

# Radio astronomy essentials: From antennas to interferometry

MARCH 2026 @ UNDARK, ANNECY

Cherry



NG-GUIHENEUF



CENTRE NATIONAL  
DE LA RECHERCHE  
SCIENTIFIQUE

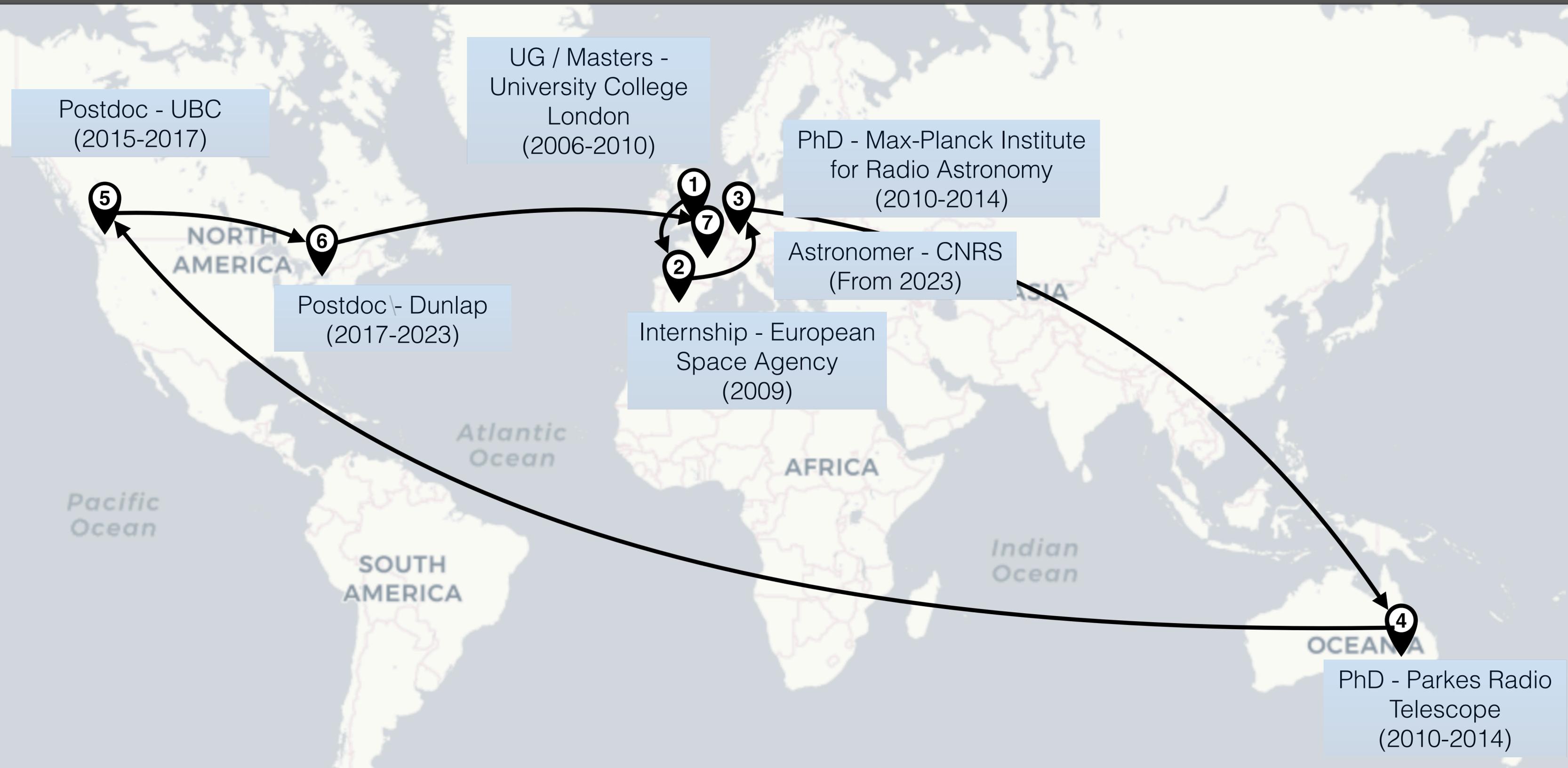


# Lecture planning

## Radio astronomy essentials: From antennas to interferometry

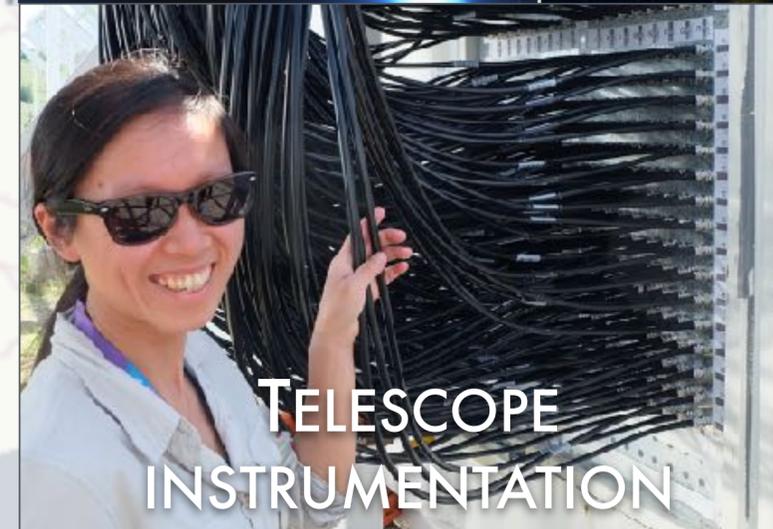
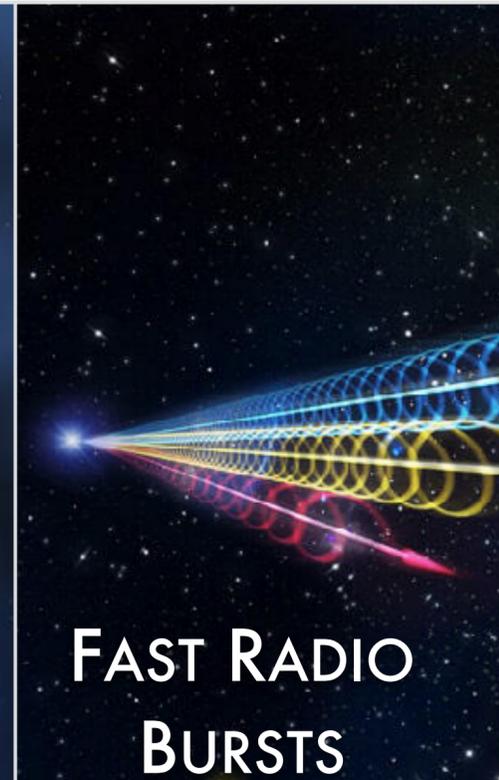
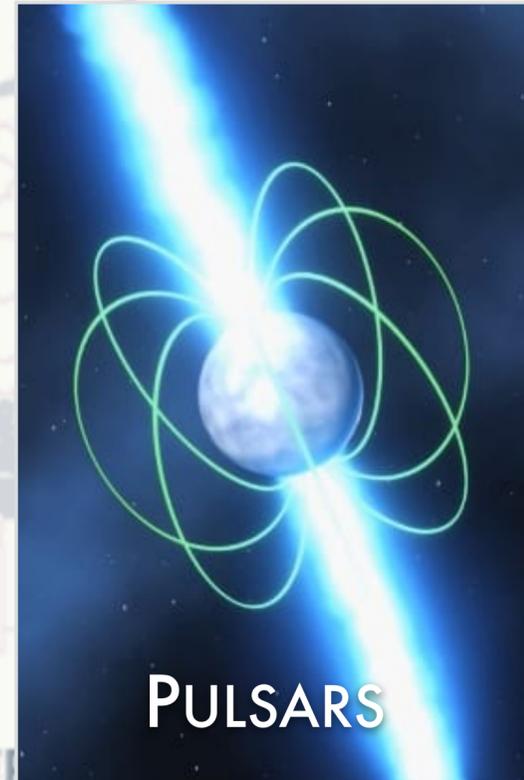
- Class 1 (today 11:20am) - Radio astronomy history, notable observations, single dish and interferometers
- Class 2 (tomorrow 9am) - Pulsars, how to find them and what to do with them
- Class 3 (tomorrow 2pm) - A brief overview of Fast Radio Bursts
- Class 4 (tomorrow 3:30pm) - Hands-on — playing with interferometer imaging + pulsar searching

# My career path



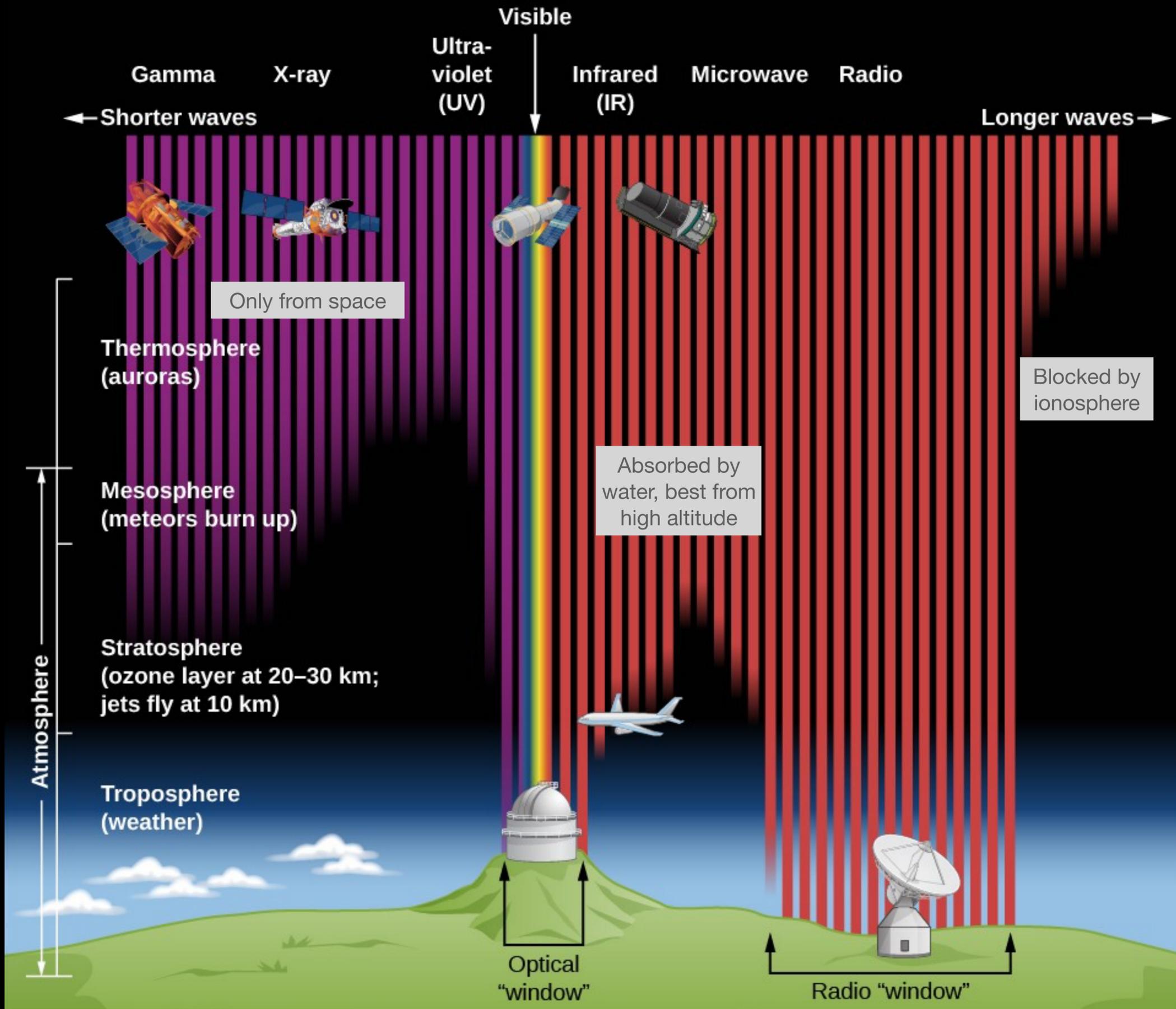
# My career path

## RADIO ASTRONOMY

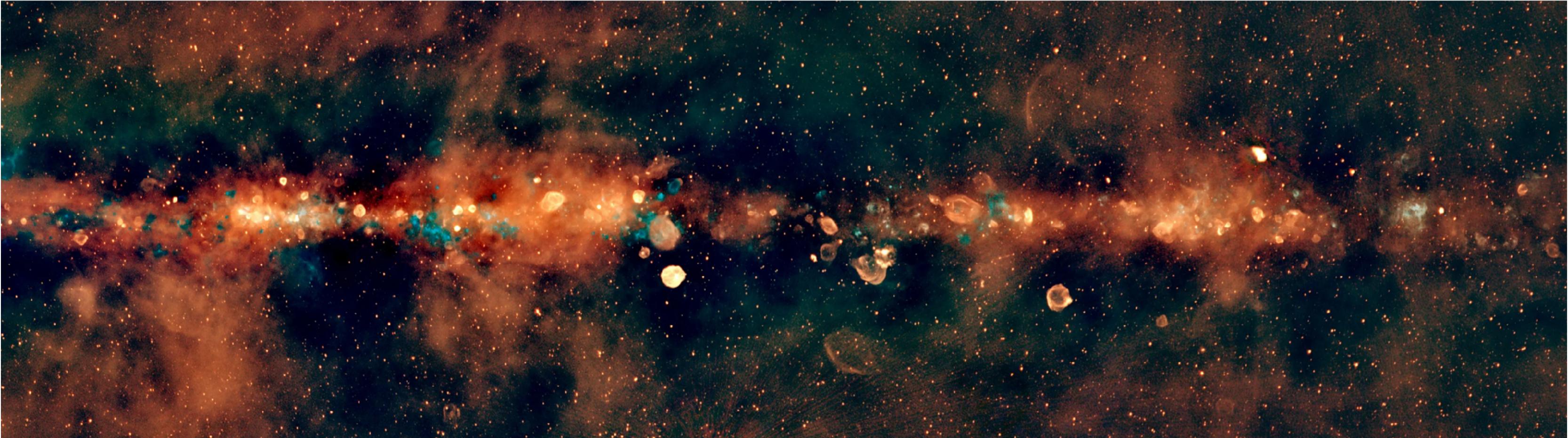


# Why radio astronomy?

- Only Radio and Optical are possible from ground base observations (pass through the atmosphere)
- Radio spectrum much wider, lots more information
- Much less affected by dust extinction than optical light, allowing us to observe regions that are obscured in the optical, such as star-forming regions and the Galactic center.



Credit: modification of work by STScI/JHU/NASA



Top image credit: S. Mantovanini & the GLEAM-X team  
Bottom image credit: Axel Mellinger, [milkywaysky.com](http://milkywaysky.com)

# Why radio astronomy came later than optical?

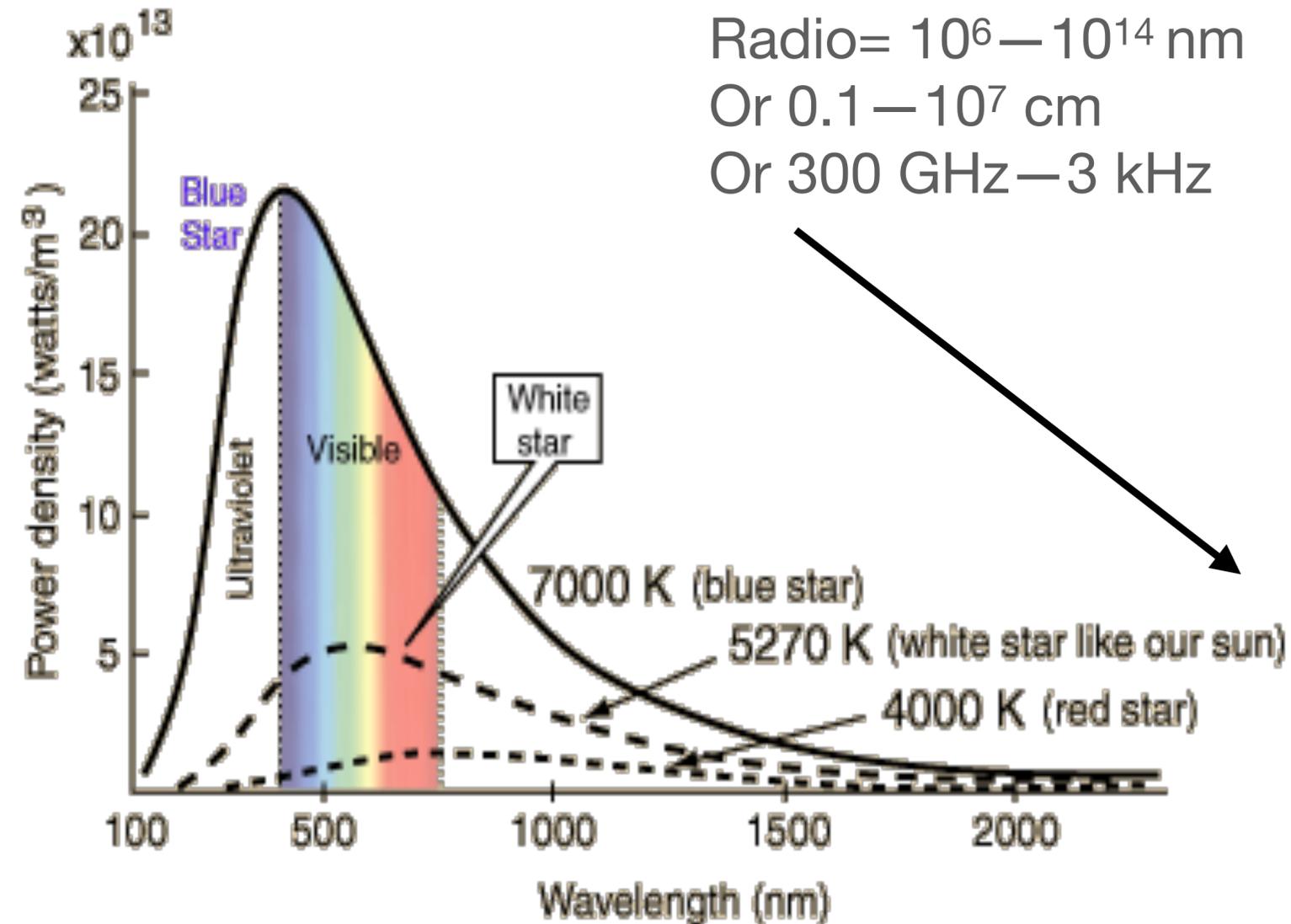
Inside stars:

- Matter is **dense and hot**
- Photons are constantly **absorbed and re-emitted**
- Radiation field reaches **thermal equilibrium**
- => **Blackbody**

Blackbody:

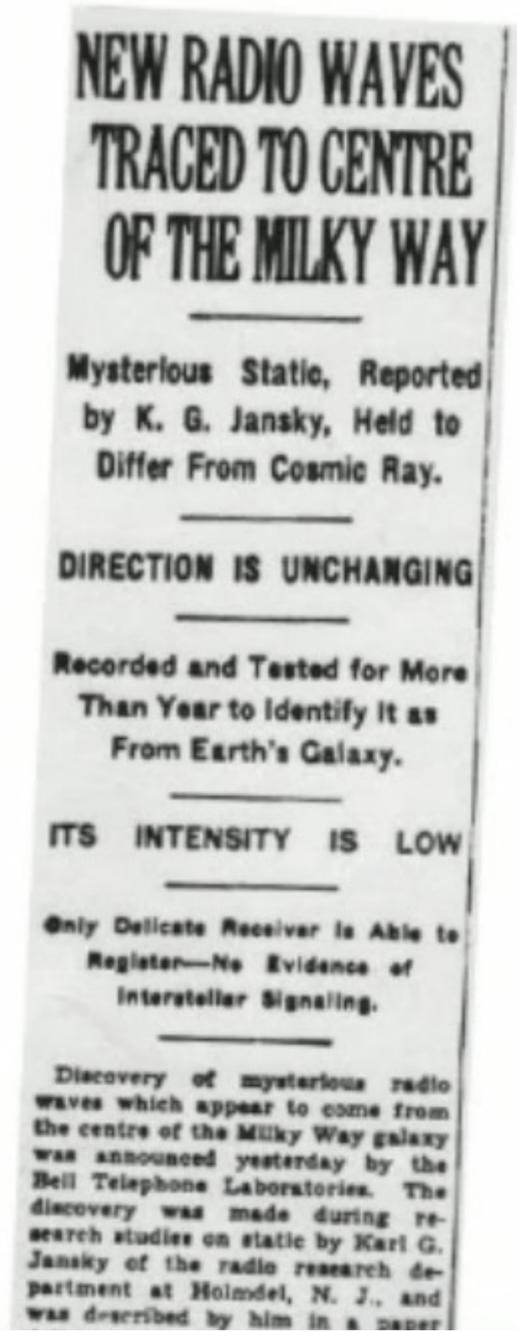
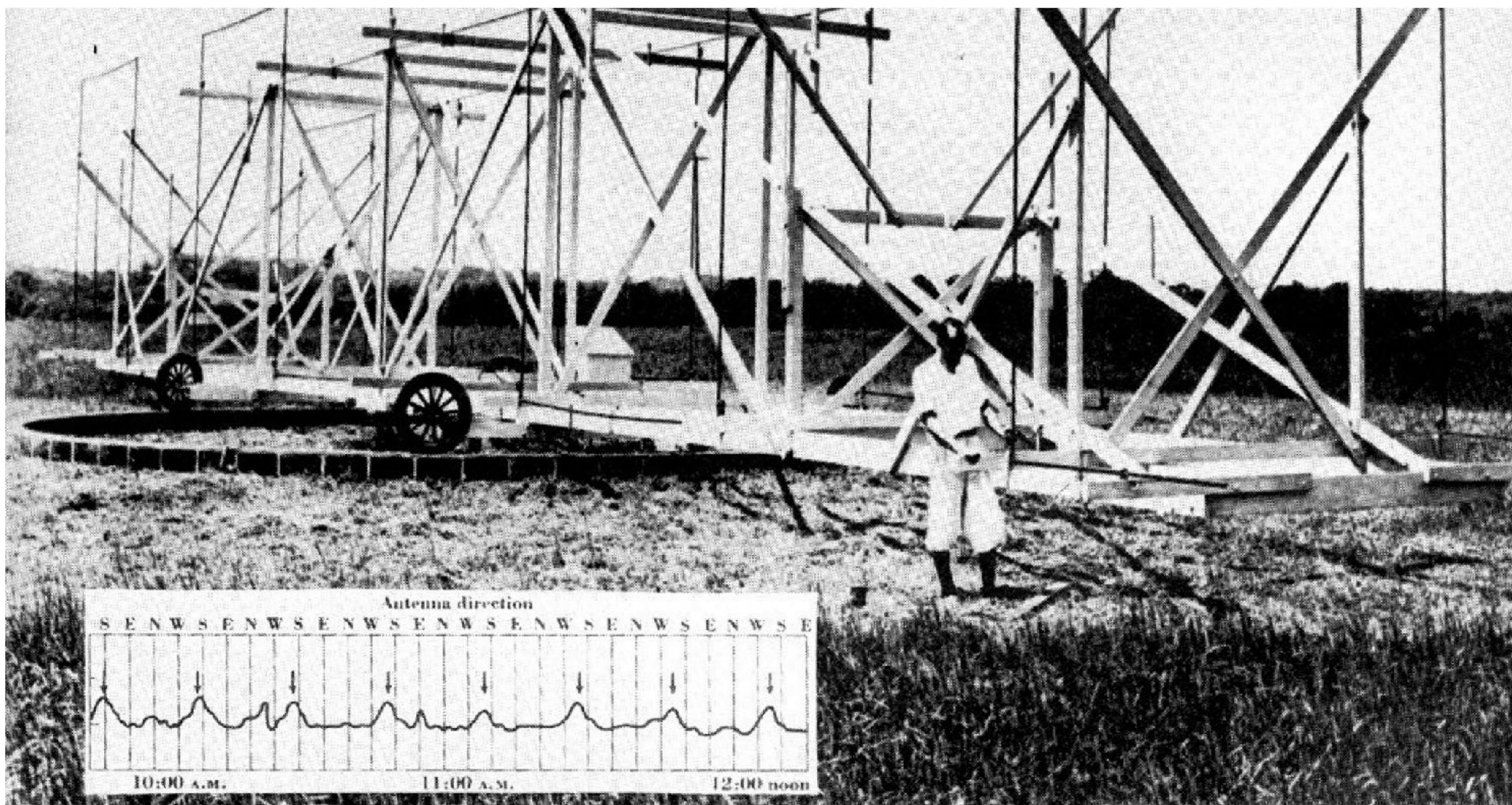
- absorbs all incoming radiation
- radiation emitted depends **only on its temperature**
- Hotter objects emit **more energy** and peak at **shorter wavelengths**
- Emitted spectrum follows **Planck's law**:

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



Credit: HyperPhysics

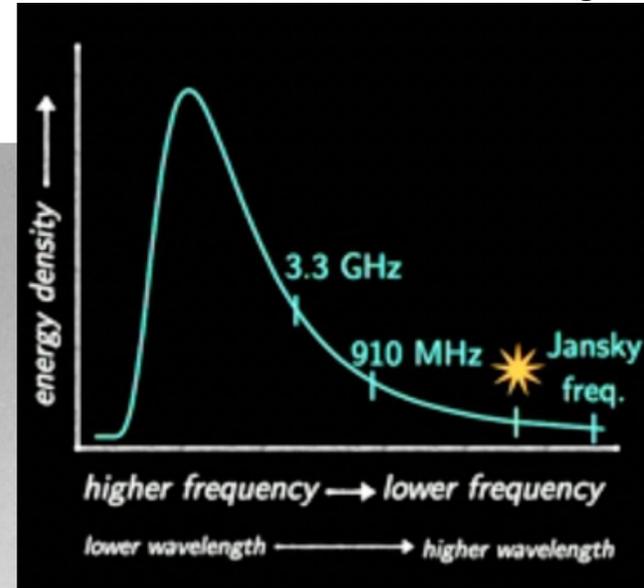
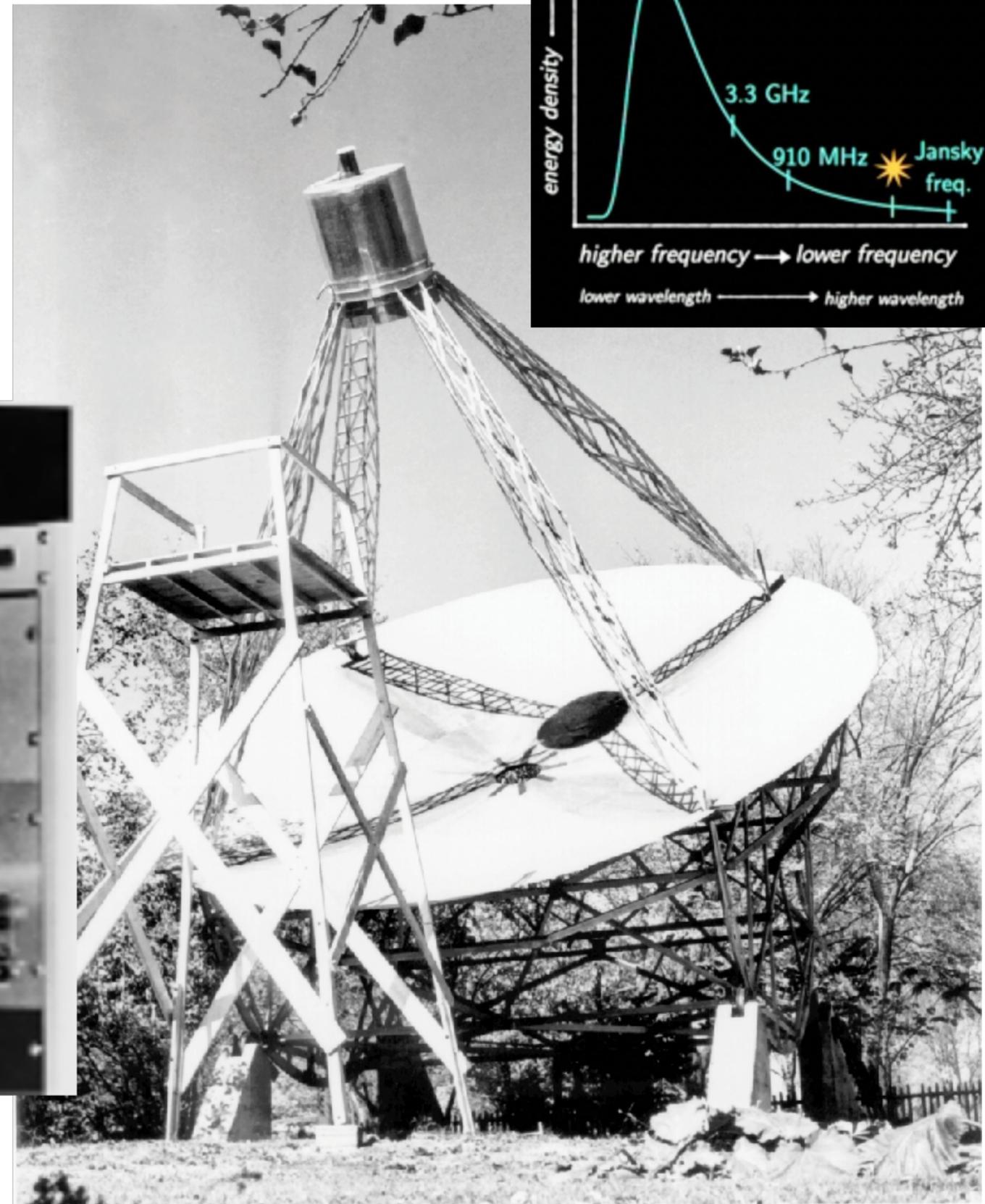
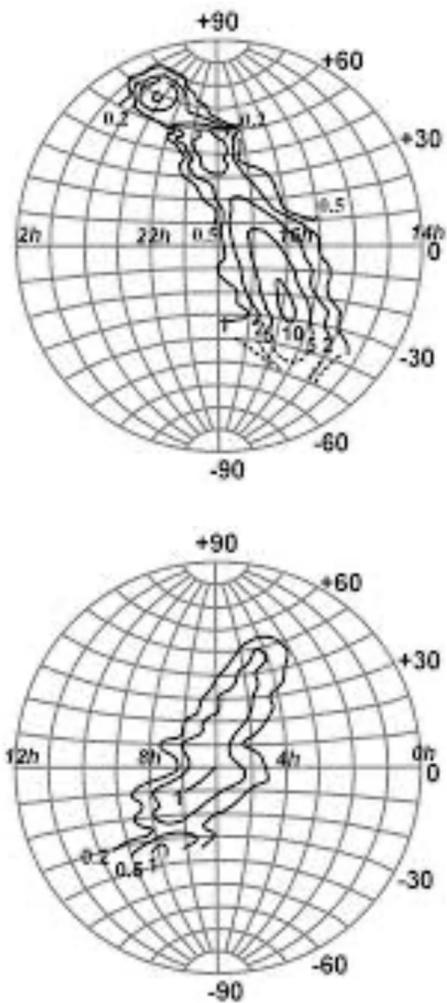
# First radio observation



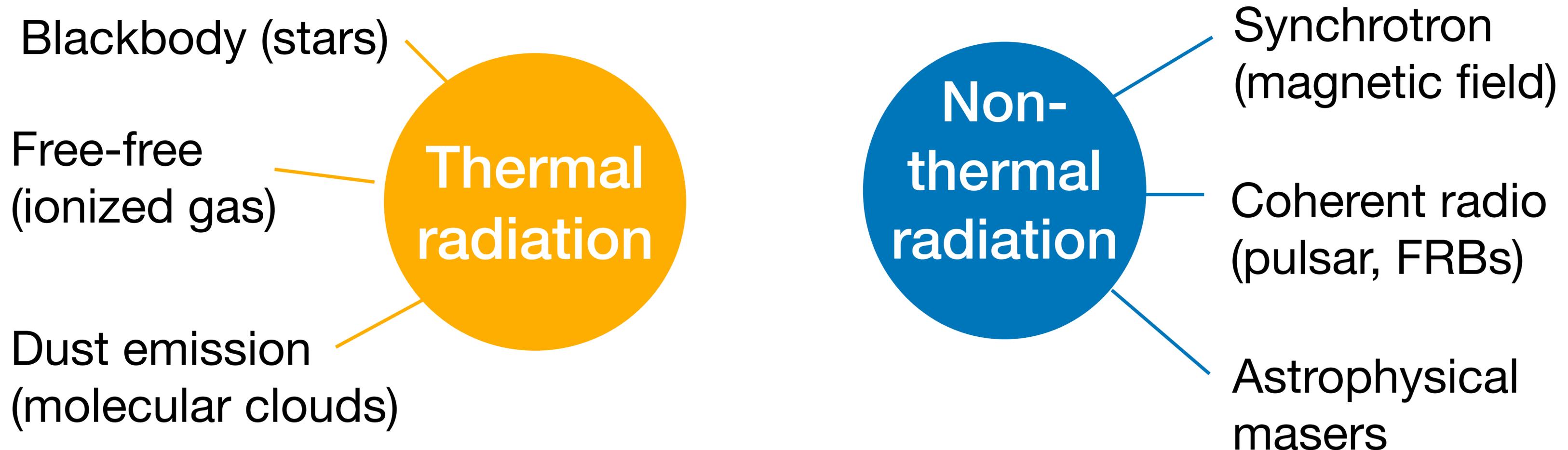
- **Karl Jansky** at Bell Labs discovered cosmic radio emission (1932)
- Photo: Azimuth rotating antenna (20.5 MHz), Holmdel, NJ
- $1 \text{ Jy} = 10^{-26} \text{ W m}^{-2} \text{ Hz}^{-1}$  (**flux density** = how much radio power from a source reaches a telescope per unit area and per unit freq)

# First deliberate radio observation

- 1944 **Grote Reber** an amateur astronomer
- Built 9-m parabolic dish at his parents' backyard, self-funded, designed and constructed by himself
- **First radio map of the Milky Way**



# What did Jansky and Reber detect in radio?

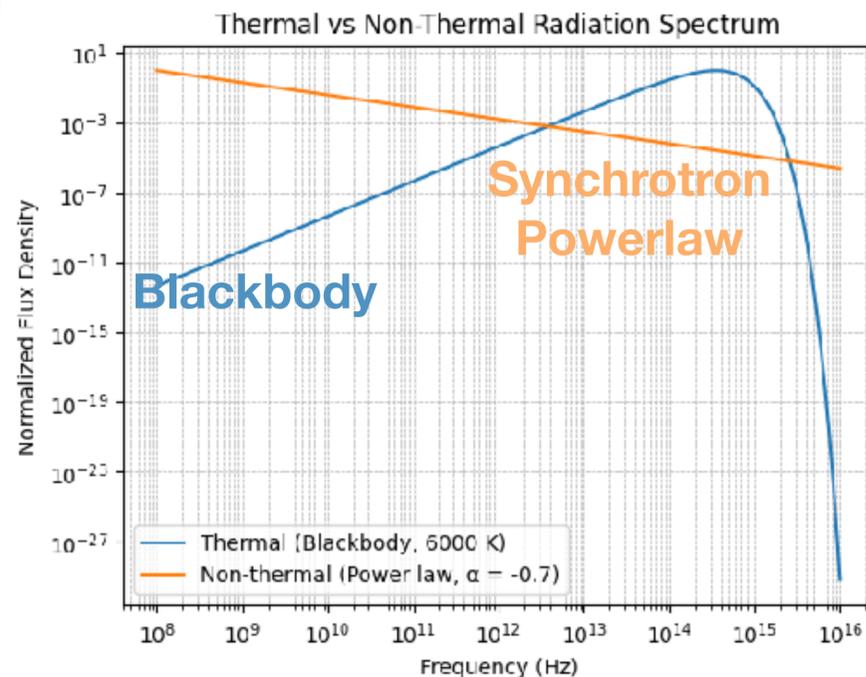
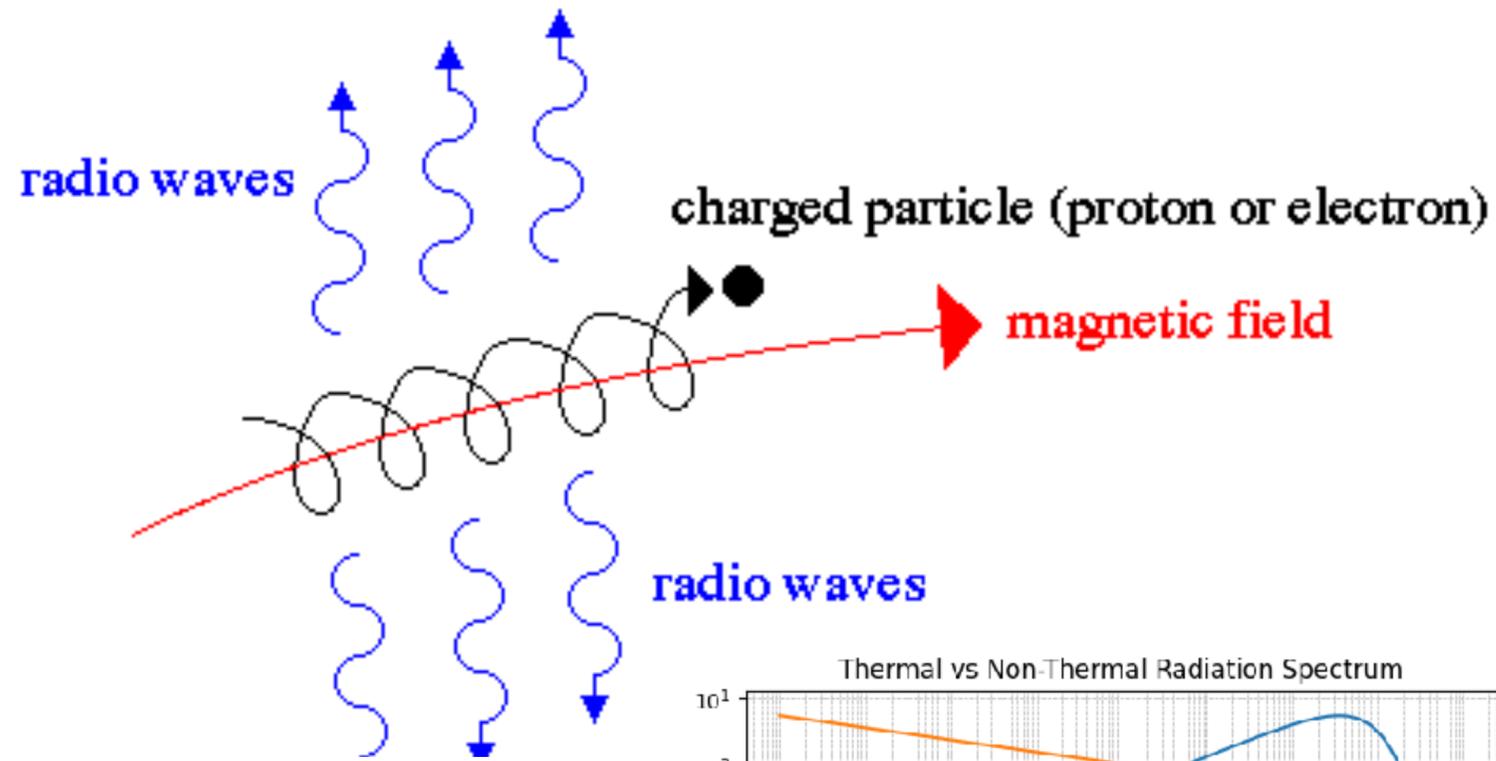


Thermal emission tells us about the **temperature** of matter, while non-thermal emission reveals particle **acceleration** and **energetic** processes.

