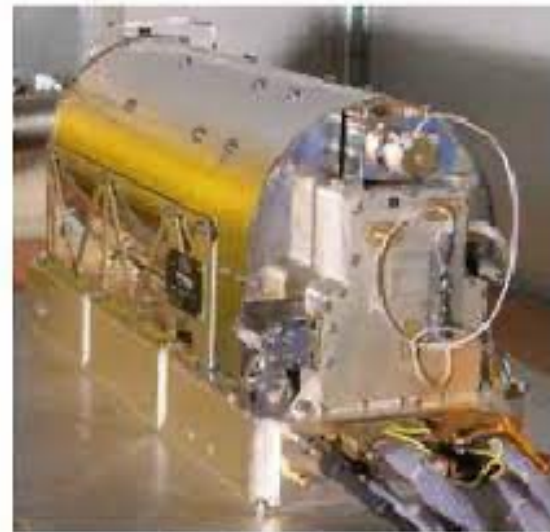
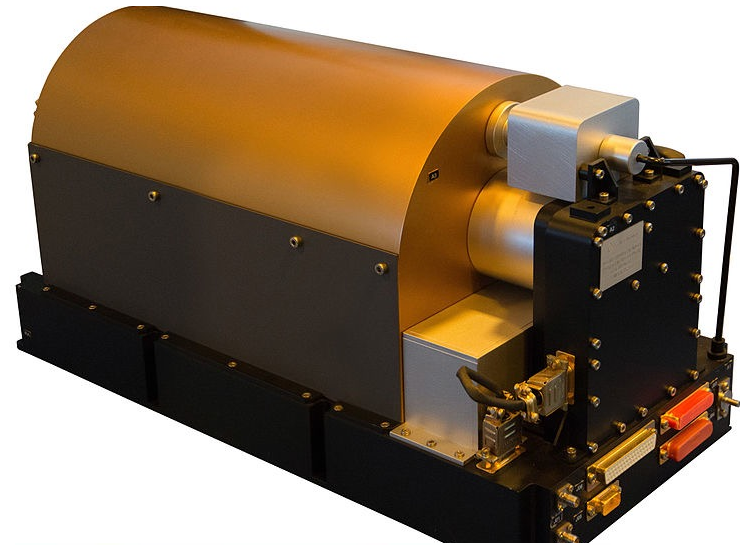
NRC Canada





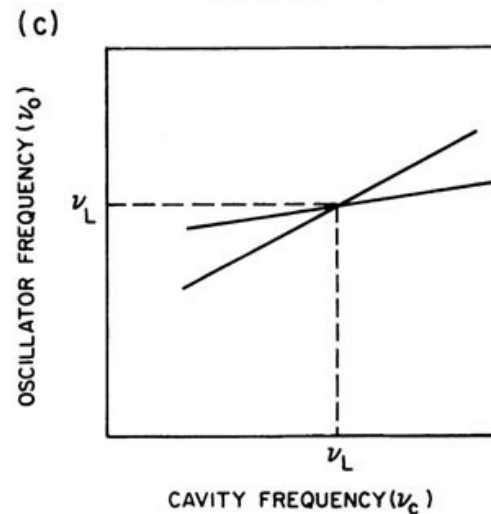
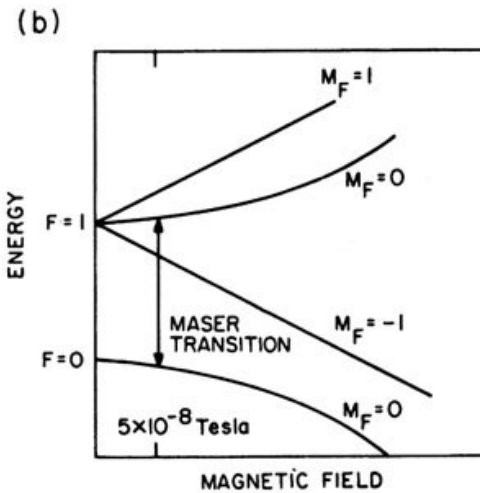
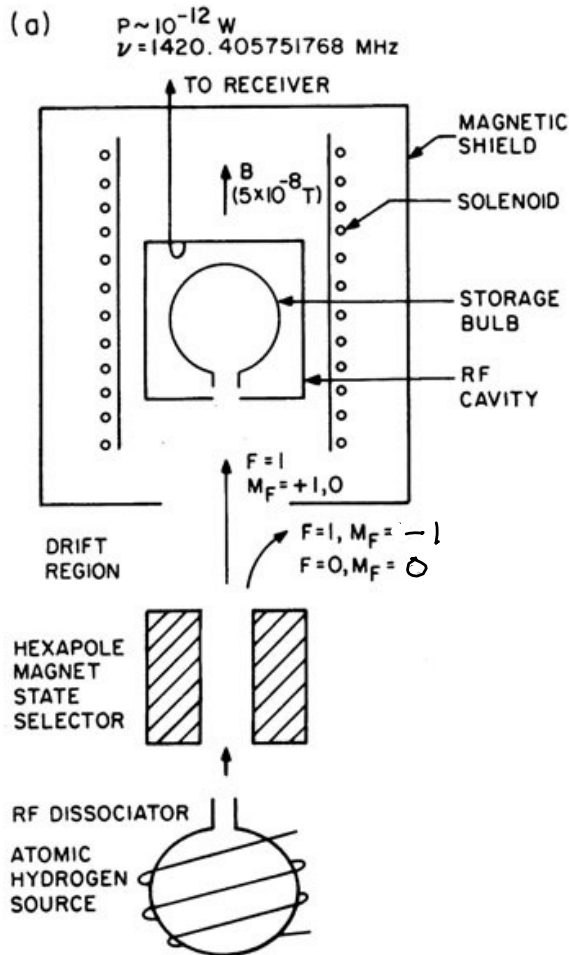


