## **High Fidelity Imaging**

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#### **1 What is High Fidelity Imaging?**

- Getting the 'Correct Image' limited only by noise.
  - The best 'dynamic ranges' (brightness contrast) exceed 10<sup>6</sup> for some images.
  - (But is the recovered brightness correct?)
- Errors in your image can be caused by many different problems, including (but not limited to):
  - Errors in your data many origins!
  - Errors in the imaging/deconvolution algorithms used
  - Errors in your methodology
  - Insufficient information
- But before discussing these, and what you can do about them, I show the effect of errors of different types on your image.



#### 2 The Effects of Visibility Errors on Image Fidelity

- The most common, and simplest source of error is an error in the measures of the visibility (spatial coherence function).
- Consider a point source of unit flux density (S = 1) at the phase center, observed by a telescope array of N antennas.
- Formally, the sky intensity is:

$$I(l,m) = \delta(l,m)$$

• The correct visibility, for any baseline is:

$$V(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = 1$$

- This are analytic expressions they presume infinite coverage.
- In fact, we have N antennas, from which we get, at any one time

$$N_V = \frac{N(N-1)}{2}$$
 visibiliti es

• Each of these  $N_V$  visibilities is a complex number, and is a function of the baseline coordinates  $(u_k, v_k)$ .

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#### 2 The Effects of Visibility Errors on Image Fidelity

• The simplest image is made by direction summation over all the visibilities -- (a Direct Transform):

$$I(l,m) = \frac{1}{2N_{V}} \sum_{k=1}^{N_{V}} \Psi_{k}(u,v) e^{2\pi i (u_{k}l+v_{k}m)} + V_{k}^{*}(u,v) e^{-2\pi i (u_{k}l+v_{k}m)}$$

• For our unit source at the image center, we get

$$I(l,m) = \frac{1}{N_{v}} \sum_{k=1}^{N_{v}} \cos \left[ \pi (u_{k}l + v_{k}m) \right]$$

• But let us suppose that for one baseline, at one time, there is an error in the amplitude and the phase, so the measured visibility is:

$$V(u,v) = (1+\varepsilon)\delta(u-u_0,v-v_0)e^{-i\phi}$$

where  $\varepsilon =$  the error in the visibility amplitude  $\phi =$  the error (in radians) in the visibility phase.



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#### **2** The Effects of Visibility Errors on Image Fidelity

• The map we get from this becomes

$$I(l,m) = \frac{1}{N_{v}} \left\{ \sum_{k=2}^{N_{v}} \cos \left[ \pi (u_{k}l + v_{k}m) - (1 + \varepsilon) \cos \left[ \pi (u_{1}l + v_{1}m) - \phi \right] \right\}$$

• The 'error map' associated with this visibility error is the difference between the image and the 'beam':

$$\Delta I(l,m) = \frac{1}{N_{v}} \left( \mathbf{I} + \varepsilon \right) \cos \left[ \pi \left( u_{1}l + v_{1}m \right) - \phi \right] - \cos \left[ \pi \left( u_{1}l + v_{1}m \right) \right] \right]$$

- This is a single-(spatial) frequency fringe pattern across the entire map, with a small amplitude and phase offset.
- Let us simplify by considering amplitude and phase errors separately.
- 1) Amplitude error only:  $\phi = 0$ . Then,

$$\Delta I = \frac{\varepsilon}{N_v} \cos \left[ \pi \left( u_1 l + v_1 m \right) \right]^{-1}$$



#### 2 The Effect of an Amplitude Error on Image Fidelity

$$\Delta I = \frac{\varepsilon}{N_V} \cos \left[ \pi \left( u_1 l + v_1 m \right) \right]$$

• This is a sinusoidal wave of amplitude  $\varepsilon/N_{v}$ , with period  $1/\sqrt{u_{1}^{2}+v_{1}^{2}}$ tilted at an angle  $\theta = \arctan \sqrt{v}$ 

- As an example, if the amplitude error is 10% ( $\varepsilon = 0.1$ ), and N<sub>V</sub> = 10<sup>6</sup>, the  $\Delta I = 10^{-7} a$  very small value!
- Note: The error pattern is even about the location of the source.



#### 2 The Effect of a Phase Error on Image Fidelity

In this case: 
$$\Delta I = \frac{1}{N_V} \epsilon s \pi (u_1 l + v_1 m) - \phi - cos \pi (u_1 l + v_1 m) - \phi$$

- For small phase error,  $\phi \ll I$ ,  $\Delta I = \frac{1}{N_V} \sin \left[ \pi \left( u_1 l + v_1 m \right) \right]$
- This gives the same error pattern, but with the amplitude  $\varepsilon$  replaced by  $\phi$ , and the phase shifted by 90 degrees.  $\Delta I = \frac{\phi}{-1} \sin \left[ \pi (u_1 l + v_1 m) \right]_{-1}^{-1}$



• From this, we derive an Important Rule:

A phase error of x radians has the same effect as an amplitude error of 100 x %

 For example, a phase error of 1/10 rad ~ 6 degrees has the same effect as an amplitude error of 10%.