# Synchrotron radiation

Credit: U Oregon / Encyclopedia Britannica

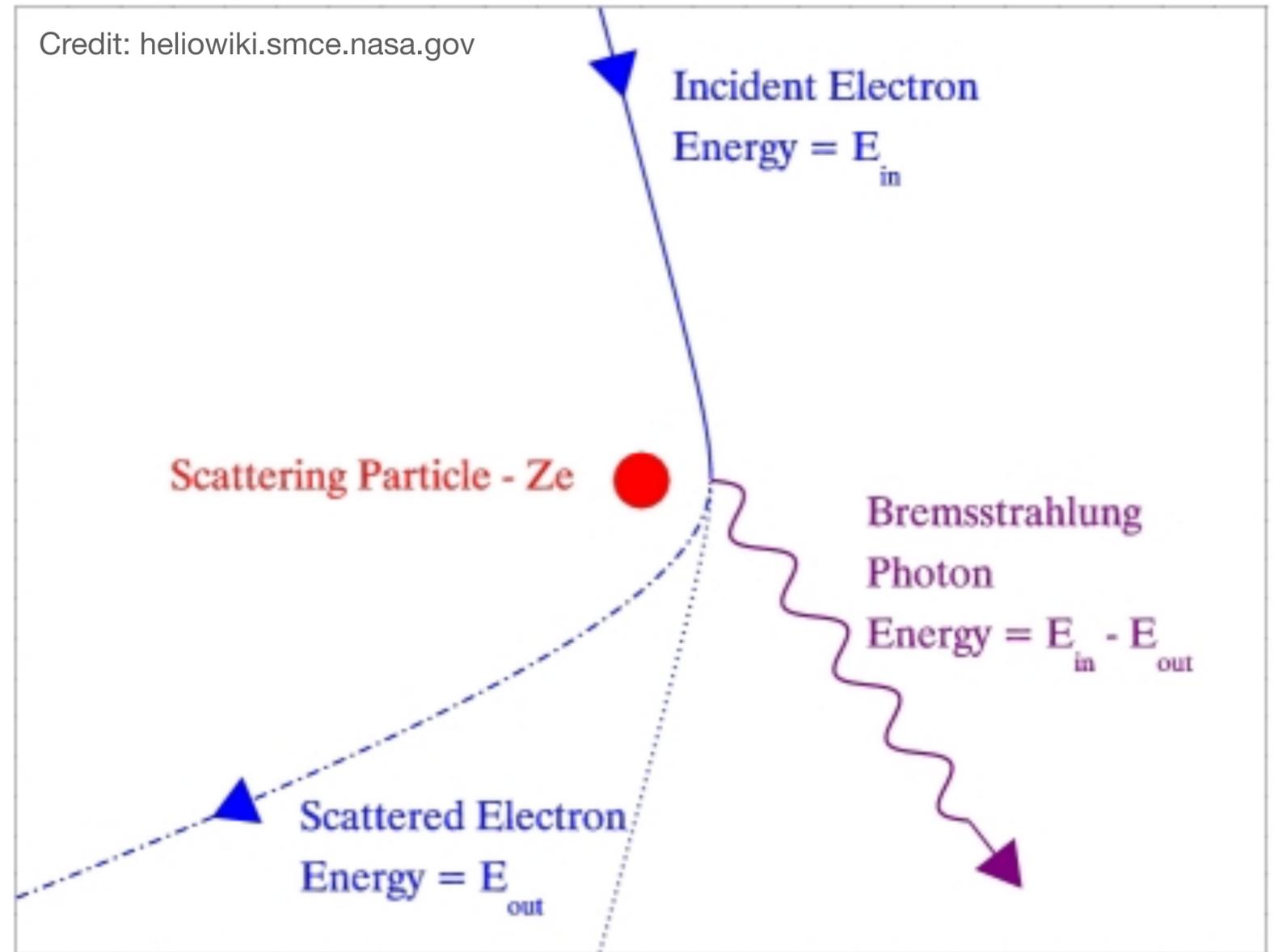
## Synchrotron radiation



- Relativistic electrons spiral around **magnetic field lines**.
- As the charged particle accelerates in the magnetic field, it emits radiation.
- Electrons move at **relativistic speeds**
- Radiation is beamed along the particle velocity
- Emission freq depends on electron energy and magnetic field
- $S_\nu \propto \nu^\alpha$  where  $\alpha$  is negative ( $-0.5$  to  $-1$ ) so decreases with freq and dominates low-free radio emissions

# Free-free (Bremsstrahlung)

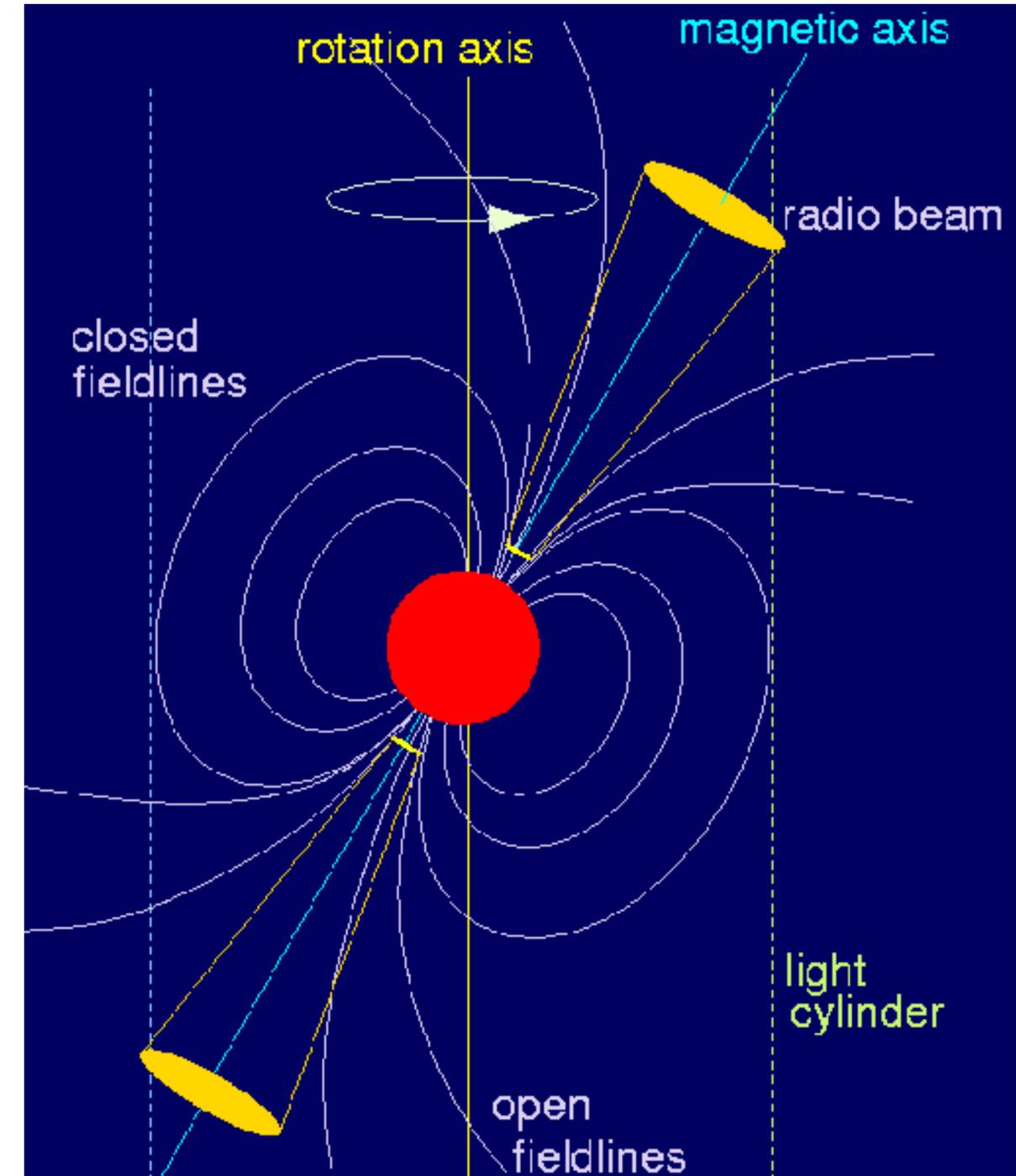
- An electron passing near an ion is **accelerated by the Coulomb force**. This acceleration causes the electron to radiate.
- The German name **Bremsstrahlung** means “braking radiation.”
- Occurs in ionized plasma
- Electrons are **thermal**
- $S_\nu \propto \nu^{-0.1}$  so flat compared to synchrotron



# Coherent emission

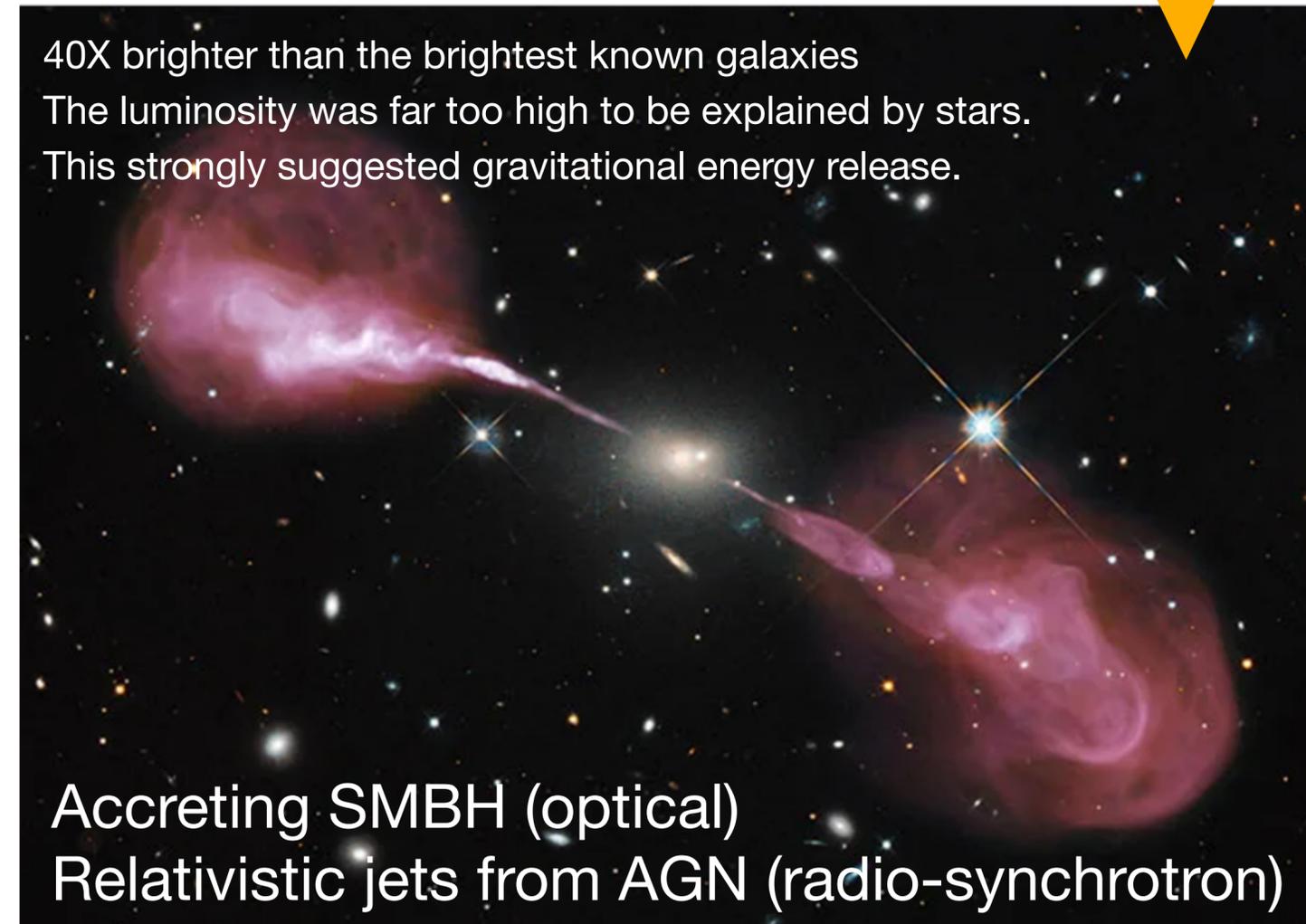
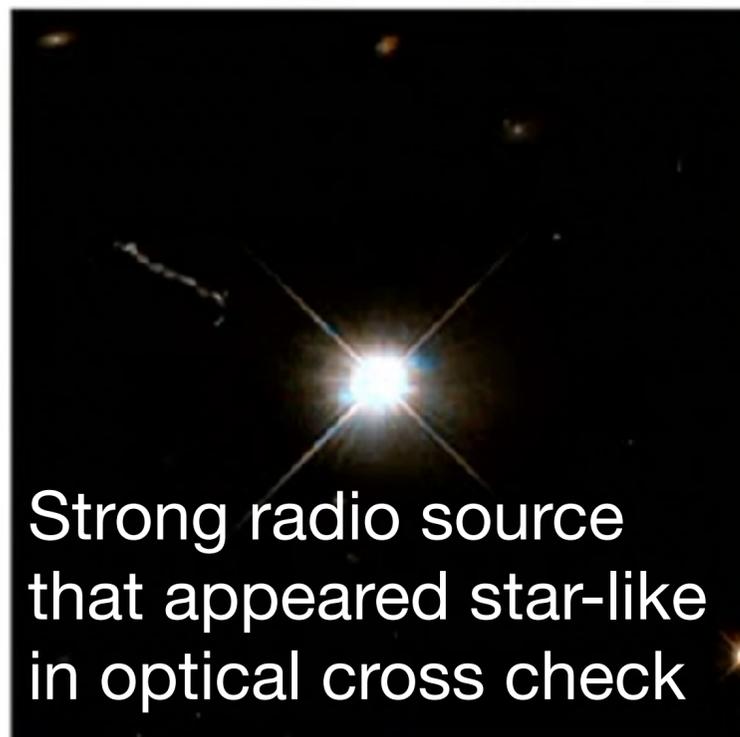
- Many charged particles radiate EM waves with a fixed phase relationship. Because the waves are **in phase**, they add constructively, producing a much stronger signal than if each particle radiated independently.
- Charge bunching, plasma instability
- Extremely high brightness temperature
- Why in radio?  
For coherence to occur, the emitting region must be **smaller than the wavelength** — easier in radio, bunches can be cm long.
- Properties:  
Often narrow-band or bursty and highly **polarized**