NASA Deep space network station Goldstone, CA



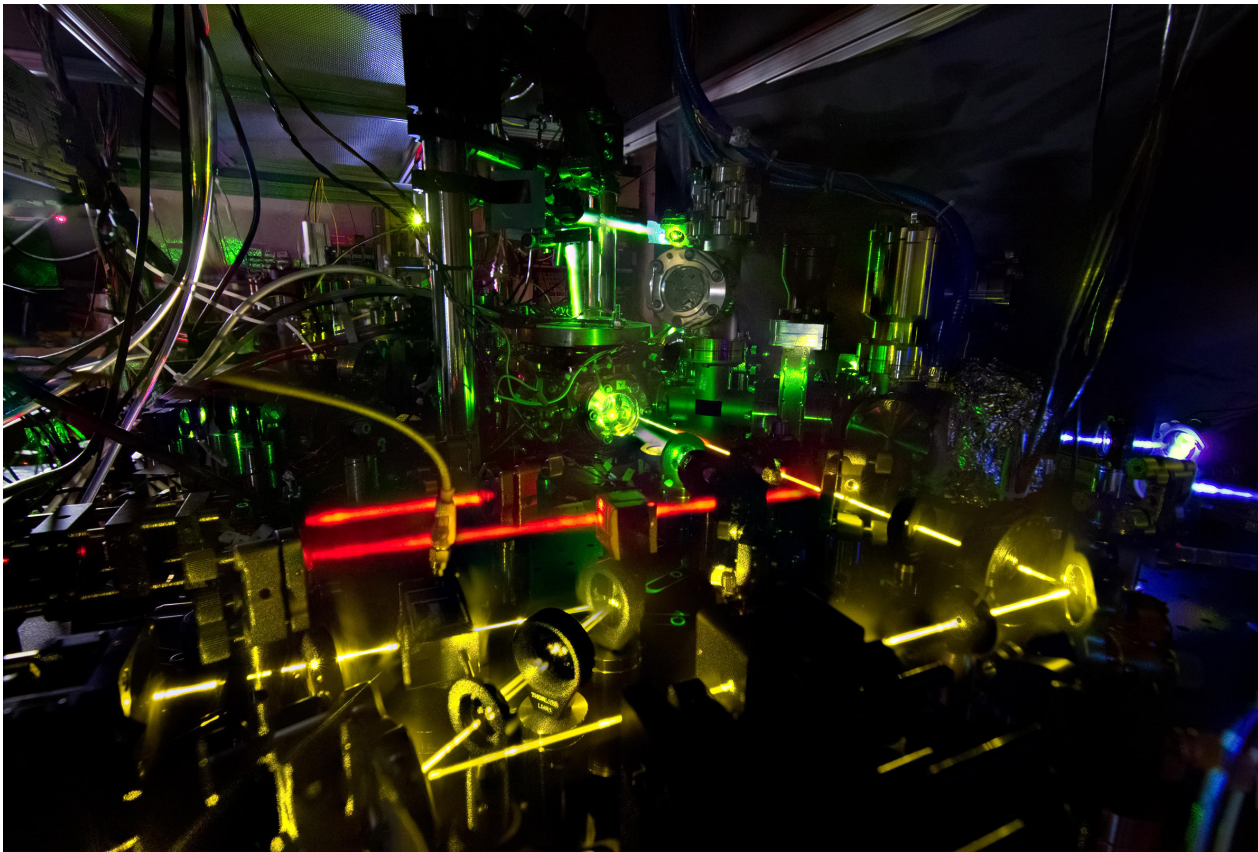
ESA Galileo space hydrogen maser

The hydrogen maser uses the hyperfine transition of the neutral hydrogen atom for generating pulses exactly 1 s apart. This transition is at a frequency of 1420.405751768 MHz



- H<sub>2</sub> gas is dissociated into H atoms
- Magnet splits path of atoms in different hyperfine energy levels.
- Upper level atoms get into storage bulb
- Solenoid creates homogeneous magnetic field to allow maser transitions to occur
- Cavity is tuned close to transition frequency
- Maser will oscillate
- Transition frequency is detected by RF probe
- Signal is used to phase-lock a crystal oscillator that also provides the cavity frequency in a servo loop
- The resonance frequency is divided down so that pulses are generated exactly 1 s apart.

# Optical clock



- Optical clocks operate on the basis of transitions in the optical rather than transitions in the radio.
- Stability Proportional to frequency and inversely proportional to line width
- $\sim 10^3$  to  $10^6$  times higher accuracy expected



# Allan deviation

The Allan deviation is a measure of the frequency stability in frequency standards or clocks. It was first introduced by W. Allan.

The desired stable signal is  $v(t)=v_0 \cos(2\pi\nu_0 t)$ . However realistically because of instabilities, we get  $v(t)=v_0 \cos(2\pi\nu_0 t+\theta(t))$ . This is equivalent to a frequency change