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#### **Amplitude vs Phase Errors.**

- This little rule explains why phase errors are deemed to be so much more important than amplitude errors.
- Modern interferometers, and cm-wave atmospheric transmission, are so good that fluctuations in the amplitudes of more than a few percent are very rare.
- But phase errors primarily due to the atmosphere, but also from the electronics, are always worse than 10 degrees – often worse than 1 radian!
- Phase errors because they are large are nearly always the initial limiting cause of poor imaging.



#### **Errors and Dynamic Range (or Fidelity):**

- I now define the dynamic range as the ratio: F = Peak/RMS.
- For our examples, the peak is always 1.0, so the fidelity F is:

$$F = \frac{\sqrt{2}N_V}{\varepsilon} \quad \text{For amplitude error of } 100\varepsilon \%$$
$$F = \frac{\sqrt{2}N_V}{\phi} \quad \text{For phase error of } \phi \text{ radians}$$

- So, taking our canonical example of 0.1 rad error on one baseline for one single visibility, (or 10% amplitude error):
- $F = 3 \times 10^6$  for  $N_V = 250,000$  (typical for an entire day)
- F = 5000 for  $N_V = 351$  (a single snapshot).
- Errors rarely come on single baselines for a single time. We move on to more practical examples now.



#### **Other Examples of Fidelity Loss**

- Example A: All baselines have an error of ~  $\phi$  rad at one time. Since each baseline's visibility is gridded in a different place, the errors from each can be considered random in the image plane. Hence, the rms adds in quadrature. The fidelity declines by a factor  $\sqrt{N_v} \sim \frac{N}{\sqrt{2}}$
- Thus:  $F = \frac{N}{\varepsilon}$  (N = # of antennas)
- So, in a 'snapshot', F ~ 270.
- Example B: One antenna has phase error  $\varepsilon$ , at one time.

Here, (N-I) baselines have a phase error – but since each is gridded in a separate place, the errors again add in quadrature. The fidelity is lowered from the single-baseline error by a factor  $\sqrt{N-1}$ , giving

$$F = \frac{N^{3/2}}{\sqrt{2}\varepsilon}$$

• So, for our canonical 'snapshot' example, F ~ 1000



#### **The Effect of Steady Errors**

• Example C: One baseline has an error of  $\sim \phi$  rad at all times.

This case is importantly different, in that the error is not randomly distributed in the (u,v) plane, but rather follows an elliptical locus.

- To simplify, imagine the observation is at the north pole. Then the locus of the bad baseline is a circle, of radius  $q = \sqrt{u^2 + v^2}$
- One can show (see EVLA Memo 49 for details) that the error pattern is:  $\Delta I = \frac{2\varepsilon}{N(N-1)} J_0 \left[ \pi_q \theta \right]_{-}$
- The error pattern consists of rings centered on the source ('bull's eye').
- For large  $q\theta$  (this is the number of rings away from the center), the fidelity can be shown to be  $F = \frac{N(N-1)\pi\sqrt{q\theta}}{\sqrt{2\varepsilon}}$

So, again taking 
$$\varepsilon = 0.1$$
, and  $q\theta = 100$ ,  $F \sim 1.6 \times 10^5$ .



#### **One More Example of Fidelity Loss**

 Example D: All baselines have a steady error of ~ ε at all times.
 Following the same methods as before, the fidelity will be lowered by the square root of the number of baselines.

Hence, 
$$F = \frac{N(N-1)\pi\sqrt{q\theta}}{\sqrt{2}\varepsilon}\sqrt{\frac{2}{N(N-1)}} \sim \frac{\pi N\sqrt{q\theta}}{\varepsilon}$$

• So, again taking  $\varepsilon = 0.1$ , and  $q\theta = 100$ , F ~ 8000.



#### **Time-Variable Errors**

- In real life, the atmosphere and/or electronics introduces phase or amplitude variations. What is the effect of these?
- Suppose the phase on each antenna changes by  $\phi$  radians on a typical timescale of  $\Delta t$  hours.
- Over an observation of T hours, we can imagine the image comprising  $N_s = \Delta t/T$  individual 'snapshots', each with an independent set of errors.
- The dynamic range on each snapshot is given by

$$F \sim \frac{N}{\varepsilon}$$

• So, for the entire observation, we get

$$F = \frac{N\sqrt{N_s}}{\varepsilon}$$

• The value of  $N_s$  can vary from ~100 to many thousands.