Credit: U Manchester

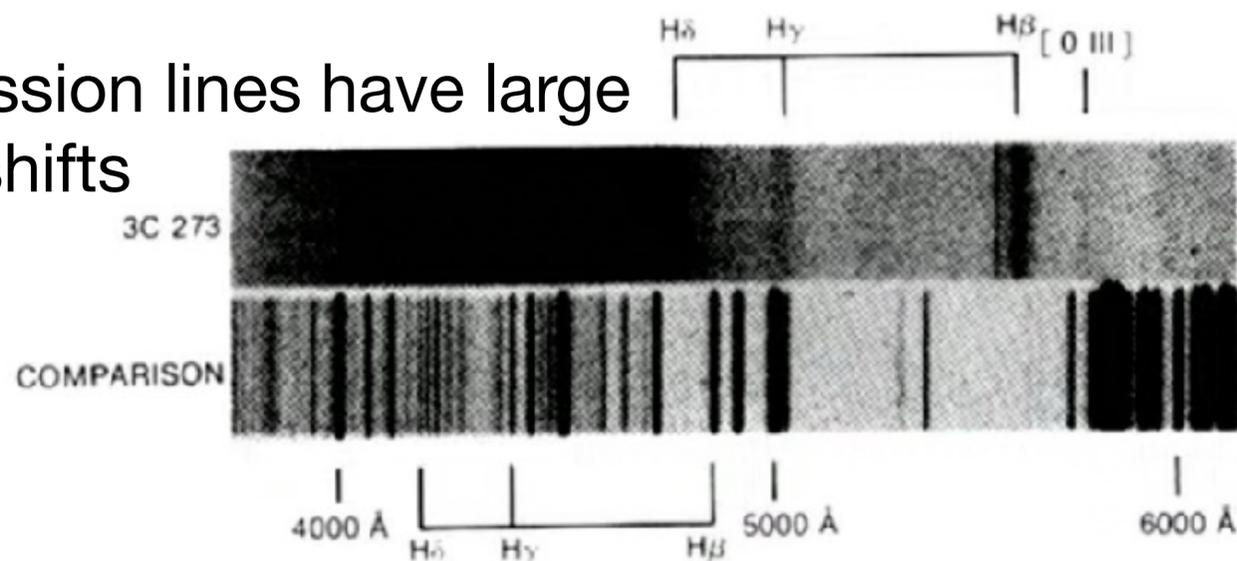


# Some good examples of radio observations

## Quasars and radio jets from AGN



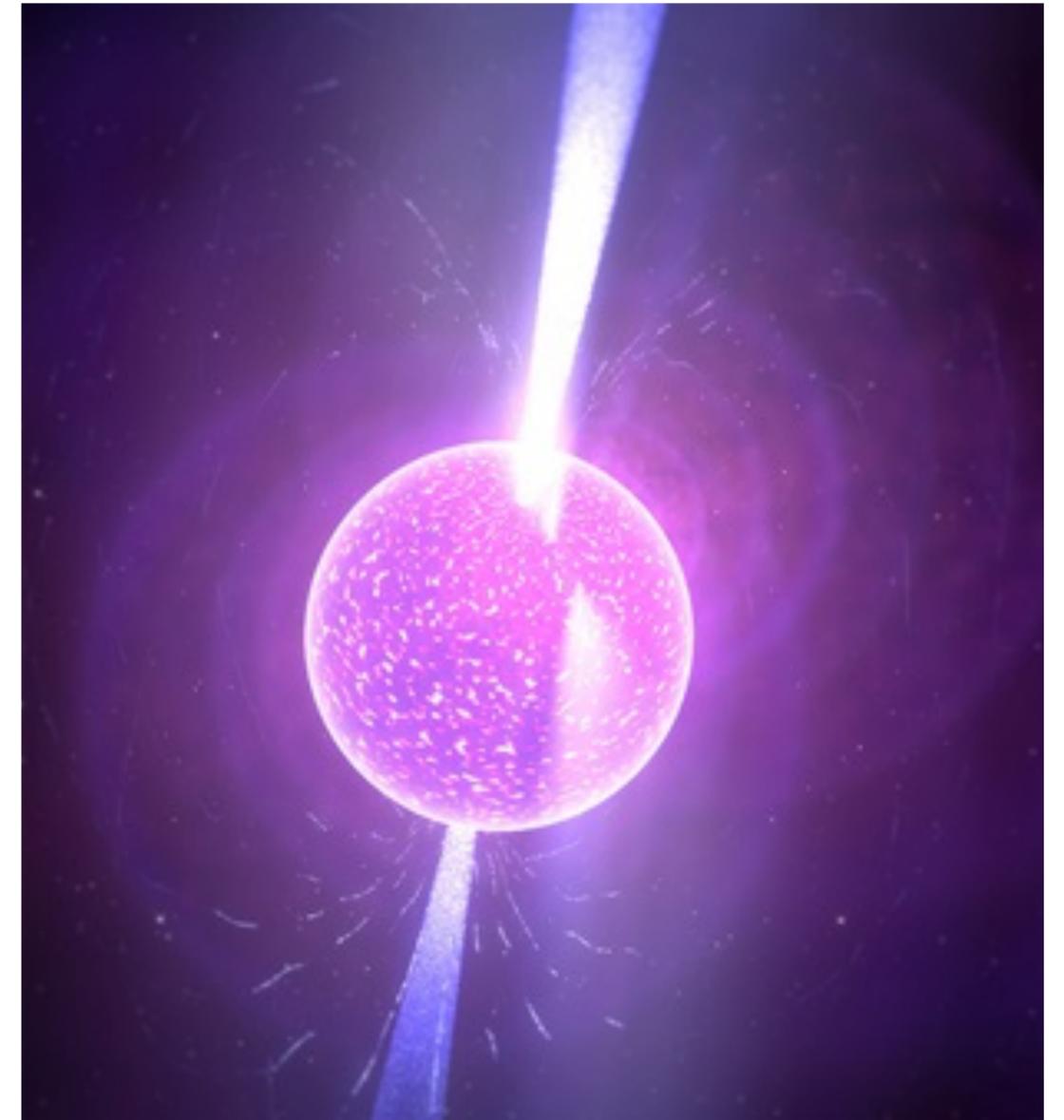
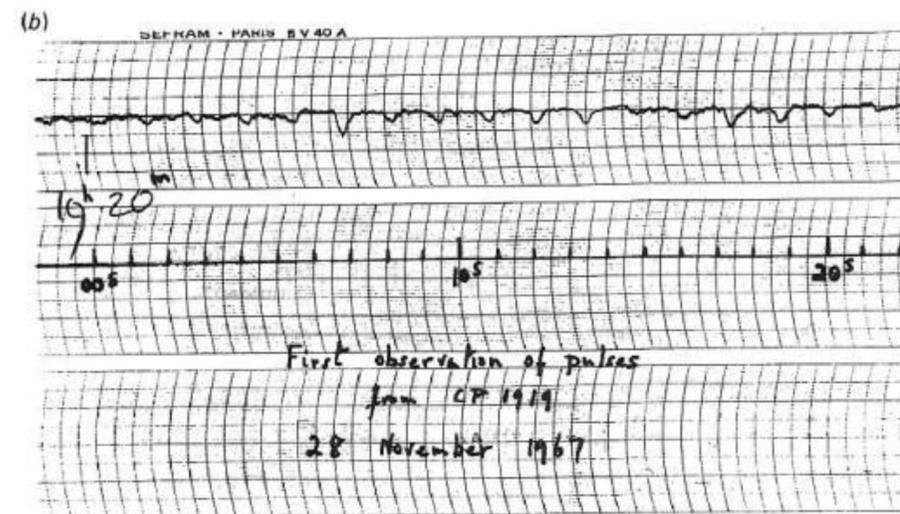
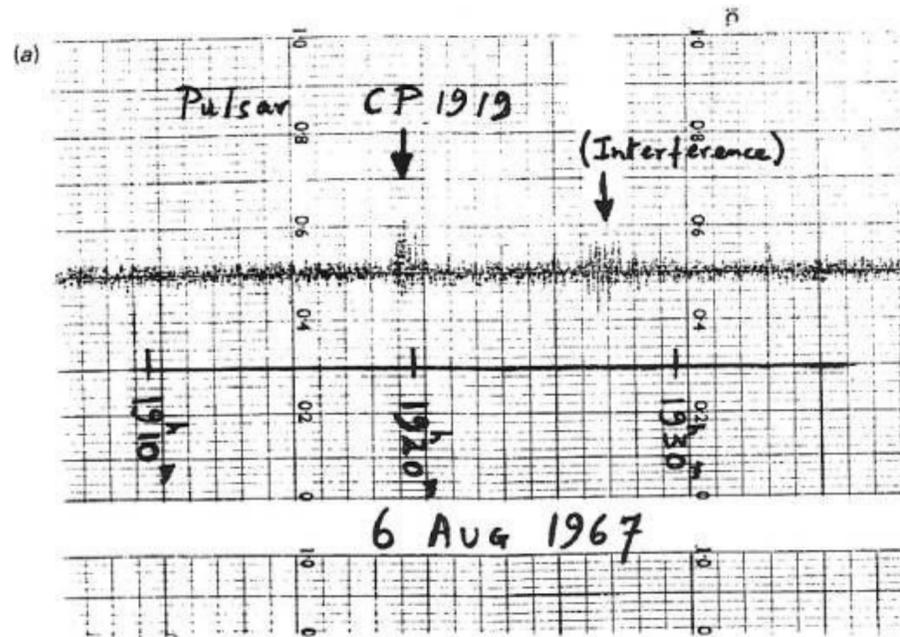
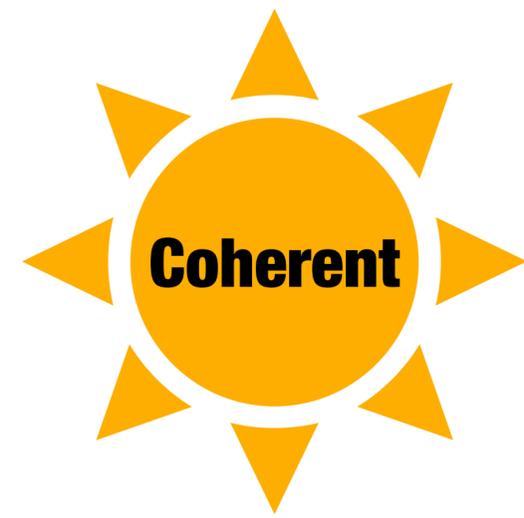
Emission lines have large redshifts



NASA, ESA, S. Baum and C. O'Dea (RIT), R. Perley and W. Cotton (NRAO/AUI/NSF), and the Hubble Heritage Team (STScI/AURA)

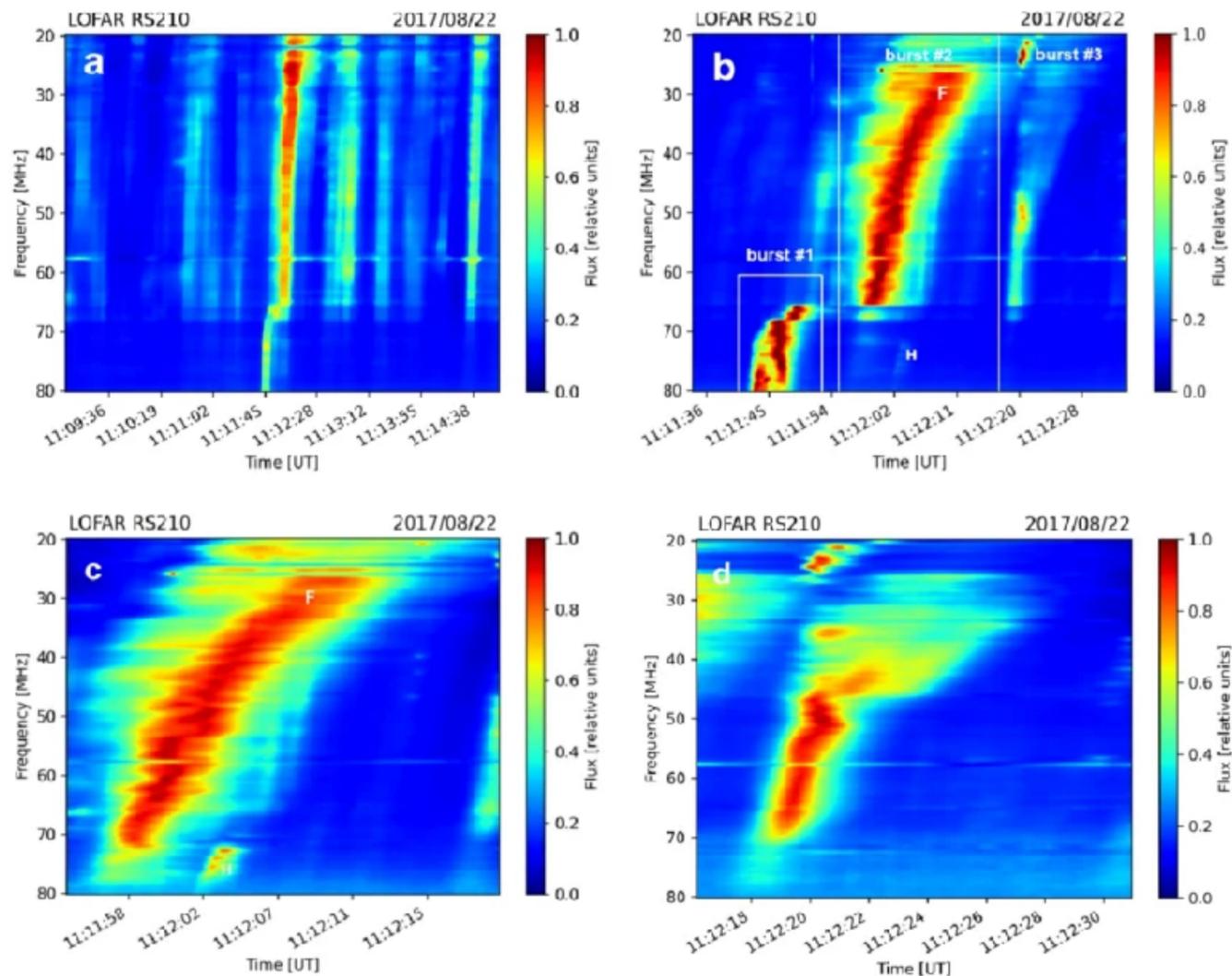
# Some good examples of radio observations

## Pulsars (see tomorrow's lecture)

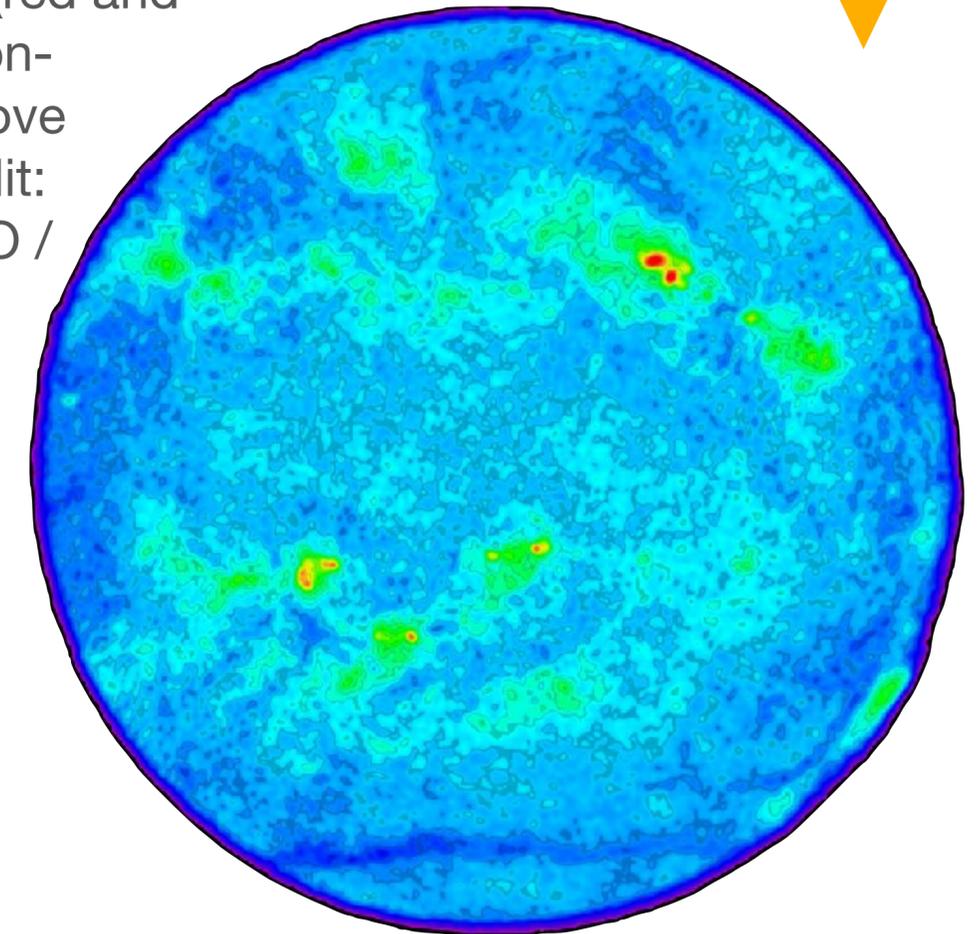


# Some good examples of radio observations

## Radio observations of the Sun



Bright regions (red and yellow) of million-degree gas above sunspots. Credit: Courtesy NRAO / AUI / NSF



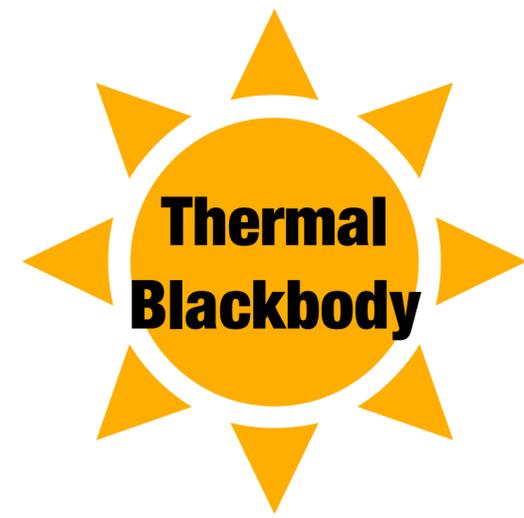
Credit: [Dabrowski et al., 2017](#)

Solar bursts — coherent emission due to plasma instabilities in corona

Quiet sun — free-free radiation maps density and temperature of the corona

# Some good examples of radio observations

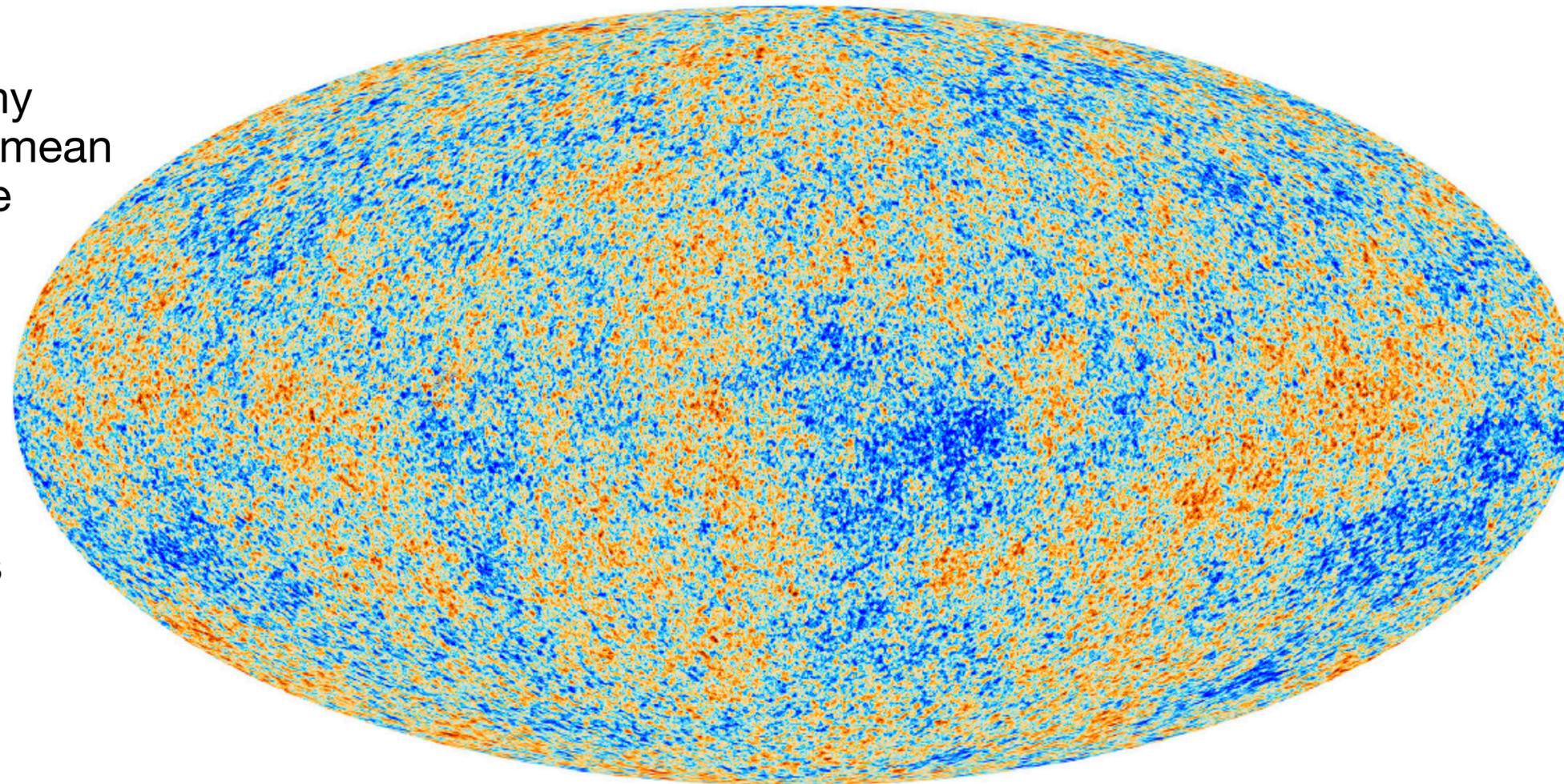
## Cosmic Microwave Background



CMB maps show tiny deviations from the mean temperature, not the temperature itself.