$$dv(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{d\theta(t)}{dt}$$

Which leads to the fractional frequency change

$$y(t) = \frac{dv(t)}{v_0} = \frac{1}{2\pi\nu_0} \frac{d\theta(t)}{dt}$$

and the average fractional frequency deviation

$$\bar{y}_k = \frac{1}{\tau} \int_{t_k}^{t_k+\tau} y(t) dt$$

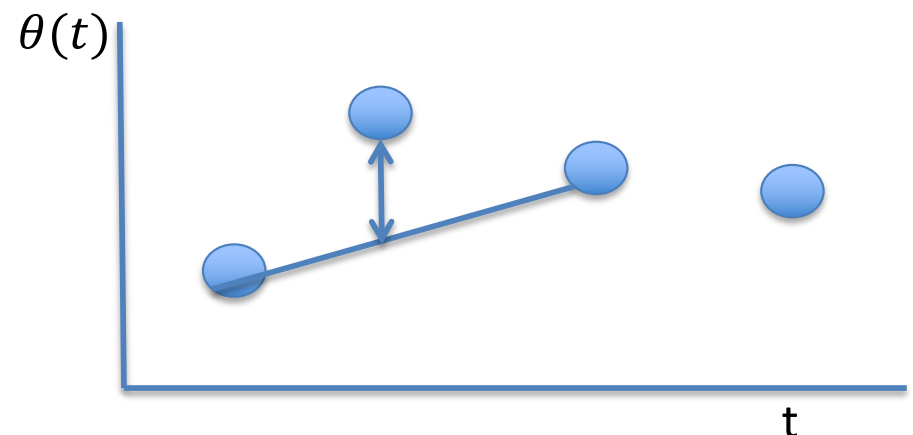
which becomes

$$\bar{y}_k = \frac{\theta(t_k+\tau) - \theta(t_k)}{2\pi\nu_0\tau}$$

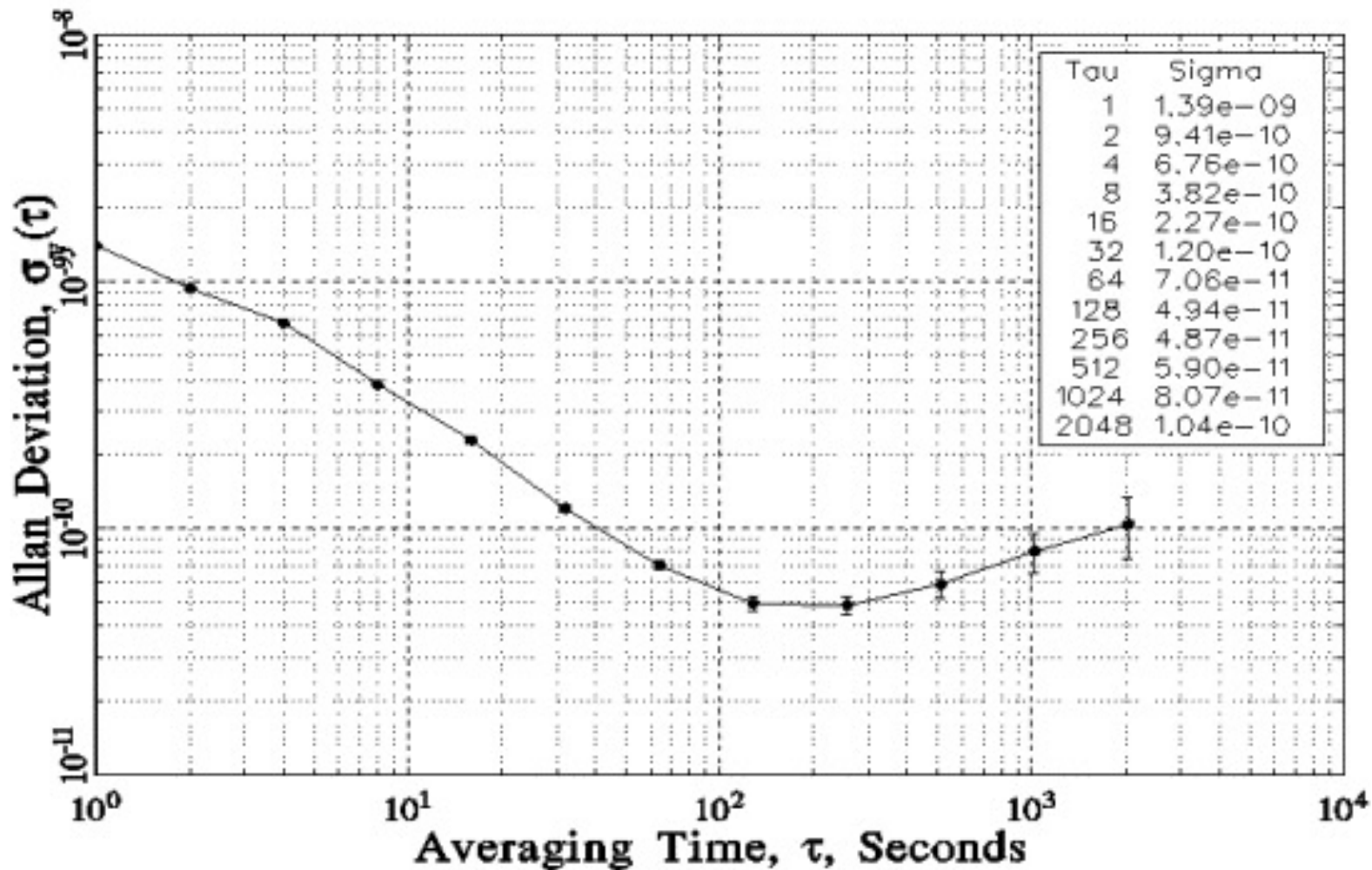
$$\sigma_y^2(t) = \frac{\langle (\bar{y}_{k+1} - \bar{y}_k)^2 \rangle}{2}$$

Allan deviation and variance

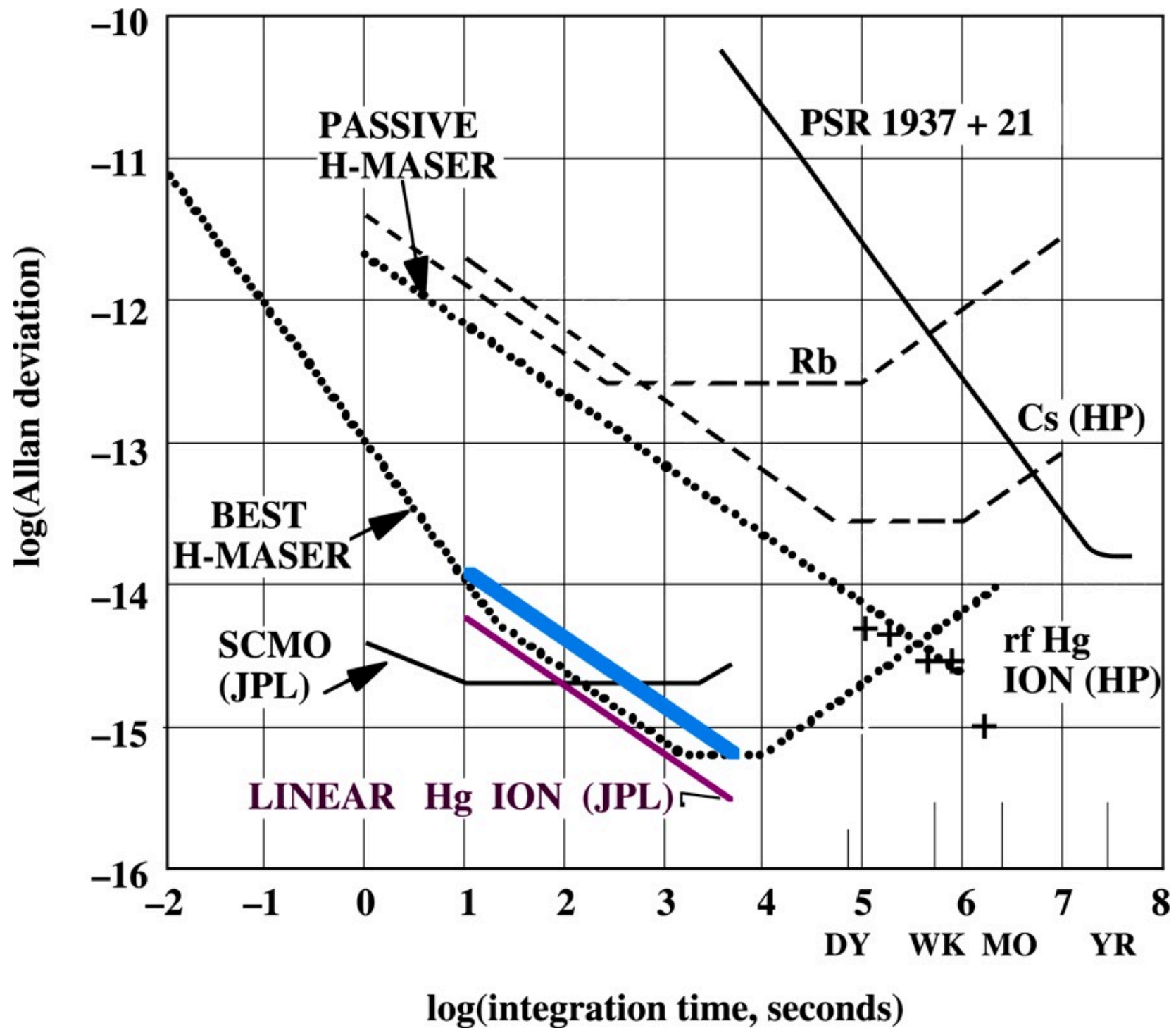
$$\sigma_y(\tau) = \sqrt{\sigma_y^2(\tau)}$$