#### Some Examples: Ideal Data

- I illustrate these ideas with some simple simulations.
- EVLA ,  $v_0$  = 6 GHz, BW = 4 GHz,  $\delta$  = 90, 'A'-configuration
- Used the AIPS program 'UVCON' to generate visibilities, with S = I Jy.



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#### **One-Baseline Errors – Amplitude Error of 10%**

- Examples with a single errant baseline for 1m, 10 m, 1 h, and 12 hours
- N<sub>v</sub>~250,000

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#### **One-Baseline Errors – Phase Error of 0.1 rad = 6 deg.**

- Examples with a single errant baseline for 1m, 10 m, 1 h, and 12 hours
- N<sub>v</sub> ~250,000

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The four U-V plane phases. Note the easy identification of the errors.



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#### **One-Antenna Errors – Amplitude Error of 10%**

- Examples with a single errant antenna for 1m, 10 m, 1 h, and 12 hours
- N<sub>v</sub> ~250,000







Note the easy identification of

the errors.

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#### **One-Antenna Errors – Phase Error of 0.1 rad = 6 deg.**

- Examples with a single errant antenna for 1m, 10 m, 1 h, and 12 hours
- N<sub>v</sub> ~250,000









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#### Finding and Correcting, or Removing Bad Data

- How to find and fix bad data?
- We first must consider the types, and origins, of errors.
- We can write, in general:

$$\widetilde{V}_{ij}(t) = g_i(t)g_j^*(t)V_{ij} + g_{ij}(t)V_{ij} + C_{ij}(t) + \mathcal{E}_{ij}(t)$$

- Here,  $\tilde{V}_{ij}(t)$  is the calibrated visibility, and  $V_{ij}(t)$  is the observed visibility.
  - $g_{i}(t)$  is an antenna based gain
  - $g_{ij}(t)$  is a multiplicative baseline-based gain.
  - $C_{ij}(t)$  is an additive baseline-based gain, and
  - $\varepsilon_{ij}(t)$  is a random additive term, due to noise.
- In principle, the methods of self-calibration are extremely effective at finding and removing all the antenna-based ('closing') errors.
- The method's effectiveness is usually limited by the accuracy of the model.
- In the end, it is usually the 'non-closing' errors which limit fidelity
  for strong sources.



#### Finding and Correcting, or Removing Bad Data

- Self-calibration works well for a number of reasons:
  - The most important errors really are antenna-based (notably atmospheric/instrumental phase.
  - The error is 'seen' identically on *N* 1 baselines at the same time improving the SNR by a factor ~  $\sqrt{N-1}$ .
  - The N 1 baselines are of very different lengths and orientations, so the effects of errors in the model are randomized amongst the baselines, improving robustness.
- Non-closing errors can also be calibrated out but here the process is much less robust! The error is on a single baseline, so not only is the SNR poorer, but there is no tolerance to model errors. The data will be adjusted to precisely match the model you put in!
  - Some (small) safety will be obtained if the non-closing error is constant in time – the solution will then average over the model error, with improved SNR.



# Finding and Correcting, or Removing Bad Data – a simple example.

- I show some 'multiple snapshot' data on 3C123, a fluxy compact radio source, observed in D-configuration in 2007, at 8.4 GHz.
- There are 7 observations, each of about 30 seconds duration.
- For reference, the 'best image', and UV-coverage are shown below.
- Resolution = 8.5 arcseconds. Maximum baseline ~ 25 k $\lambda$



• Following standard calibration against unresolved point sources, and editing the really obviously bad data, the I-d visibility plots look like this, in amplitude and phase:



- Note that the amplitudes look quite good, but the phases do not.
- We don't expect a great image.
- Image peak: 3.37 Jy/beam; Image rms = 63 mJy.
- DR = 59 that's not good!



- Using our good reference image, we do an 'amplitude and phase' self-cal. ٠
- The resulting distributions and image are shown below.



- Note that the amplitudes look much the same, but the phase are much better organized..
- Image peak: 4.77 Jy/beam; Image rms = 3.3 mJy.
- DR = 1450 better, but far from what it should be...



- When self-calibration no longer improves the image, we must look for more exotic errors.
- The next level are 'closure', or baseline-based errors.
- The usual step is to subtract the (FT) of your model from the data.
- In AIPS, the program used is 'UVSUB'.
- Plot the residuals, and decide what to do ...



- If the model matches the data, the residuals should be in the noise – a known value.
- For these data, we expect ~50 mJy.
- Most are close to this, but many are not.
  - These are far too large

These are about right.

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#### **Removing or Correcting Baseline-based Errors**

- Once it is determined there are baseline-based errors, the next questions is: What to do about them?
- Solution A: Flag all discrepant visibilities;
- Solution B: Repair them.
- Solution A:
  - For our example, I clipped ('CLIP') all residual visibilities above 200 mJy, then restored the model visibilities.
  - Be aware that by using such a crude tool, you will usually be losing some good visibilities, and you will let through some bad ones ...