Red=slightly hotter  
=denser regions

Blue=slightly colder  
=less dense regions



[Stars] Hot but tiny source  
→ weak radio flux

[CMB] Cold but everywhere  
→ strong signal

$$F_{\nu} = I_{\nu} \times \Omega$$

- Discovered accidentally in 1965 by Arno Penzias and Robert Wilson (Noble prize 1978)
- Afterglow of the early universe (today  $T \approx 2.725$  K)
- The discovery provided the strongest evidence for the Big Bang (380,000 years ago).

# Some good examples of radio observations

## Radar mapping of the Moon

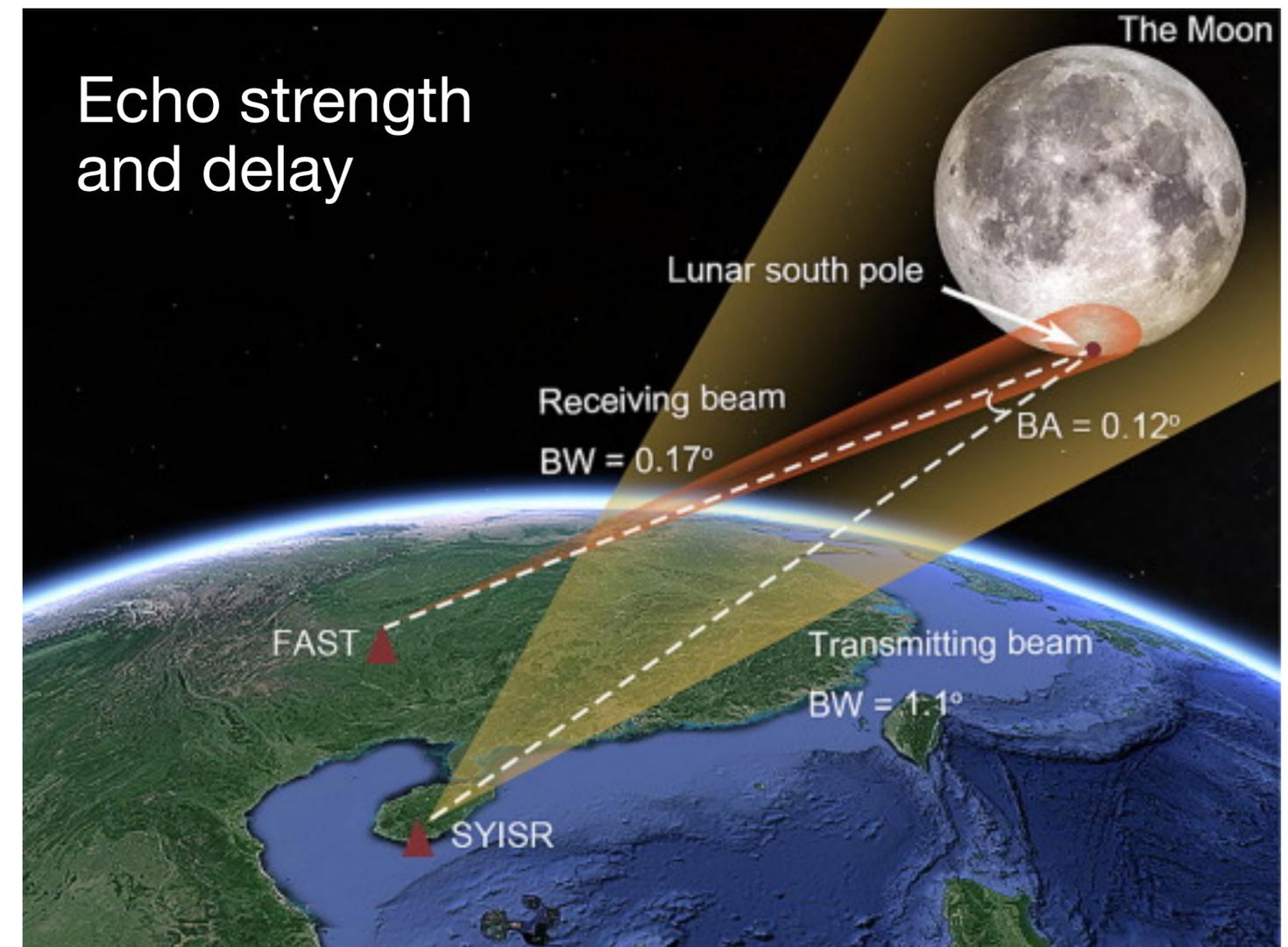
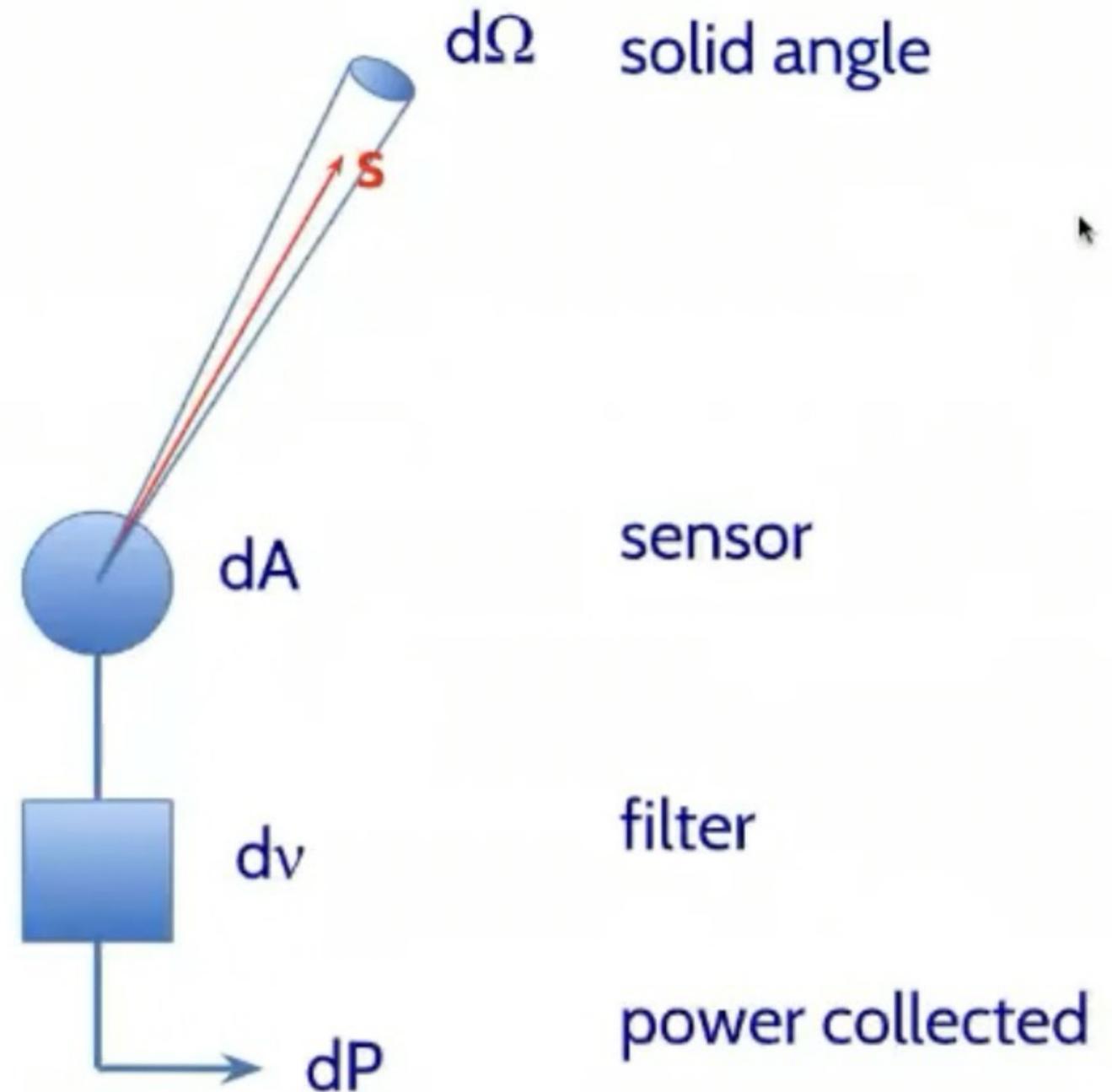


Diagram of the observation geometry for the Sanya incoherent scatter radar (SYISR) and five-hundred-meter aperture spherical radio telescope (FAST) Earth-based bistatic radar lunar imaging experiments. Credit: Li et al (10.1016/j.scib.2025.02.033)

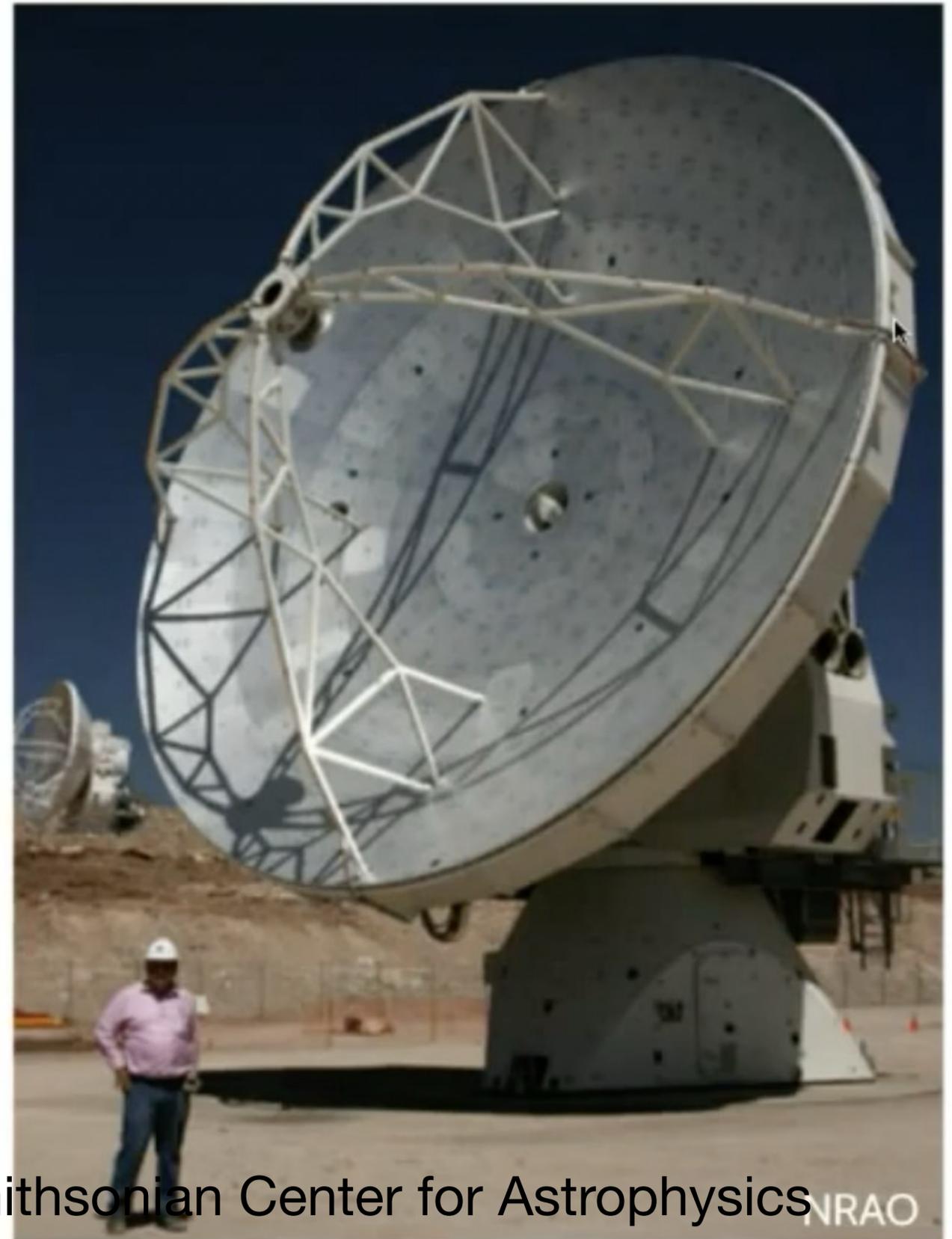
# What makes a good radio telescope?

- consider a distant source of emission of intensity  $I_\nu$
- power from this emission passes through an (isotropic) sensor
- the increment of power,  $dP$ , is
$$dP = I_\nu d\nu dA d\Omega \quad [\text{Watts}]$$
- the total power received is a suitable integral over frequency, area, and angle, accounting for variations in the responses

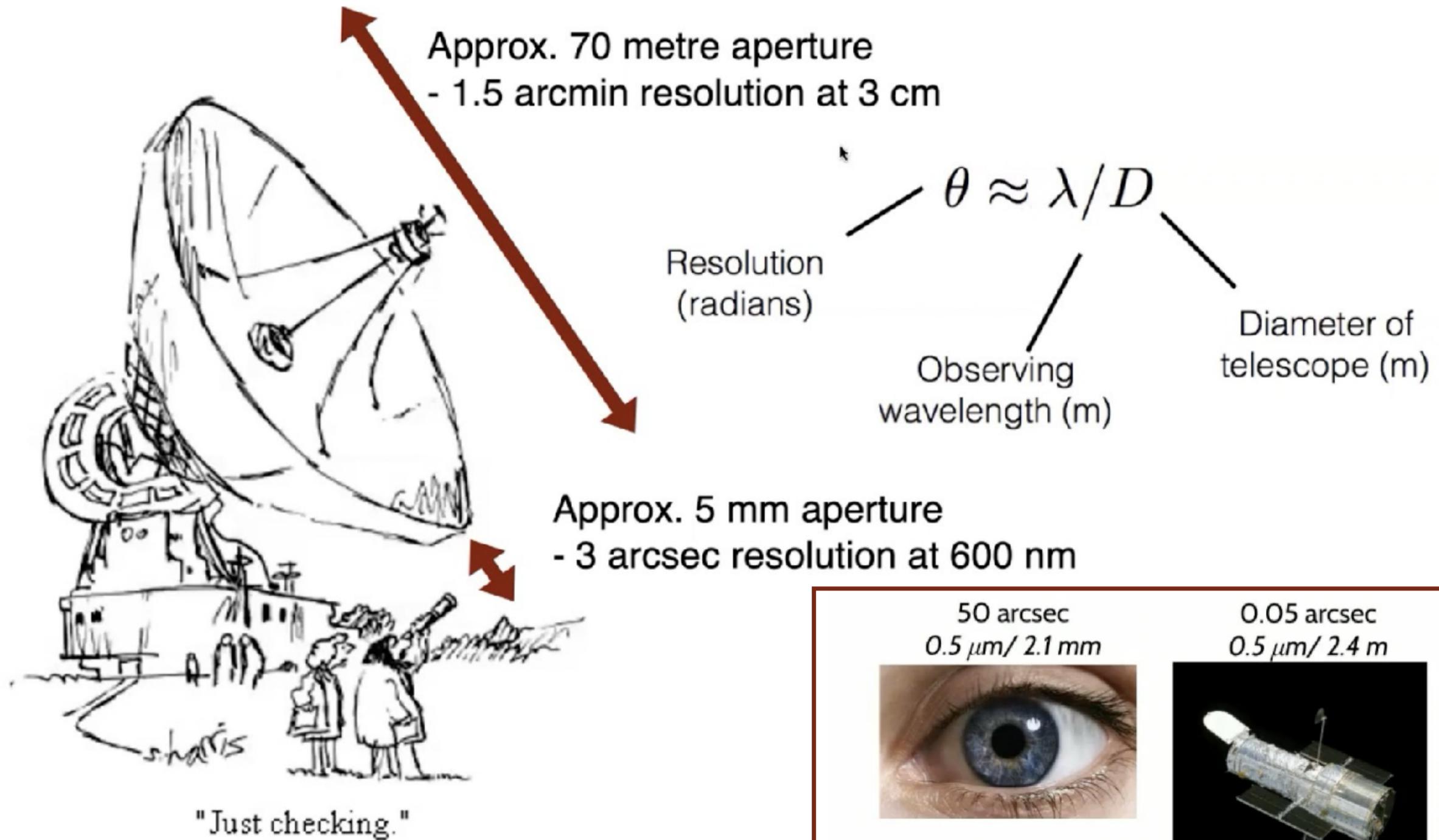


# What makes a good radio telescope?

- **parabolic:** primary mirror is a focusing paraboloid with high directional gain
- **steerable:** antenna can move in two angular directions to track sources across the sky
- **cassegrain focus:** secondary mirror (subreflector) in front of focus of primary focuses radio waves to a receiver located behind the primary
- **on-axis:** antenna axis same as optical axis (antennas is symmetric)
- **receiver:** waveguide horn and a cryogenically cooled amplifier
- many variations are possible