# Frequency Stability



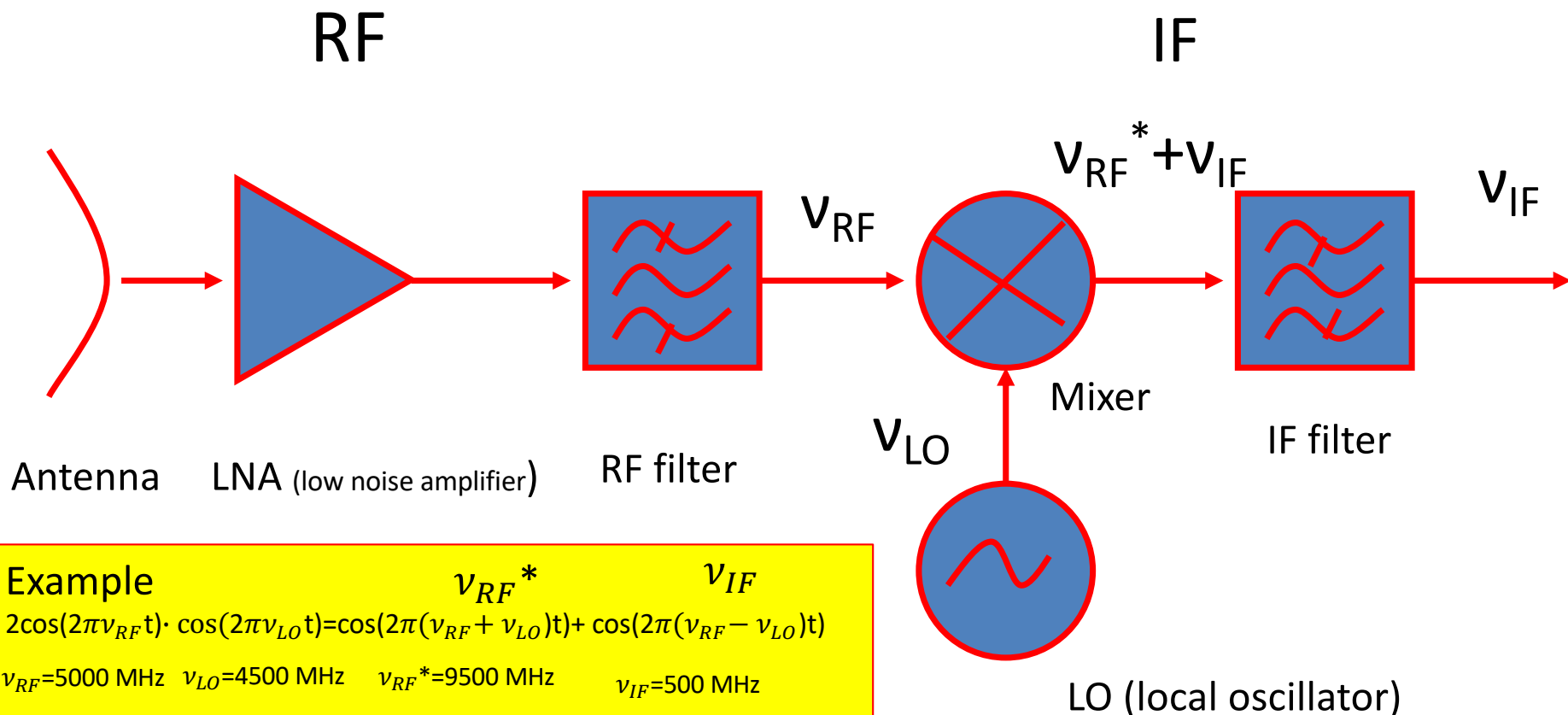
An Allan deviation of  $3.3 \times 10^{-10}$  for samples 1 s apart and averaged over 1s. →  
Instability between 2 observations has a rms of  $3.3 \times 10^{-10}$ . For a clock with 1 GHz output,  
The output frequency has an rms deviation of 0.33 Hz.