• Solution B:

- Use the model to determine individual baseline corrections.
- In AIPS, the program is 'BLCAL'. This produces a set of baseline gains that are applied to the data.
- This is a powerful but \*dangerous\* tool ...



Since 'closure' errors are usually time invariant, use that condition.



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- On Left Image after clipping high residual visibilities. 20.9 kVis used.
- On Right Image after correcting for baseline-based errors.



Peak = 4.77 Jy s = 1.2 mJy DR = 3980

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Peak = 4.76 Jy s = 0.83 mJy DR = 5740

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#### Law of Diminishing Returns or Knowing When to Quit

- I did not proceed further for this example.
- One can (and many do) continue the process of:
  - Self-calibration (removing antenna-based gains)
  - Imaging/Deconvolution (making your latest model)
  - Visibility subtraction
  - Clipping residuals, or a better baseline calibration.
  - Imaging/Deconvolution
- The process always asymptotes, and you have to give it up, or find a better methodology.
- Note that not all sources of error can be removed by this process.



### **Sources of Error**

- I conclude with a short summary of sources of error.
- This list is necessarily incomplete.
- Antenna-Based Errors
  - Electronics gain variations amplitude and phase both in time and frequency.
    - Modern systems are very stable typically 1% in amplitude, a few degrees in phase
  - Atmospheric (Tropospheric/Ionospheric) errors.
    - Attenuation very small at wavelengths longer than ~2 cm except through heavy clouds (like thunderstorms) for 2 – 6 cm.
    - Phase corruptions can be very large tens to hundreds of degrees.
    - Ionosphere phase errors dominate for  $\lambda > 20$ cm.
  - Antenna pointing errors: primarily amplitude, but also phase.
  - Non-isoplanatic phase screens



- Baseline-Based Errors this list is much longer
  - System Electronics.
    - Offsets in a particular correlator (additive)
    - Gain (normalization?) errors in correlator (multiplicative)
    - Other correlator-based issues (WIDAR has 'wobbles' ...)
    - Phase offsets between COS and SIN correlators
    - Non-identical bandpasses, on frequency scales smaller than channel resolution.
    - Delay errors, not compensated by proper delay calibration.
    - Temporal phase winds, not resolved in time (averaging time too long).



- Impure System Polarization  $V_r' = V_r + D_r V_l$ 
  - Even after the best regular calibration, the visibilities contain contaminants from the other polarizations
  - For example, for Stokes 'I', we can write:

$$V_{I} = V_{I} + D_{1}V_{Q} + D_{2}V_{U} + D_{3}V_{V}$$

- The 'l' visibility has been contaminated by contributions from Q, U, and V, coupled through by complex 'D' factors which describe the leakage of one polarization into the other.
- This term can be significant polarization can be 30% or higher, and the 'D' terms can be 5%
- The additional terms can easily exceed 1% of the Stokes 'I'.
- Polarization calibration necessary but note that the antenna beam is variably polarized as a function of angle.



- Other, far-out effects (to keep you awake at night ...)
- Correlator quantization correction
  - Digital correlators are non-linear they err in the calculation of the correlation of very strong sources.
  - This error is completely eliminated with WIDAR.
- Non-coplanar baselines.
  - Important when  $\frac{\lambda B}{D^2} \ge 1$
  - Software exists to correct this.
- Baseline errors: incorrect baselines leads to incorrect images.
  - Apply baseline corrections to visibility data, perhaps determined after observations are completed.
- Deconvolution Algorithm errors
  - CLEAN, VTESS, etc. do not \*guarantee\* a correct result!
  - Errors in data, holes in the coverage, absence of long or short spacings will result in incorrect images.
  - Best solution more data!





- Wide-band data
  - New instruments (like EVLA) have huge fractional bandwidths
  - Image structure changes dramatically
  - Antenna primary beams change dramatically
  - New algorithms are being developed to manage this.
- Distant structure
  - In general, antennas 'sense' the entire sky even if the distant structure is highly attenuated. (This problem is especially bad at low frequencies ...)
  - You are likely interested in only a part of the sky.
  - You probably can't afford to image the entire hemisphere ...
  - Some form of full-sky imaging will be needed to remove distant, unrelated visibilities.
  - Algorithms under development for this.



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## How Good Can It Get?

- Shown is our best image (so far) from the EVLA.
- 3C147, with 'WIDAR0' 12 antennas and two spectral windows at L-band (20cm).
- Time averaging I sec.
- BW averaging I MHz
- BW 2 x 100 MHz
- Peak = 21200 mJy
- 2<sup>nd</sup> brightest source 32 mJy
- Rms in corner: 32 μJy
- Peak in sidelobe: 13 mJy largest sidelobes are around this!
- DR ~ 850,000!
- Fidelity quite a bit less.







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