# What makes a good radio telescope? → Diffraction limit & Angular resolution



# What makes a good radio telescope? → Sensitivity

$$SEFD = \frac{2kT_{sys}}{A_e}$$

System equivalent flux density

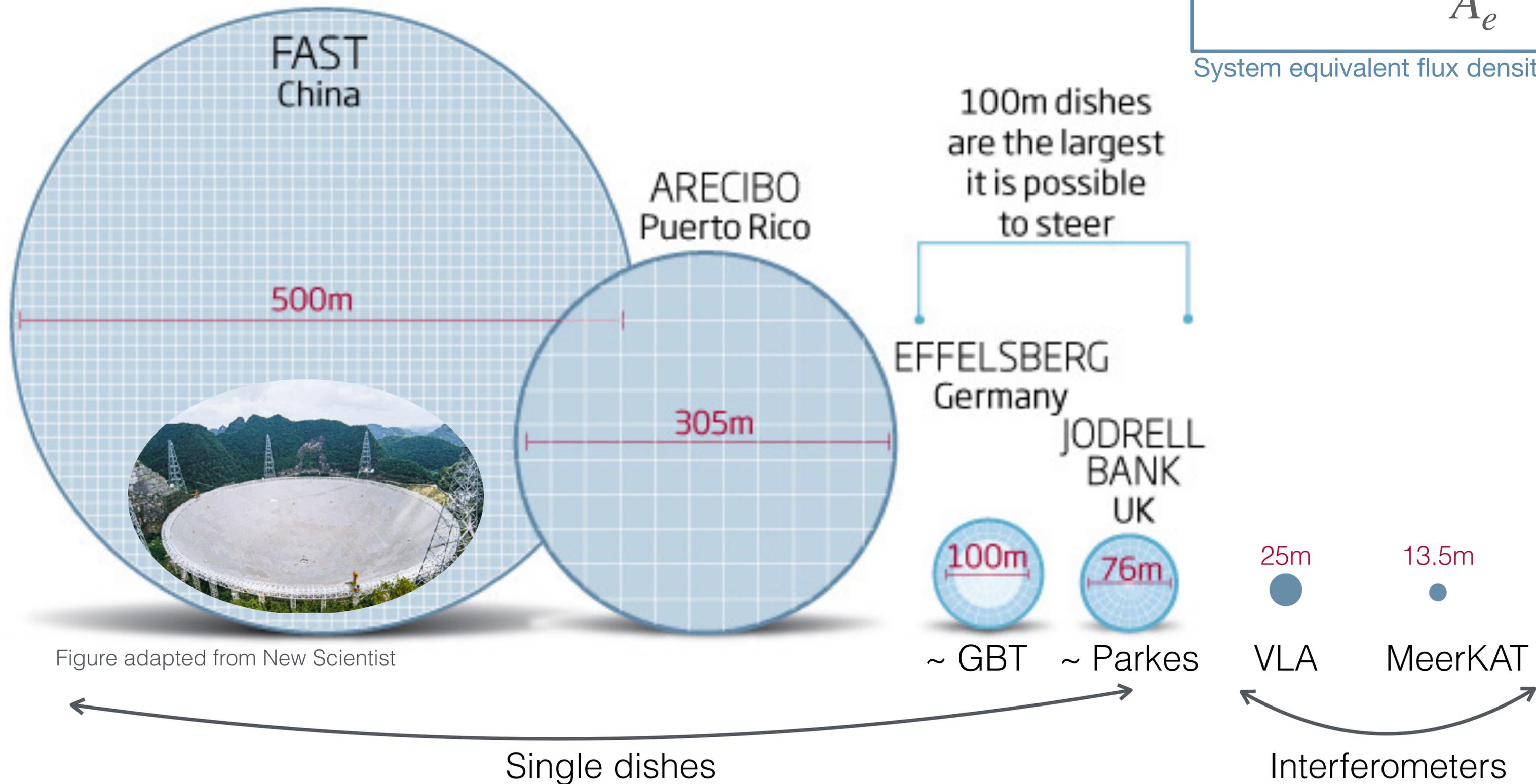


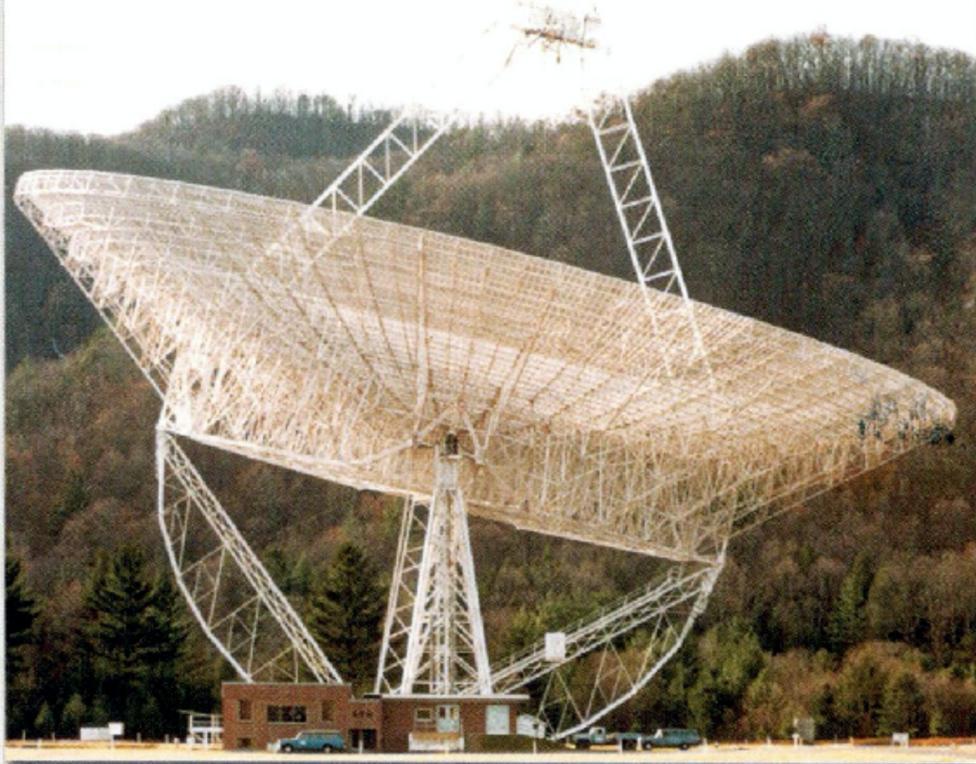
Figure adapted from New Scientist

Single dishes

Interferometers

# Engineering challenge

Tuesday, November 15th, 1988



Wednesday, November 16th, 1988



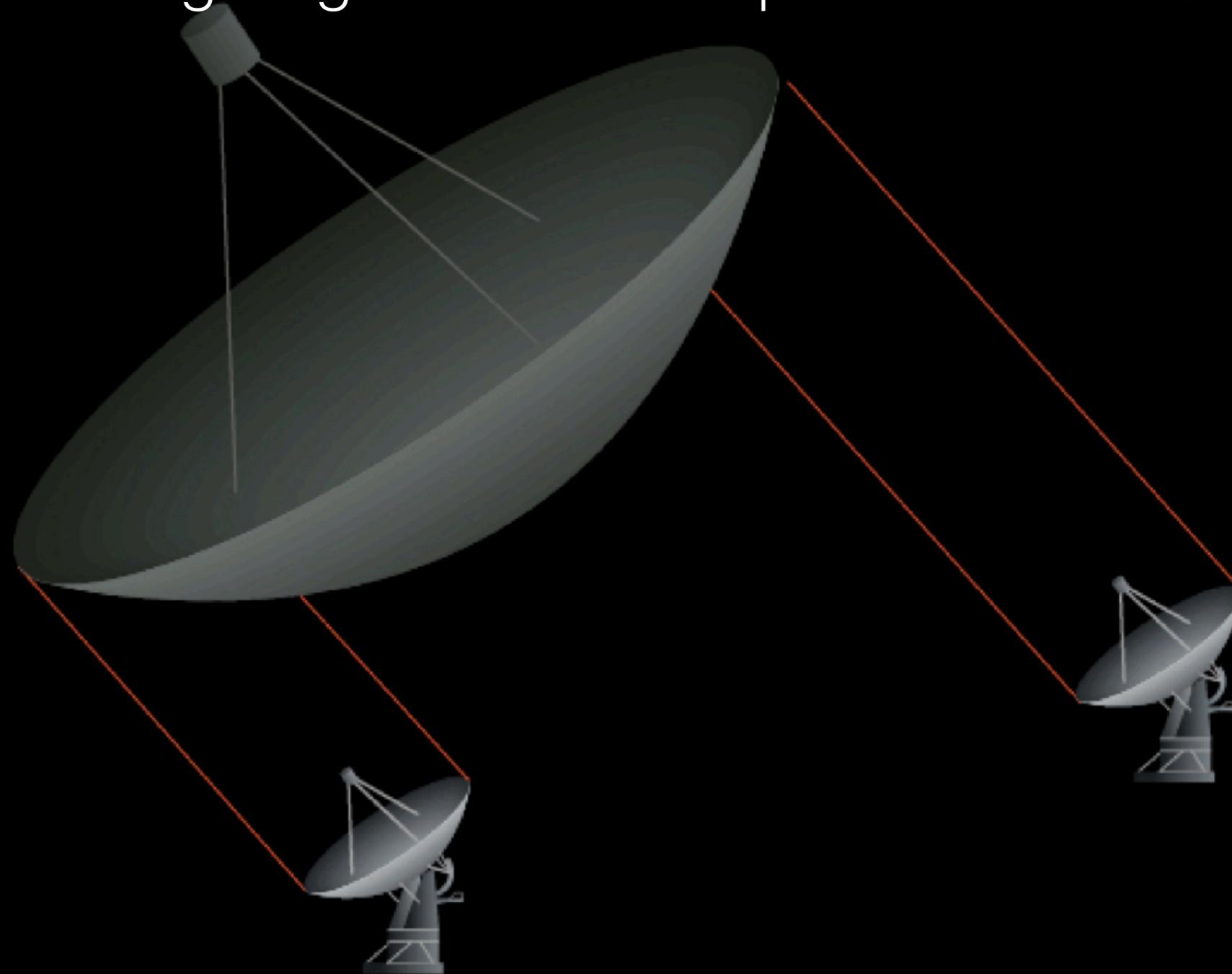
Green Bank 100m

Arecibo 305m

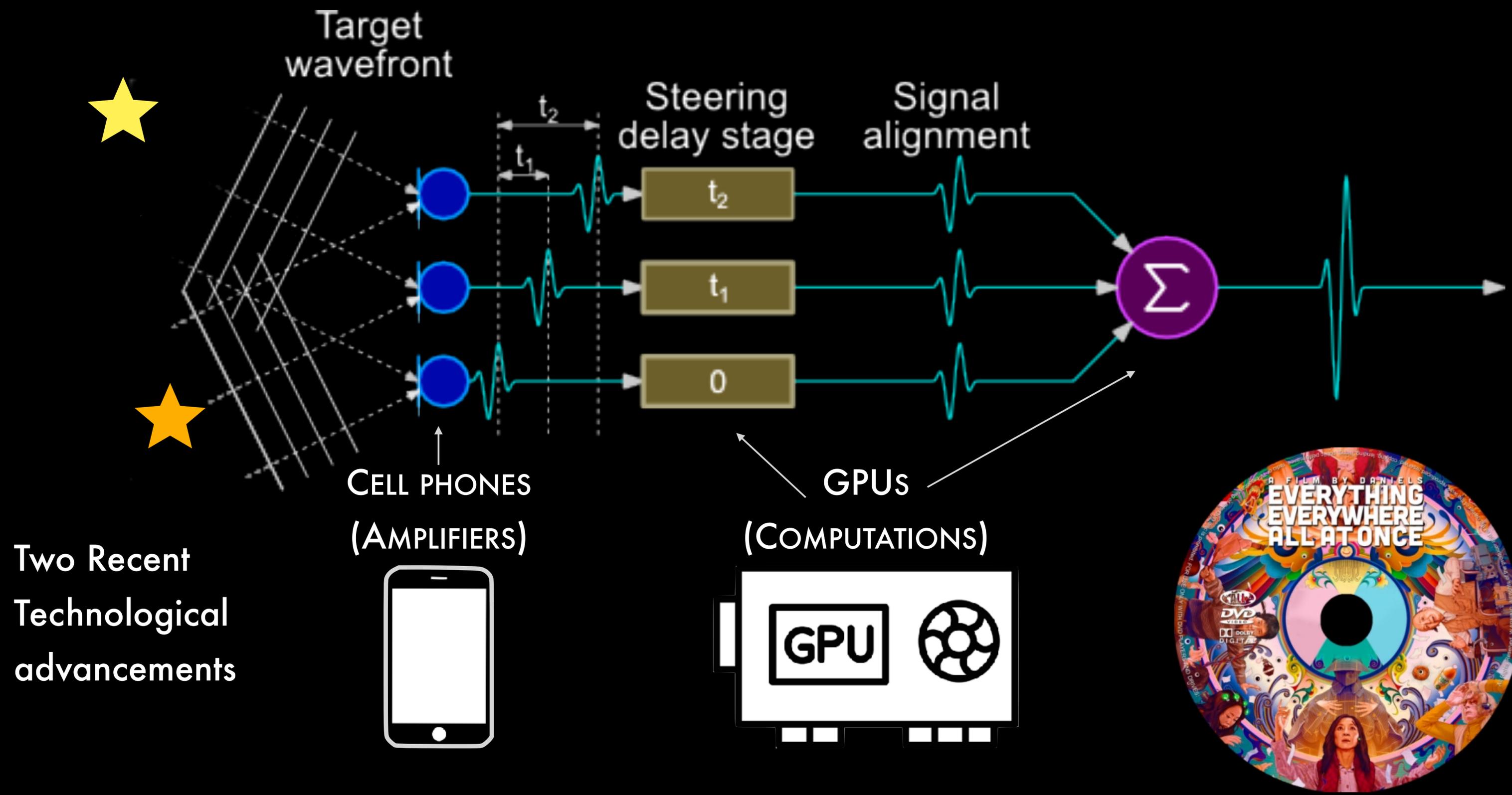


# Interferometer

Synthesize a big single dish telescope from lots of small ones.



# RADIO INTERFEROMETER



# FIELD OF VIEW

$$\text{FWHM} = 1.22 \times \frac{\lambda}{D}$$

← Wavelength  
← Dish diameter

		Dish diameter (m)	FWHM at 1GHz (deg)
Single dish	Green Bank	105	0,2
	Parkes	64	0,3
Interferometers	VLA	25	0,8
	MeerKAT	13,5	1,5

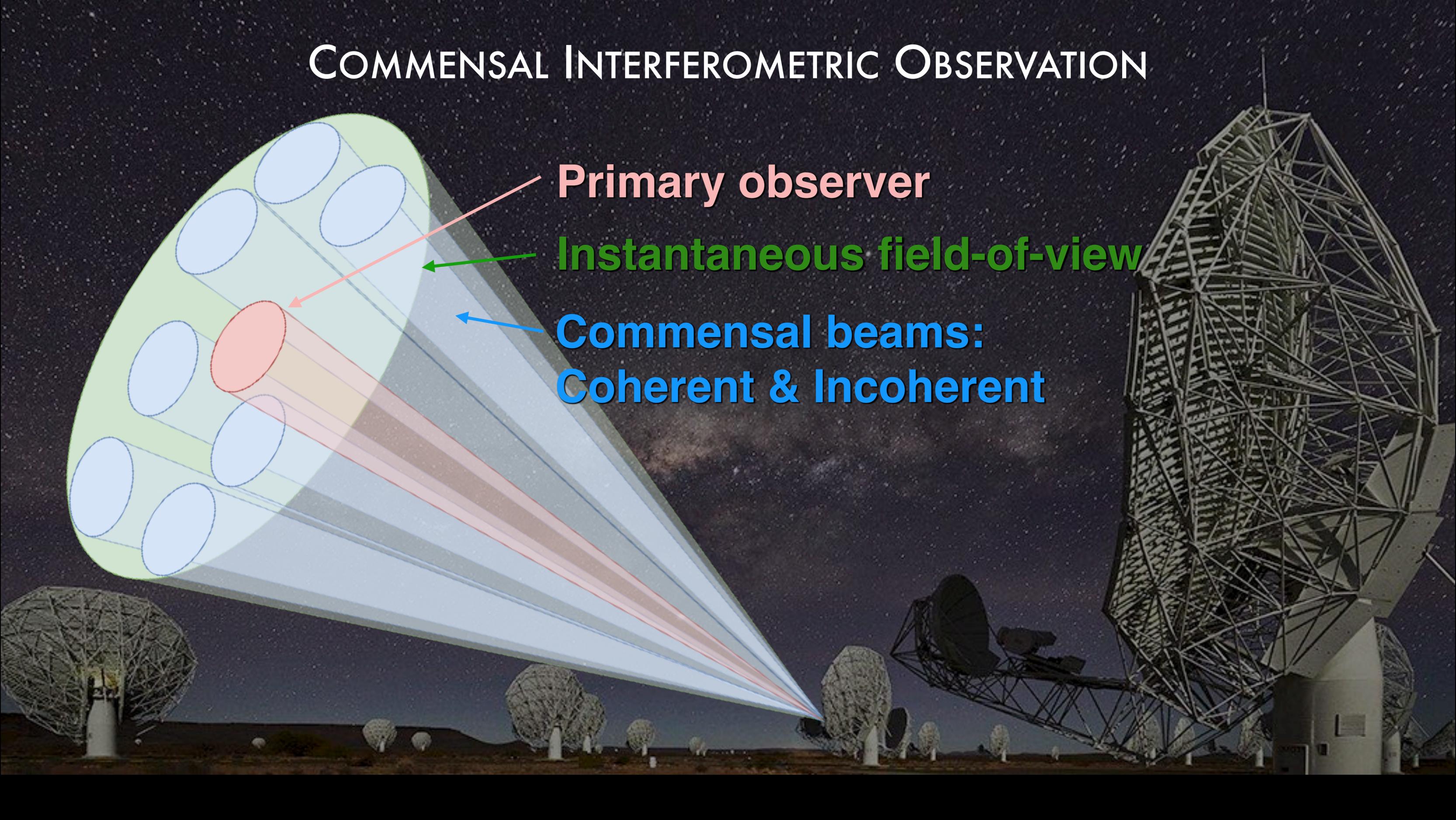
Interferometers have smaller antennas which also means larger instantaneous field-of-view.