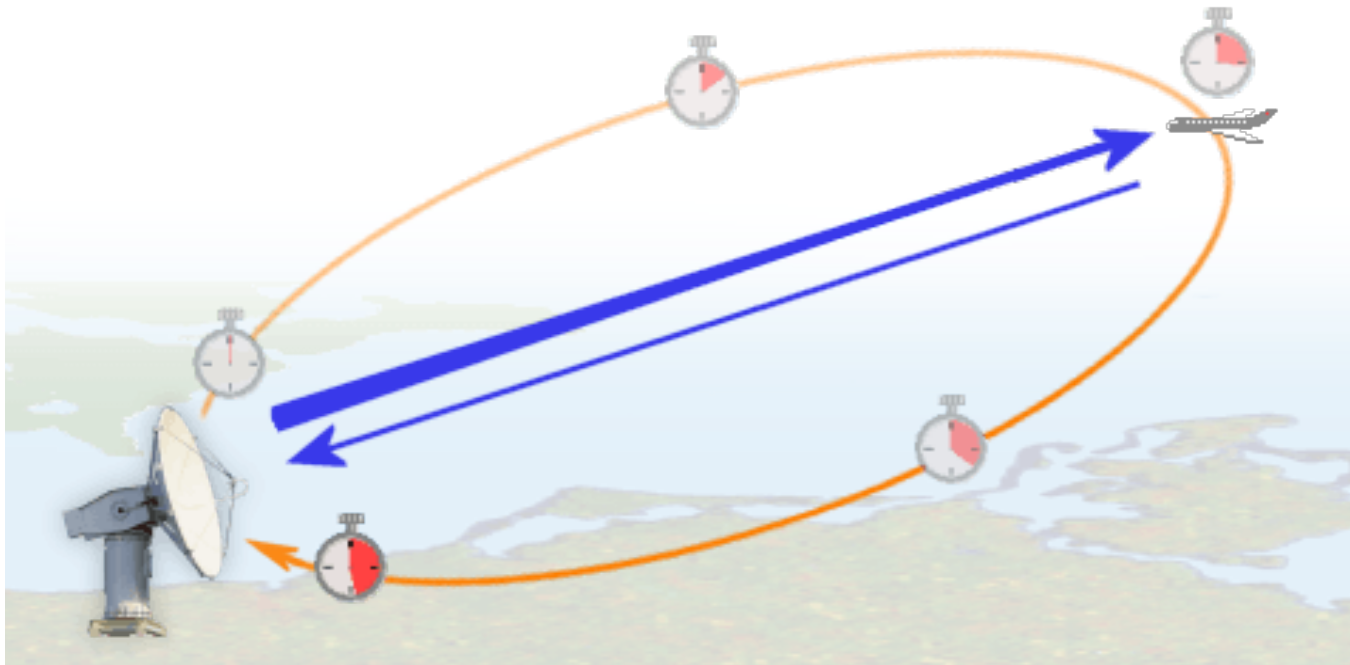
# Superheterodyne receivers

Superheterodyne receivers use a mixing and filtering scheme to convert a high frequency signal (RF: radio frequency) to an intermittent frequency (IF). It is widely used in radio science and techniques. The signal can then further mixed down to baseband to be sampled at the Nyquist frequency.



# 5. Radar fundamentals

<https://www.radartutorial.eu/01.basics/Physical%20fundamentals%20of%20the%20radar%20principle.en.html>



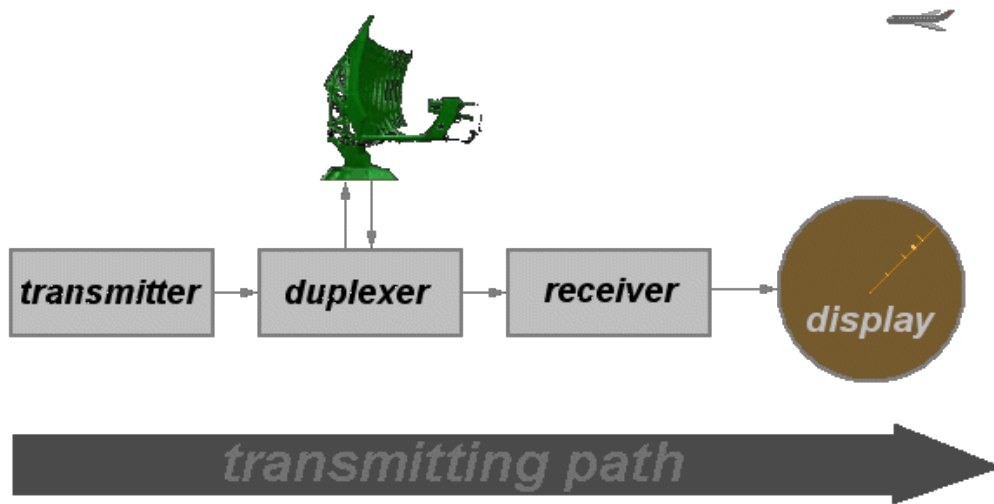
Azimuth  
Elevation  
Range  
Range rate



## Advantages over visual devices:

Operate:  
day and night over long distances  
in all weather conditions,  
penetrate walls and layers of snow  
Observe whole hemisphere  
Automatic service over days possible

# Basics



Transmitter: produces RF pulse of short duration with high power

Duplexer: electronic switch for transmit and receive operation with same antenna

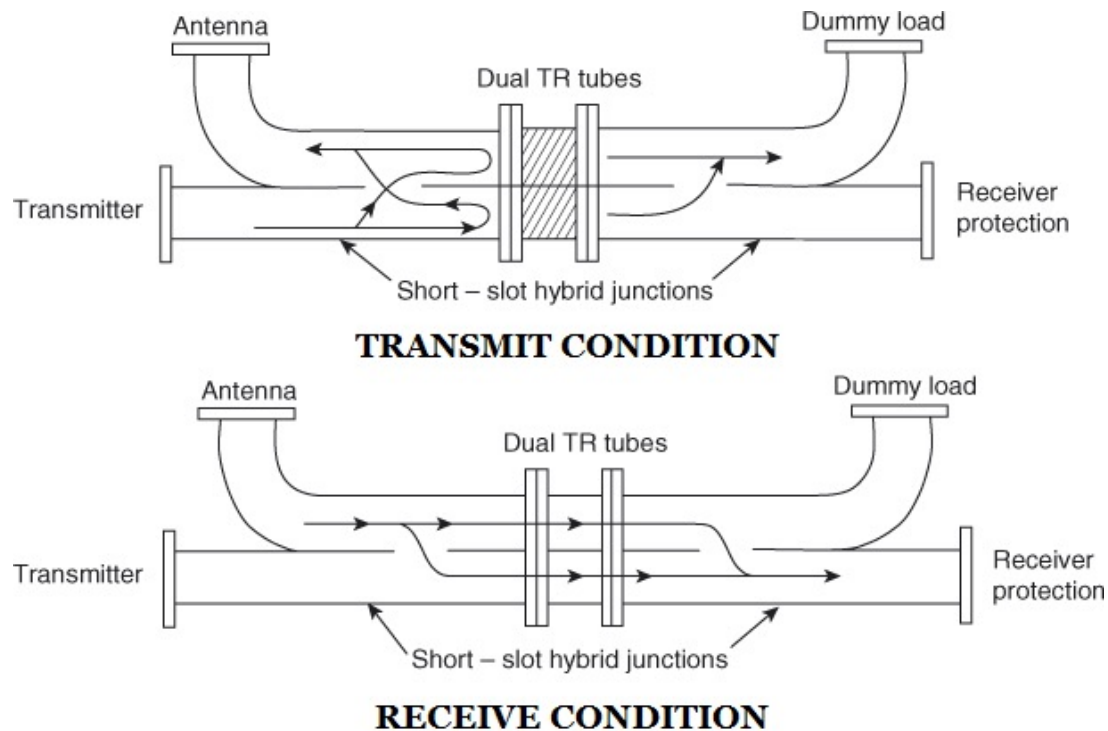
Receiver amplifies RF signal and prepares it for display





# Duplexer

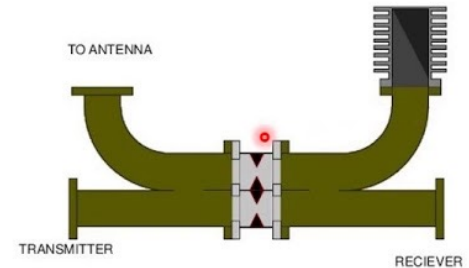
## Electronic switch

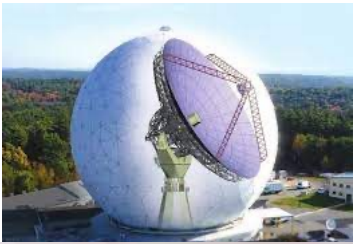


## Duplexer

### Balanced duplexer:

- Balanced duplexer consists of dual TR tube and an waveguide directional coupler.
- The gas discharge TR tube is a glass tube filled with noble gas (like Argon) or halogen gas with vapour at very small pressure.
- When High RF field incidents on the tube the gas inside the tube breaks down and the tube will now start to reflect the RF field.

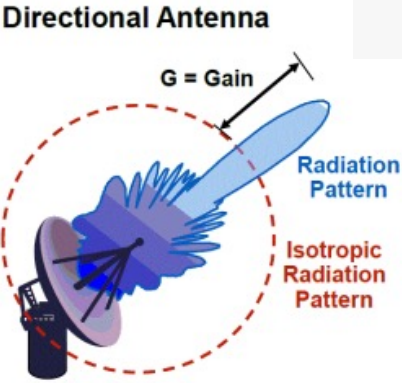
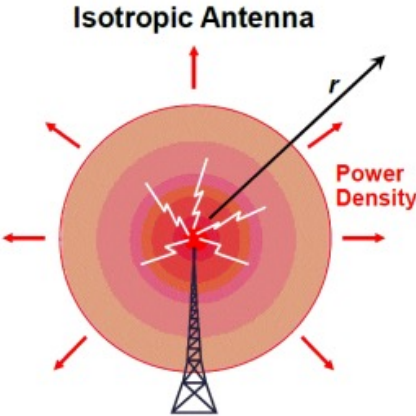
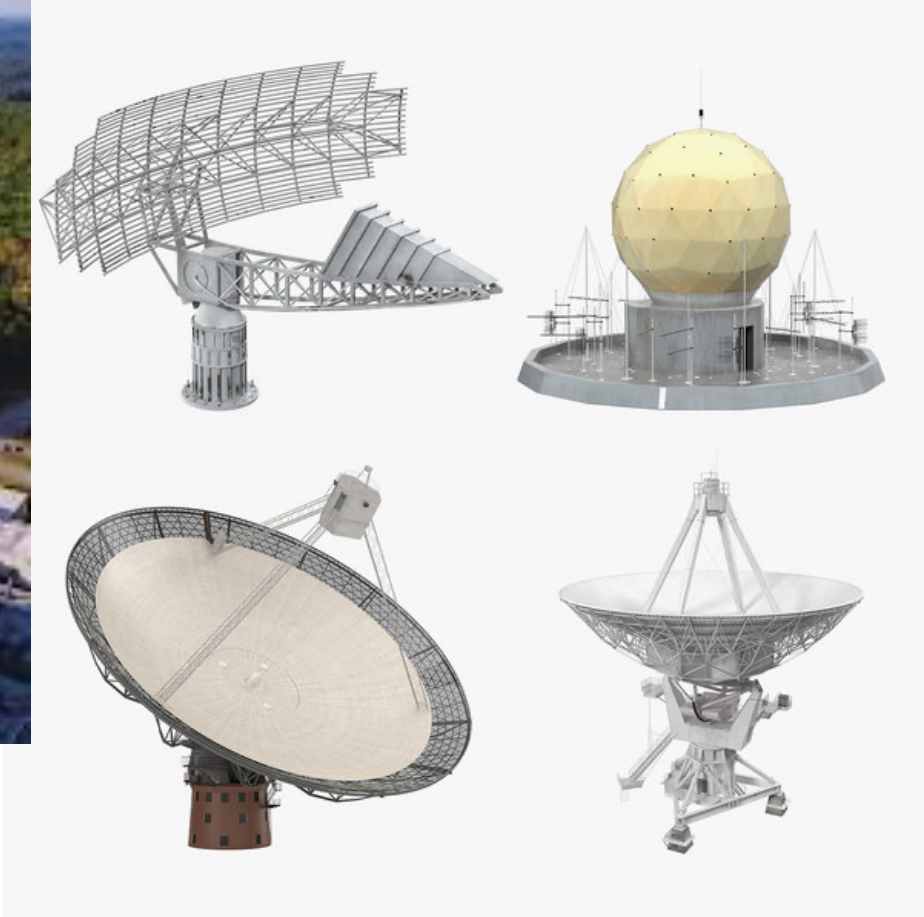