# COMMENSAL INTERFEROMETRIC OBSERVATION

**Primary observer**

**Instantaneous field-of-view**

**Commensal beams:  
Coherent & Incoherent**



# (Reverse of) Young's double slit experiment

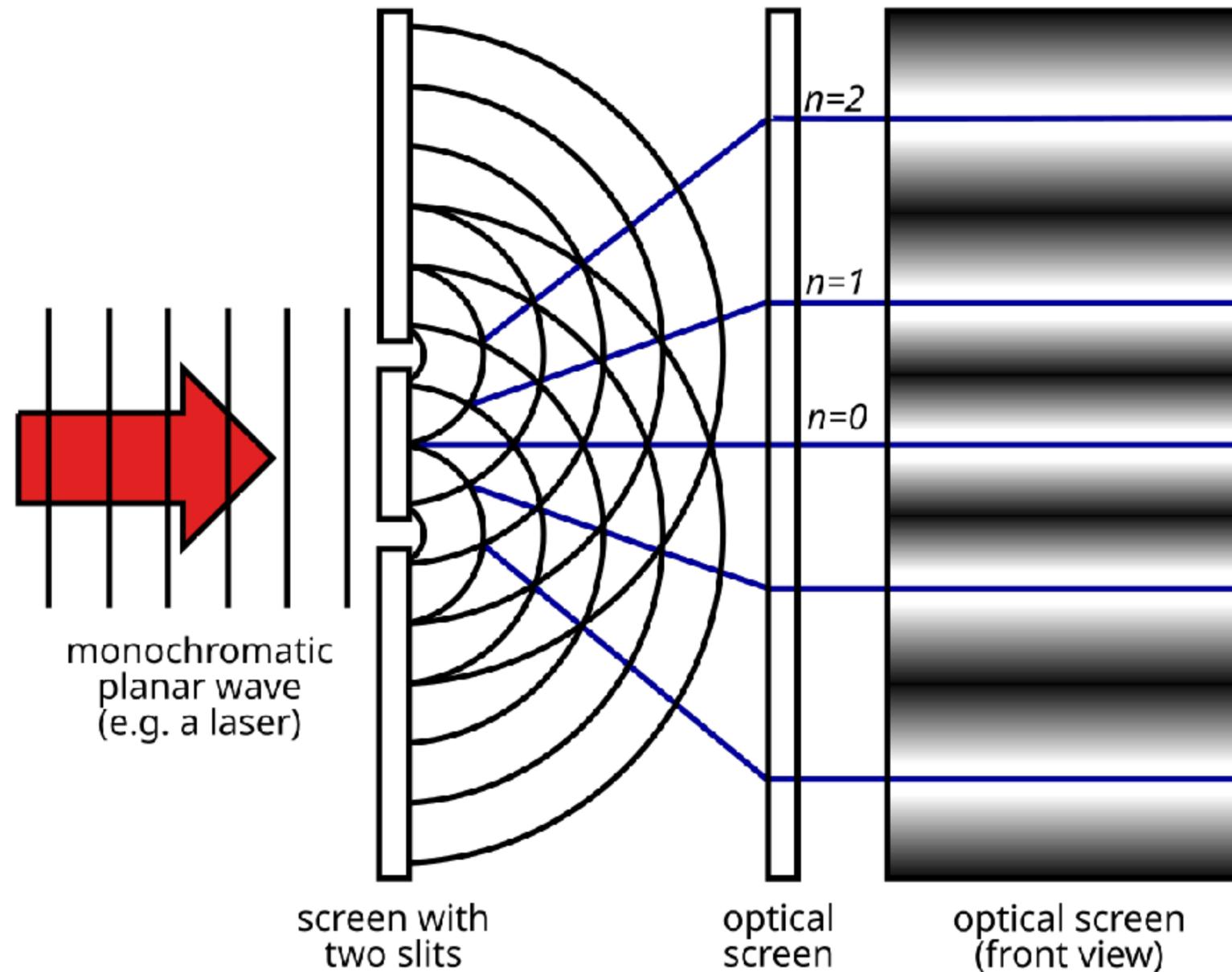
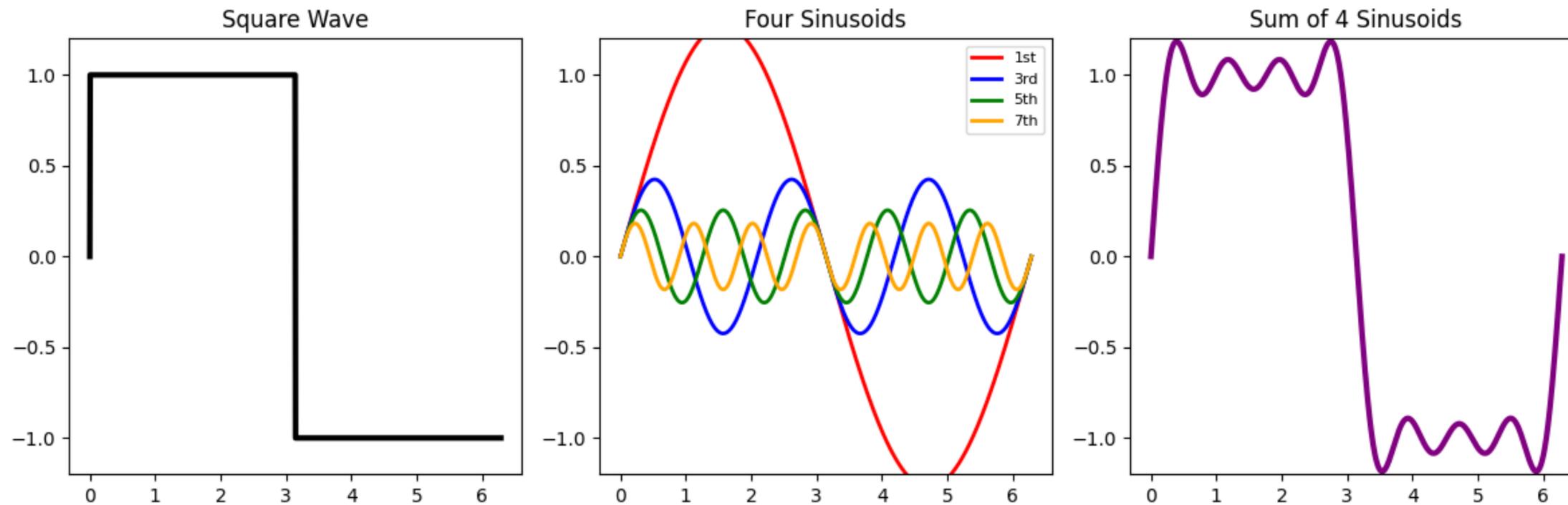


Image credit:  
wikipedia

- Two slits = a pair of antennas  $\rightarrow$  One baseline
- Correlation  $\rightarrow$  visibility = measures the strength and phase of one sinusoidal spatial pattern on the sky (one Fourier component of the sky brightness)

# Fourier transform - mathematical tool to decompose a signal

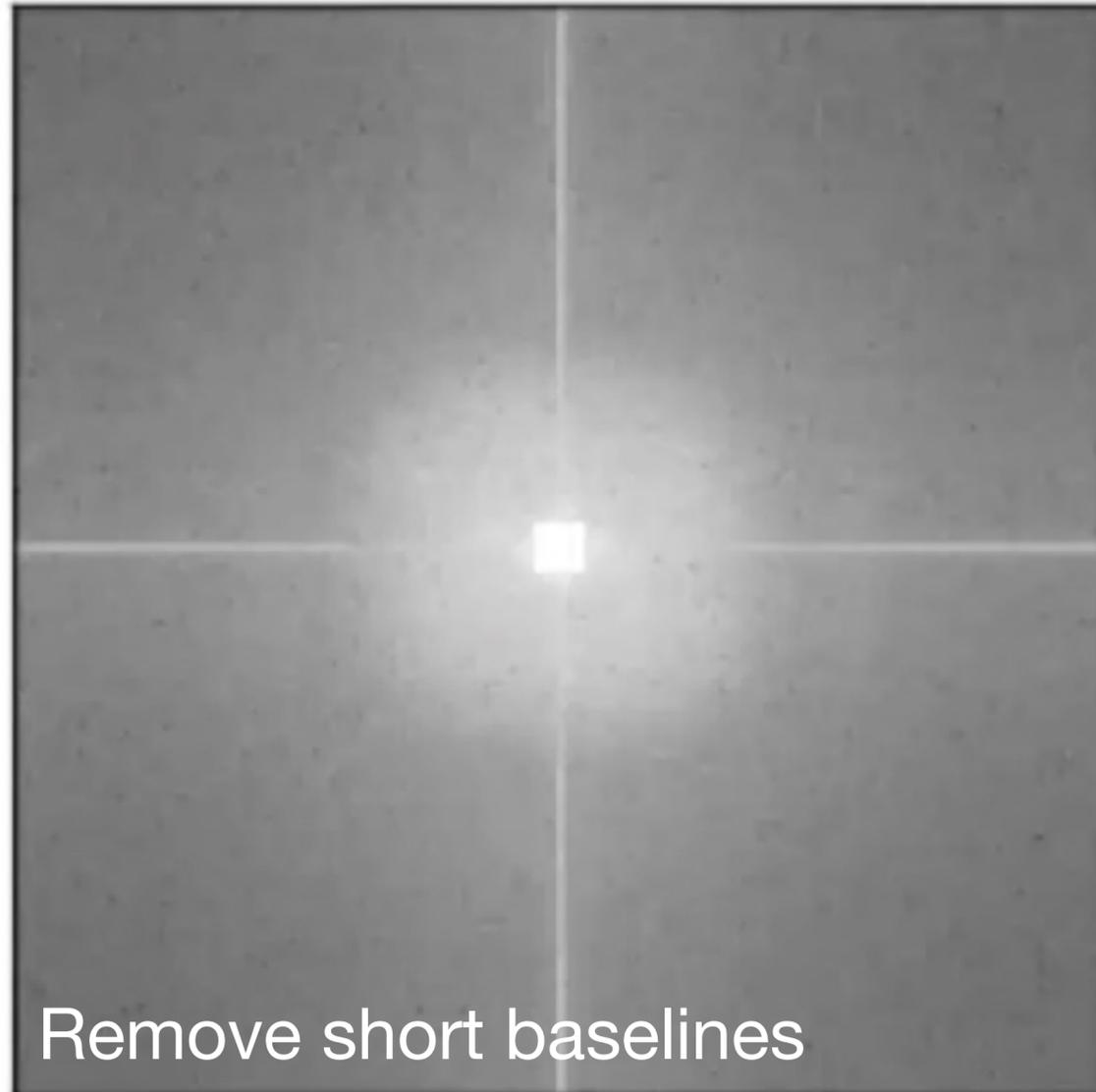


Jean Baptiste  
Joseph Fourier  
1768-1830

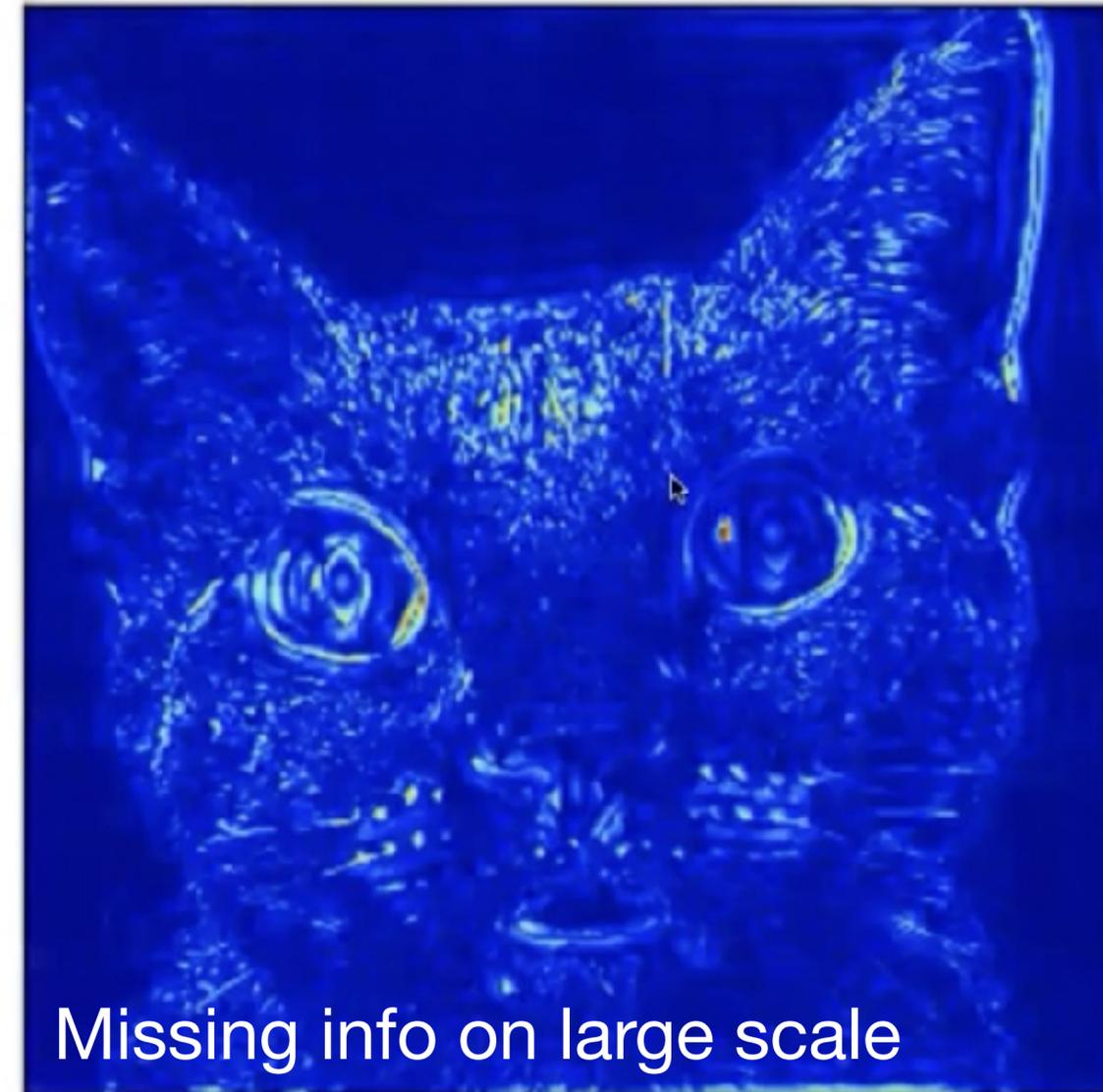
- Just like a square wave can be decomposed into a sum of sinusoids, the sky brightness can be decomposed into spatial ripple patterns.
- A specific baseline = a specific sinusoid
  - **Short baselines = Low-frequency sinusoids = large-scale structure**  
*Nearby antennas: see almost the same signal, sensitive only to large structures*
  - **Long baselines = High-frequency sinusoids = sharp edges**  
*Far-apart antennas: small shift in angle  $\rightarrow$  large phase diff, sensitive to very small angular structure*
- Inverse Fourier Transform visibilities  $\rightarrow$  Reconstruct sky image