# Antennas



Haystack, MIT antenna





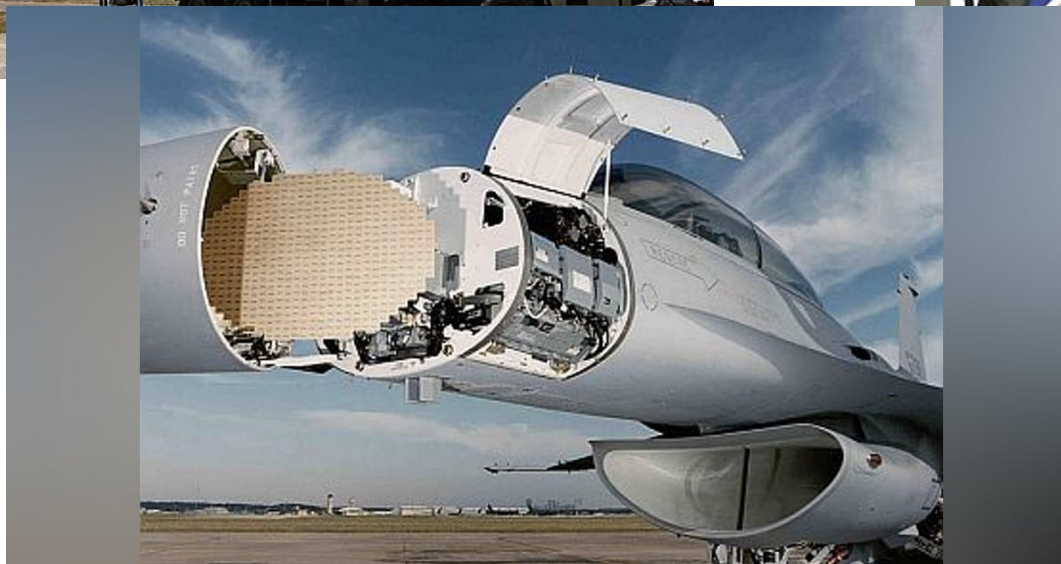
# Phased arrays



Wikiwand

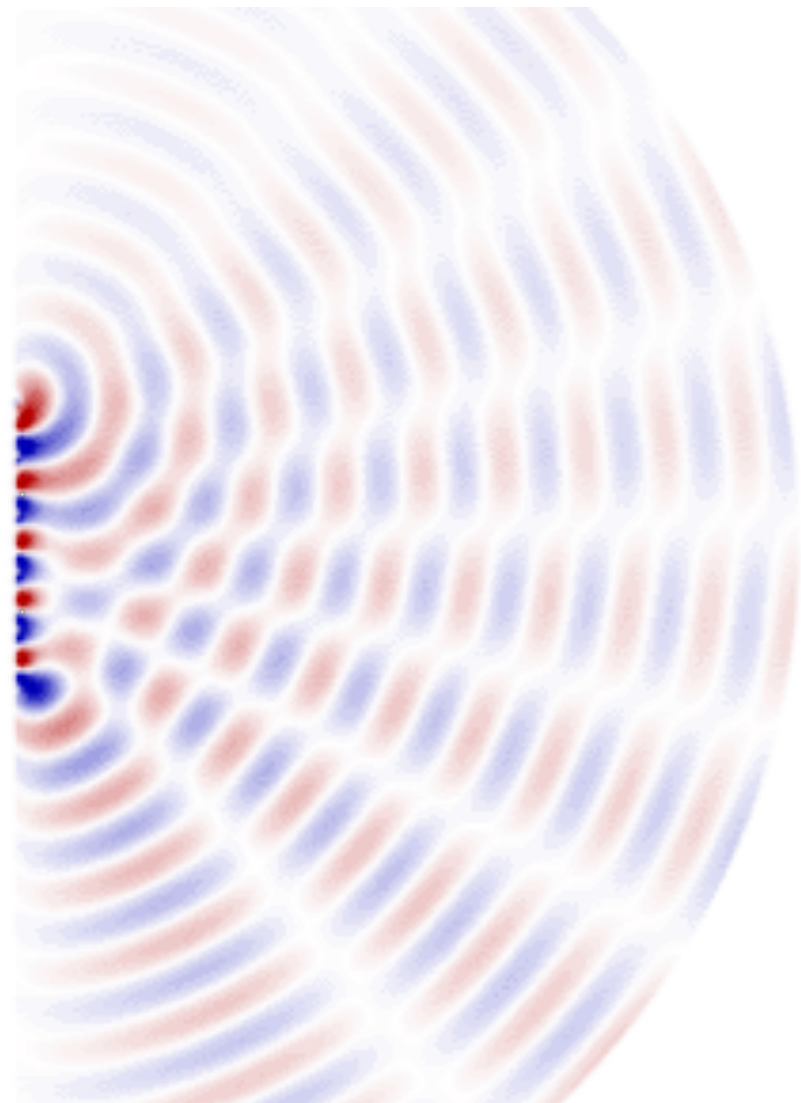
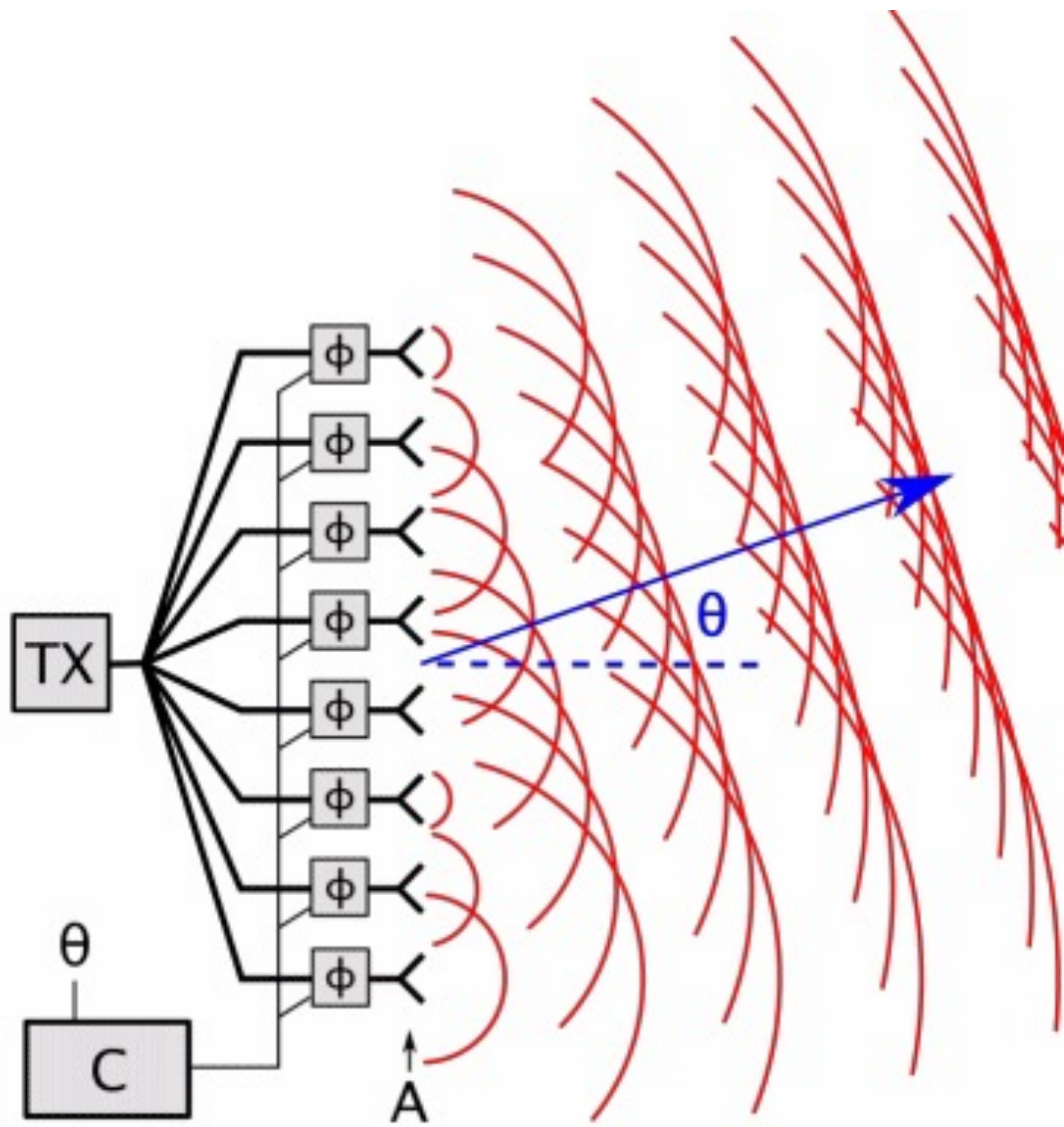


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Military and Aerospace electronics





# Synthetic aperture radar

Instead of an array of antennas, SAR samples data at the Nyquist frequency at one antenna at different positions, stores the data and then synthesizes an image

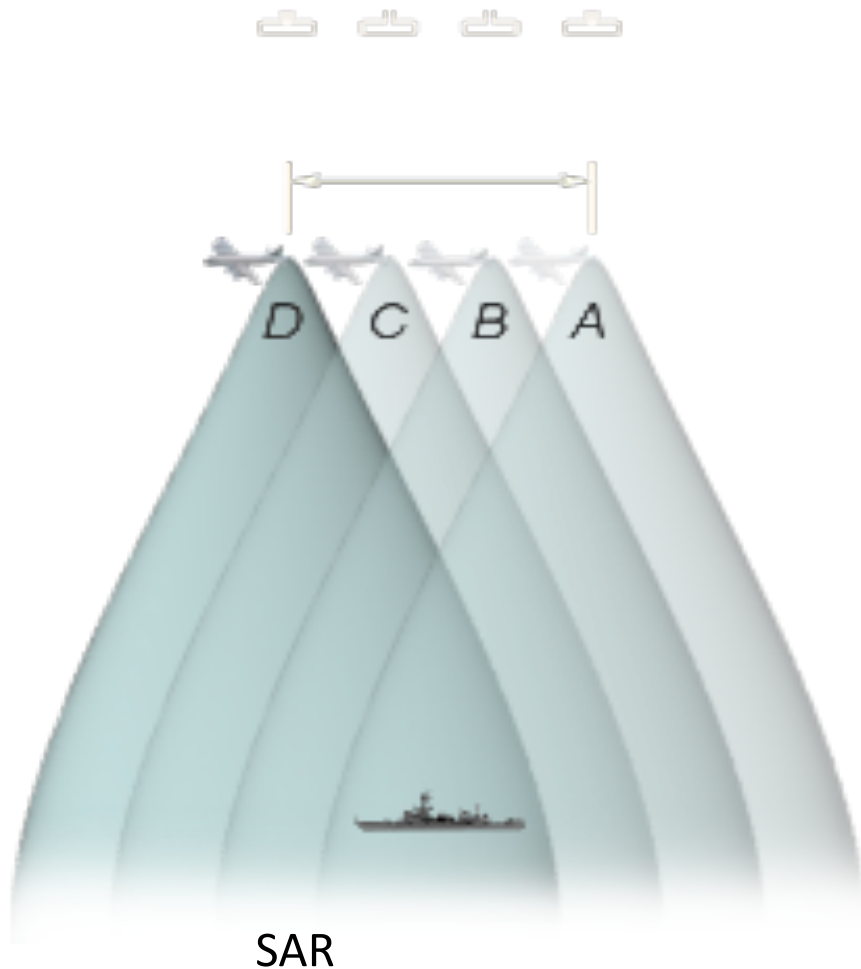
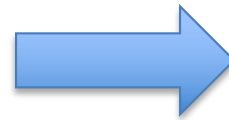


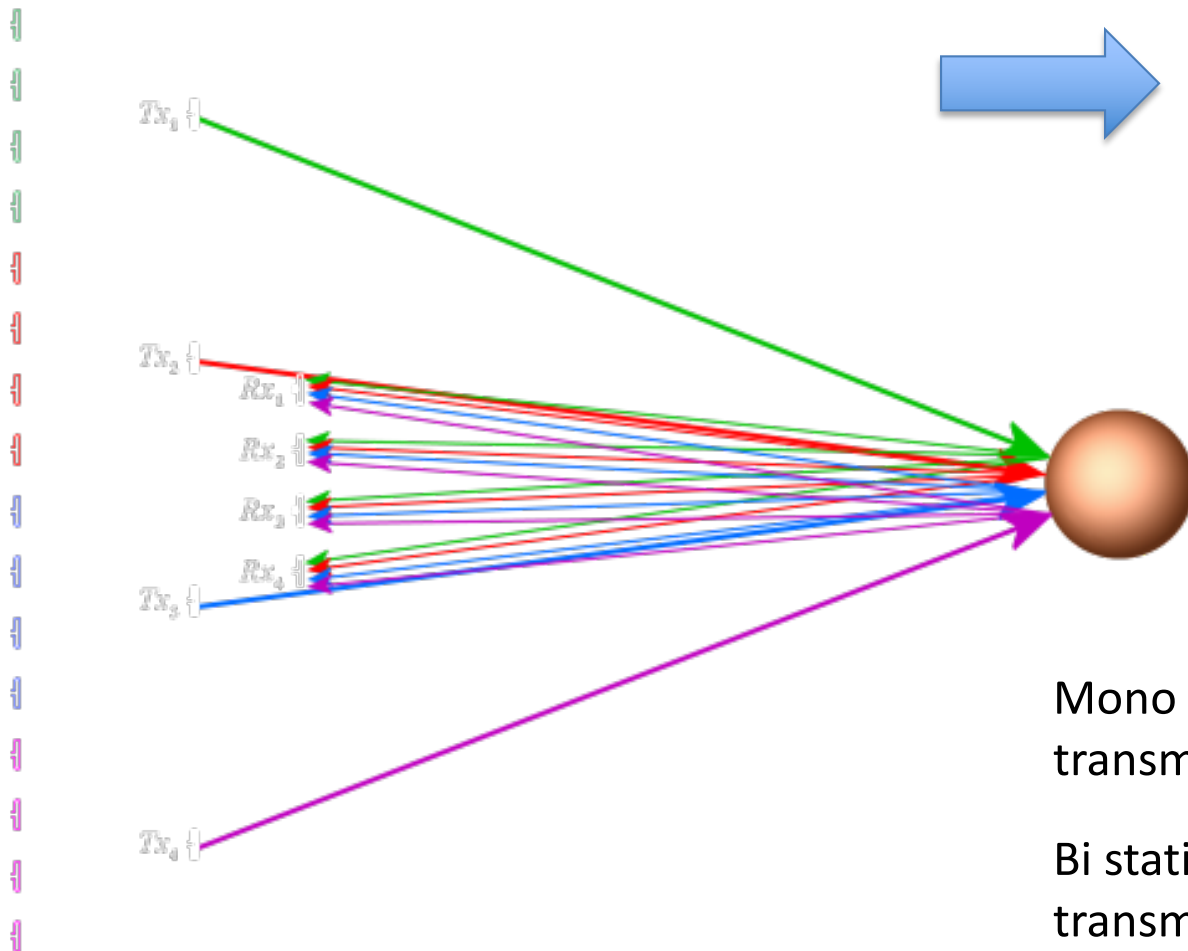
Image of ship

# Multiple input multiple output (MIMO) radar systems

With  $N$  transmitters and  $K$  receivers an array of antennas with  $N \times K$  elements can be synthesized



Enlarged size of aperture,  
better aperture distribution,  
smaller side lobes,  
less interference



Mono static MIMO:  
transmit and receive antennas are nearby

Bi static MIMO:  
transmit and receive antennas are far apart