# Conceptualizing radio interferometric imaging with a cat

Filtered Fourier Cat

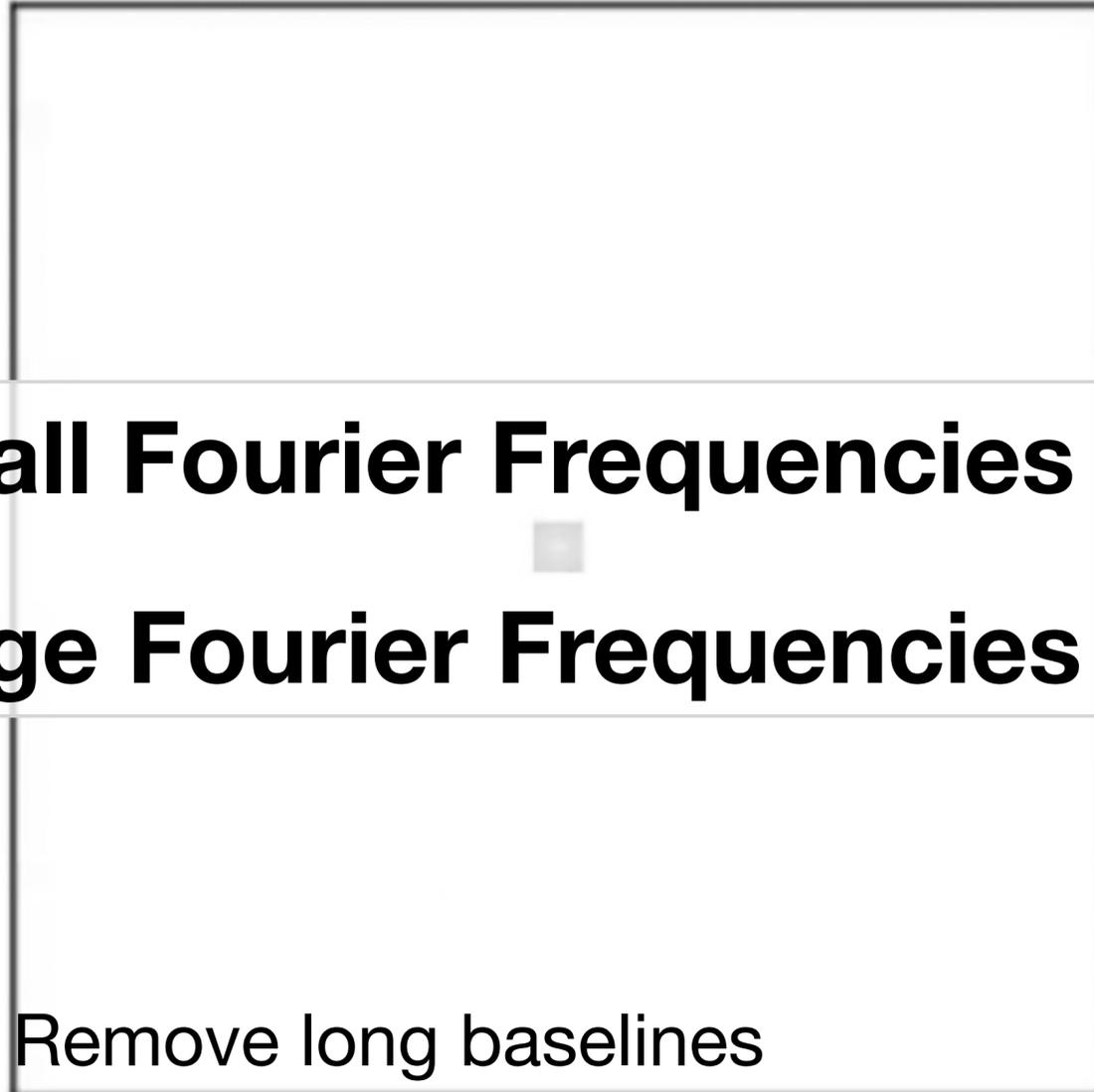


HPF Cat

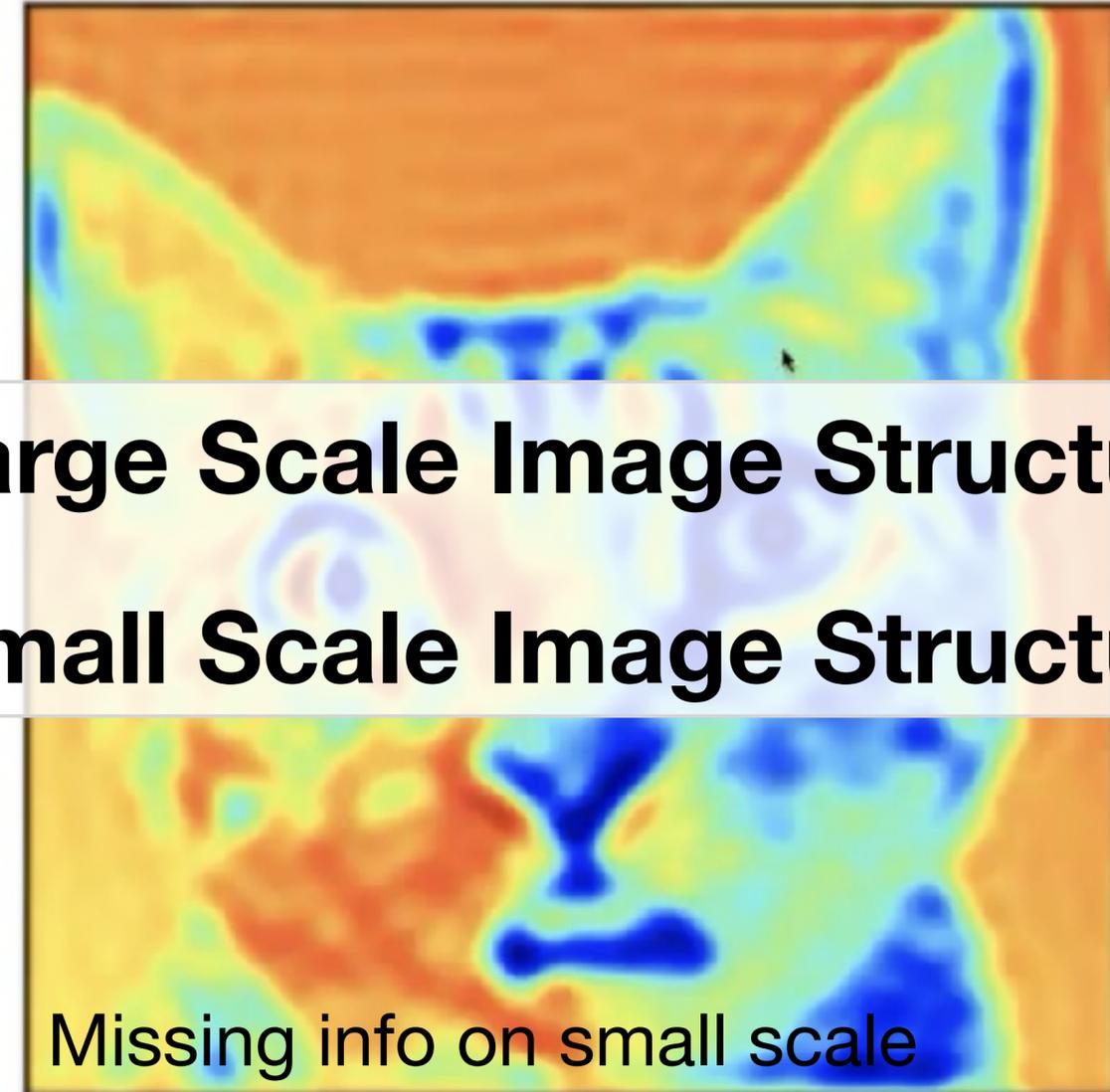


# Conceptualizing radio interferometric imaging with a cat

Filtered Fourier Cat

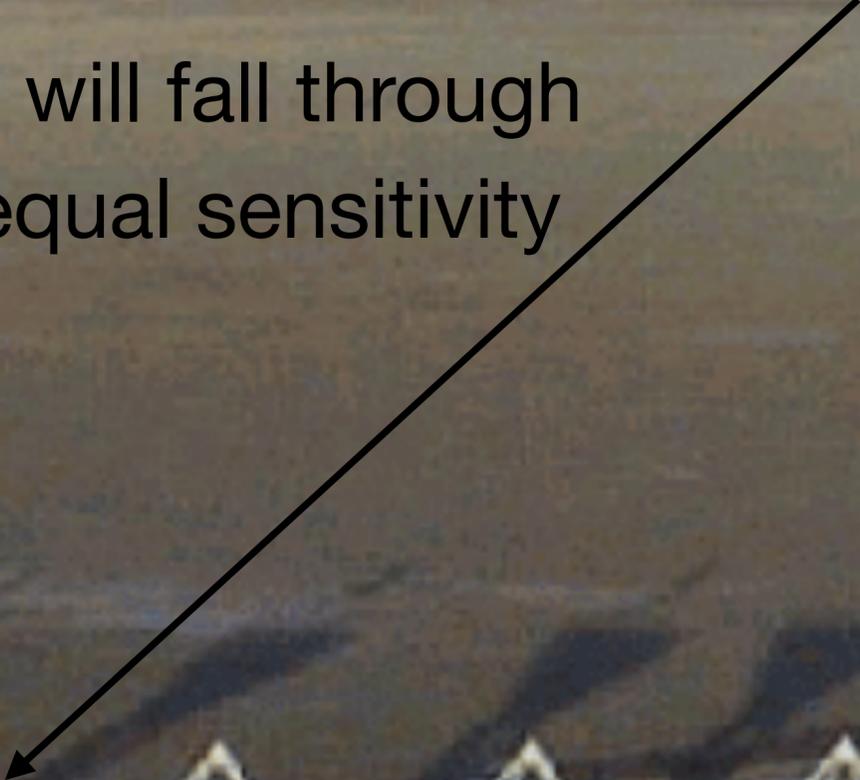


LPF Cat



**Small Fourier Frequencies = Large Scale Image Structure**  
**Large Fourier Frequencies = Small Scale Image Structure**

Some light will fall through  
Don't get equal sensitivity



## Interferometry recap :

- Each pair of antennas = one **baseline** = one point on the UV plane  
—> measures one Fourier component of the sky brightness
- **Fringe** = the sinusoidal spatial response pattern of a baseline on the sky
- Correlator —> multiplies and averages the signals detected  
—> **visibilities** (phase and amplitude of a Fourier component)  
= Sky x Fringe = how strongly the sky brightness matches that pattern
- **UV plane** = a collection of those spatial frequency measurements  
—> 2D, discrete sample of visibilities
- Collect visibilities and apply an **inverse Fourier transform**, we reconstruct the **sky brightness distribution**.
- Missing baselines = Discrete sampling —> **dirty beam**

# Some examples of interferometers

Quelques antennes (IRAM) à quelques dizaines d'antennes (VLA, GMRT, ALMA)

**Westerbork**  
(ASTRON, NL)  
14 paraboles de 6m  
Base max: 2.7 km  
 $\lambda \sim 10\text{cm} - 1\text{m}$   
 $A \sim 400\text{ m}^2$



**VLA** (NRAO,  
Nouveau Mexique)  
27 paraboles de 25 m  
Base max: 36 km  
 $\lambda \sim 1\text{cm} - 1\text{m}$ ,  $f_{\min} = 74\text{ MHz}$   
 $A \sim 14000\text{ m}^2$



**SMA** (USA – Taiwan) Hawaïi  
8 antennes de 6 m  
Base max: 0.5 km  
 $\lambda \sim 0.5\text{mm}$ ,  $A \sim 220\text{ m}^2$



**GMRT** (Pune, Inde)  
30 paraboles de 45 m  
Base max: 25 km  
 $\lambda \sim 1\text{m}$ ,  $f_{\min} = 153\text{ MHz}$   
 $A \sim 50000\text{ m}^2$



**Plateau de Bure**  
(IRAM, France)  
6 antennes de 15m  
Base max:  $\sim 1\text{ km}$   
 $\lambda \sim 1\text{mm}$   
 $A \sim 1000\text{ m}^2$



**ALMA** (Chili)  
54 antennes de 12m  
+ 12 de 7m  
Base max: 16 km  
 $\lambda = 1\text{ cm} - 0.3\text{ mm}$   
 $f = 30 - 900\text{ GHz}$   
 $A \sim 6000\text{ m}^2$

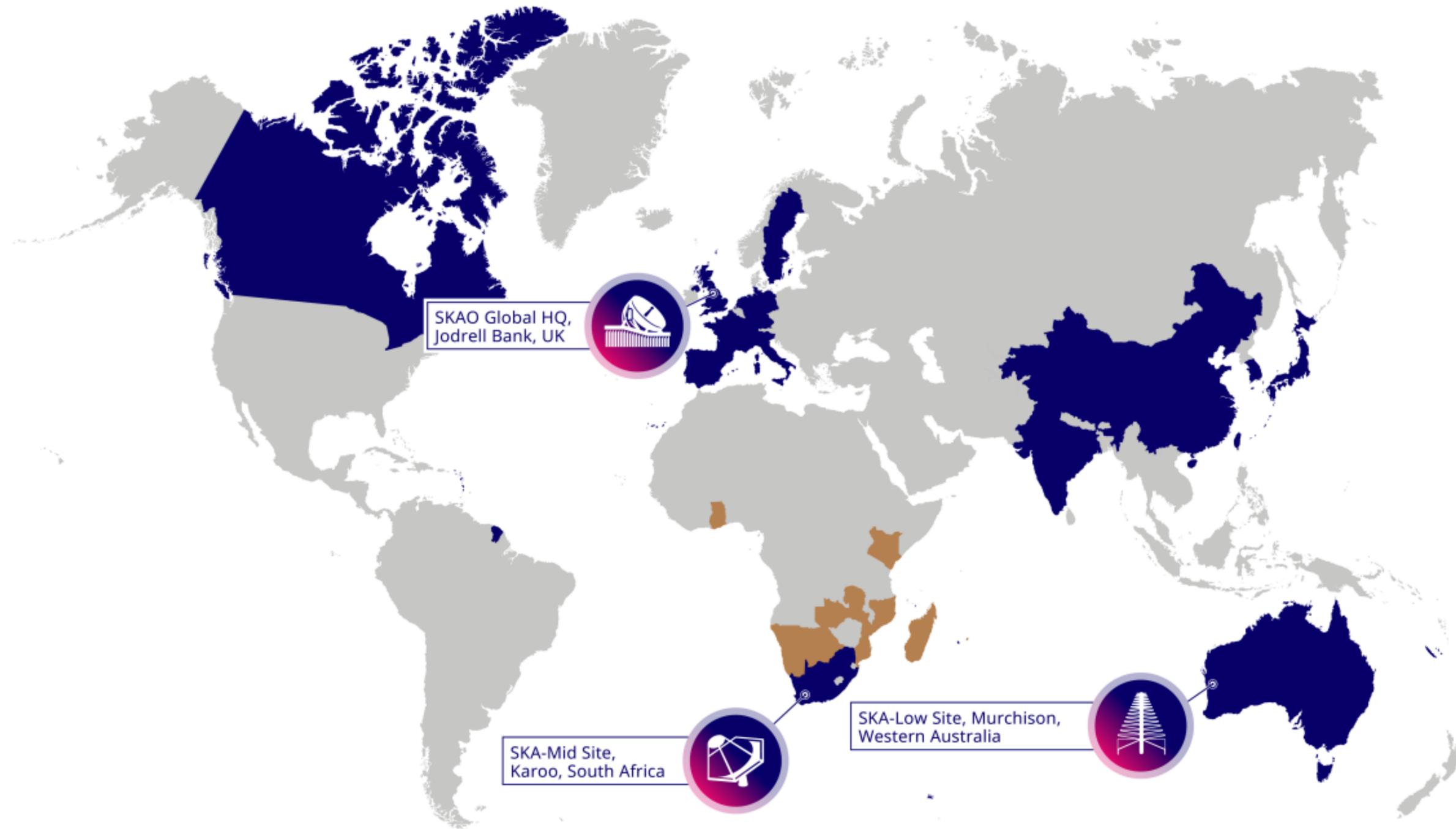
In the hands-on session tomorrow afternoon, we will see how these different telescope designs affect imaging results.

# SQUARE KILOMETRE ARRAY

- Most sensitive radio telescope ever constructed
- 197 steerable dishes in S. Africa + 131,072 tree-like antennas in W. Australia
- \$2-billion project, multi-national with IGO status (including France)
- Expected to operate before 2030



# SKAO Global partnerships (IGO since 2021)



## Member countries:

- Australia
- Canada
- China
- **France**
- Germany
- India
- Italy
- The Netherlands
- Portugal
- South Africa
- Spain
- Sweden
- Switzerland
- United Kingdom
- And more...

SKAO Partnership - includes SKAO Member States\* and SKAO Observers (as of June 2024)



\* \* \* \* \* \* \* \* \* \* \* \* \* \*

African Partner Countries



# How does SKA1 compare with the world's biggest radio telescopes?



The Square Kilometre Array (SKA) will be the world's largest radio telescope, revolutionising our understanding of the Universe. The SKA will be built in two phases - SKA1 and SKA2 - starting in 2018, with SKA1 representing a fraction of the full SKA. SKA1 will include two instruments - SKA1 MID and SKA1 LOW - observing the Universe at different frequencies.

A telescope's capacity to receive faint signals - called sensitivity - depends on its collecting area, the bigger the better. But just like you can't compare radio telescopes and optical telescopes, comparison only works between telescopes working in similar frequencies, hence the different categories above.

The collecting area is just one aspect of a telescope's capability though. Arrays like the SKA have an advantage over single dish telescopes: by being spread over long distances, they simulate a virtual dish the size of that distance and so can see smaller details in the sky, this is called resolution.

# How will SKA1 be better than today's best radio telescopes?



Astronomers assess a telescope's performance by looking at three factors - **resolution**, **sensitivity**, and **survey speed**. With its sheer size and large number of antennas, the SKA will provide a giant leap in all three compared to existing radio telescopes, enabling it to revolutionise our understanding of the Universe.

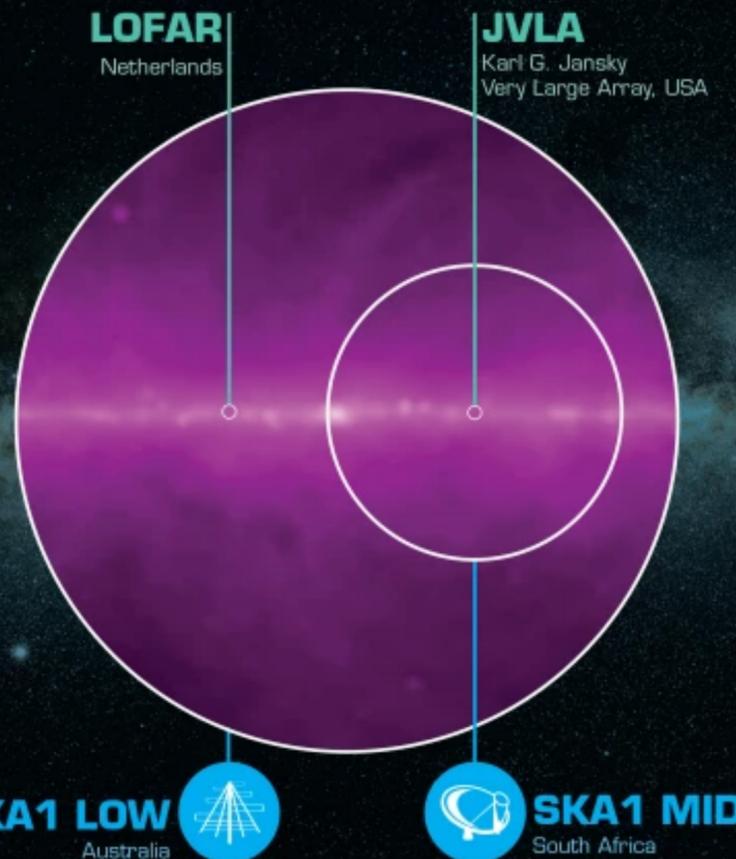


**SKA1 LOW x1.2** LOFAR NL

**SKA1 MID x4** JVLA

## RESOLUTION

Thanks to its size, the SKA will see smaller details, making radio images less blurry, like reading glasses help distinguish smaller letters.



**SKA1 LOW x135** LOFAR NL

**SKA1 MID x60** JVLA

## SURVEY SPEED

Thanks to its sensitivity and ability to see a larger area of the sky at once, the SKA will be able to observe more of the sky in a given time and so map the sky faster.

The **Square Kilometre Array (SKA)** will be the world's largest radio telescope. It will be built in two phases - SKA1 and SKA2 - starting in 2018, with SKA1 representing a fraction of the full SKA. SKA1 will include two instruments - **SKA1 MID** and **SKA1 LOW** - observing the Universe at different frequencies.



**SKA1 LOW x8** LOFAR NL

**SKA1 MID x5** JVLA

## SENSITIVITY

Thanks to its many antennas, the SKA will see fainter details, like a long-exposure photograph at night reveals details the eye can't see.

# Challenges in modern radio astronomy

- High data rate
  - SKA: 5 zettabytes per year = more than the worldwide internet traffic today
  - Correlation is computationally intensive — every pair of antennas must be multiplied for each frequency channel.
  - Data storage, transfer, and real-time processing are huge logistical and engineering challenges.
- Radio frequency interferences — 4G, Starlink...



Image credit: ALAN DYER/VWPICS VIA REDUX

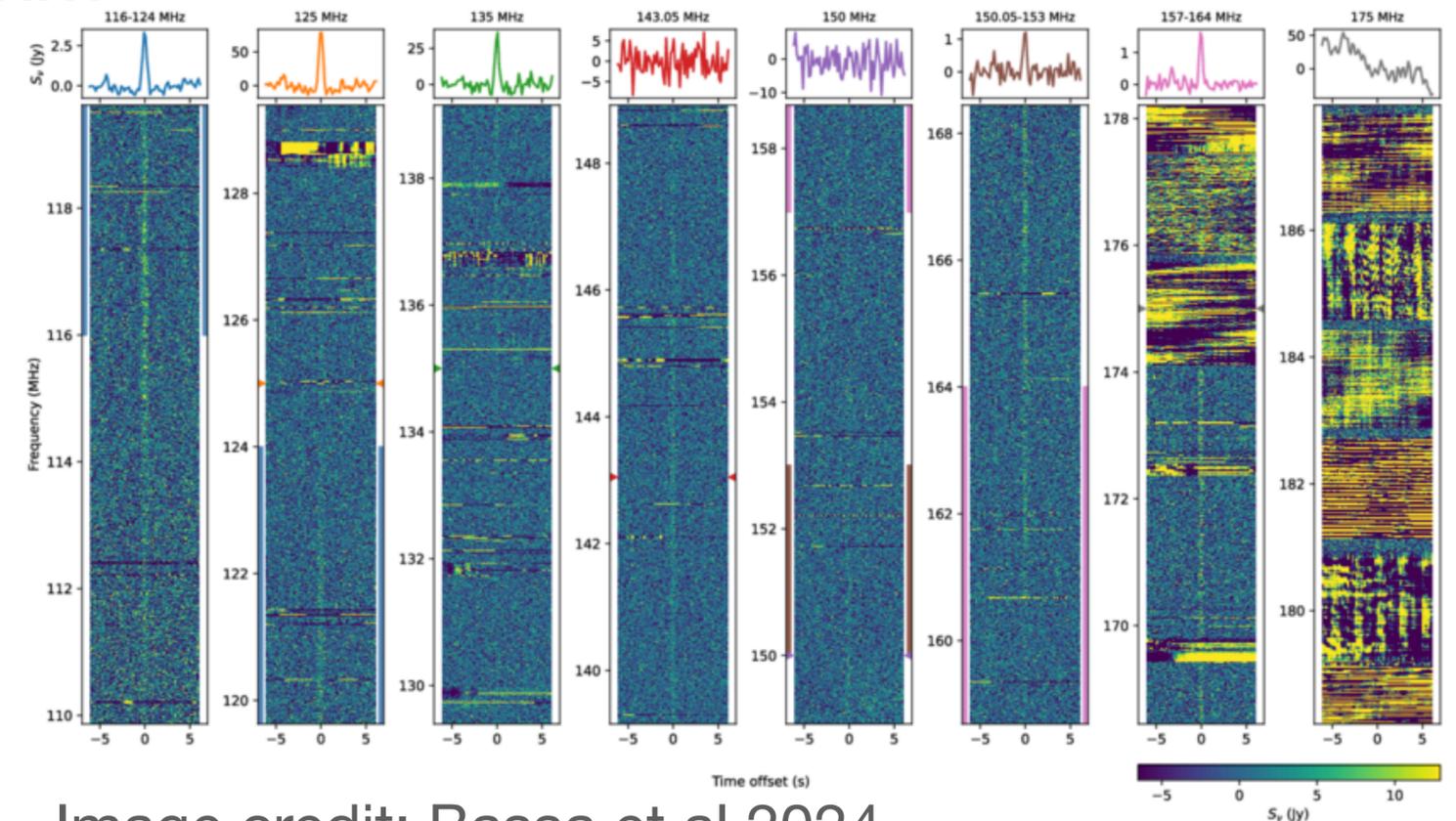


Image credit: Bassa et al 2024

- Brief History of radio astronomy
- Main types of radiations detected
- Notable examples of radio observations
- Radio telescopes - resolution and sensitivity
- Interferometer and imaging
- Examples of telescope facilities
- Current challenges



Reminder to self: talk about the hands-on session tomorrow !

# USEFUL MATERIALS

- Essential Radio Astronomy
  - A complete one semester course by J. J. Condon and S. M. Ransom
  - [www.cv.nrao.edu/course/astr534/ERA.shtml](http://www.cv.nrao.edu/course/astr534/ERA.shtml)
- DARA (Development in Africa with Radio Astronomy) Youtube course
  - <https://www.youtube.com/@dara-developmentinafricawi1695>
- ANITA Lecture on Youtube
  - <https://www.youtube.com/@anitachapter5222>