## 3 hardware lectures

- receivers SIS mixers, amplifiers, cryogenics, dewars, calibration; followed by antenna tour; later, take apart a 6-m dewar
- 2. correlator (James Lamb)
- Iocal oscillator system Gunn oscillator, phaselock chain, linelength system, lobe rotation, sideband separation

### receivers

- radiation collected by the telescope is focused onto a 'feed horn' that couples it into a waveguide
- the receiver amplifies and converts some frequency range of the incoming signals to a lower frequency 'IF' (intermediate frequency) that is sent back to the control building

suppose we observed a 10 Jy calibrator with CARMA for 1 year, 24 hrs/day – how much energy would we collect?

$$E = \frac{1}{2} S \eta A \Delta v t$$

• S = source flux density = 10 Jy = 10 x  $10^{-26}$  watts m<sup>-2</sup> Hz<sup>-1</sup>

- the factor of  $\frac{1}{2}$  arises because we are sensitive to 1 polarization
- $\eta$  = aperture efficiency ~ 0.60
- A = geometrical collecting area =  $6 \times 85 \text{ m}^2 + 9 \times 29 \text{ m}^2 = 771 \text{ m}^2$
- $\Delta v$  = instantaneous bandwidth = 2 x 4.0 GHz = 8 x 10<sup>9</sup> Hz
- t = 1 year = 3 x 10<sup>7</sup> sec

#### Result: $E = 5.6 \times 10^{-6}$ joules

1 calorie = 4.2 joules heats 1 cm<sup>3</sup> (20 drops?) of water by 1 C

→ must observe for 38000 years to heat 1 drop of water by 1 C

### detectors for radio astronomy

- 1. bolometers
  - absorbed photon increases temperature, changes resistance
  - phase of incoming signal is lost unsuitable for aperture synthesis
  - operate at ~0.3 K
- 2. HEMT (High Electron Mobility Transistor) amplifiers
  - preferred below 50 GHz, good up to 115 GHz
  - operate at ~20 K
- 3. SIS mixers
  - mixes incoming signal with local oscillator to convert it to a lower frequency where it is amplified (by HEMT)
  - preferred for 100+ GHz
  - operate at ~4 K

## High Electron Mobility Transistor (HEMT) amplifier



- gate voltage controls width of channel, modulates current from source to drain
- to operate at 100 GHz, charge carriers must transit under the gate in ~ 1/10 x 1/100 GHz ~ 10<sup>-12</sup> sec
- must travel 0.1 um in 10<sup>-12</sup> sec ~ 100 km s<sup>-1</sup>

## mixers are used to convert signals to a lower frequency

- 'mix' RF (radio frequency) signal with a strong LO (local oscillator) to produce an IF (intermediate frequency)
- e.g., 102 GHz RF + 100 GHz LO -> 2 GHz IF (also, 98 GHz RF + 100 GHz LO -> 2 GHz IF)
- can be thought of as 'sampling' the incoming signal; local oscillator is the clock

#### mixer has a nonlinear current-voltage relation

• linear device (superposition principle):

$$\omega_1, \omega_2 \rightarrow \lim_{device} \rightarrow \omega_1, \omega_2$$

- nonlinear device:  $\omega_1, \omega_2 \rightarrow \boxed{\begin{array}{c} \text{nonlinear} \\ \text{device} \end{array}} \rightarrow \omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_1 + \omega_{2,} \omega_1 - \omega_2, 2\omega_1 + \omega_2, \dots$
- diode is an example of a nonlinear device:  $I = I_0(e^{\alpha V} - 1) \sim I_0(\alpha V + \frac{1}{2} \alpha^2 V^2 + ..)$   $V = A \cos \omega_1 t + B \cos \omega_2 t$   $V^2 = A^2 \cos^2 \omega_1 t + B^2 \cos^2 \omega_2 t + 2AB \cos \omega_1 t \cos \omega_2 t + ...$   $= ... + AB \cos(\omega_1 + \omega_2)t + AB \cos(\omega_1 - \omega_2)t + ...$
- note: amplitude at frequency  $\omega_1 \omega_2$  is linearly related to amplitudes A and B

#### waveforms



### DSB (double sideband) downconversion



- upper and lower sidebands are folded together in the I.F. e.g., HCN at 88.6 and CS at 98.0 both appear at 4.7 GHz in the I.F. – but can be separated by phase switching (lecture 3)
- LO tunable from 85-114 GHz (3mm) and 215-270 GHz (1mm)
- SZA 3mm receivers are different USB only

SIS (Superconductor-Insulator-Superconductor) tunnel junctions used as mixers at mm wavelengths



#### SIS devices have extremely sharp nonlinearity





## cryocooler and dewar





#### closed cycle 4 K cryocoolers

- similar to Carnot cycle:
  - compress helium to ~280 psi, air-cool to remove heat of compression
  - in the 'cold head,' expand to ~60 psi to provide refrigeration
- except: use heat exchangers (bronze screens, Pb spheres, Er<sub>3</sub>Ni spheres) in the cold head to reduce the pressure difference that is needed
- above the critical pressure of ~30 psi, 4 K helium does not separate into gas and liquid phases – it is a dense fluid

#### cryocoolers - practical details

- on 6-m antennas, must slow down the cold head cycle to get to lowest temperatures; 72 rpm during cooldown to 5 K, 30 rpm to operate at 3 to 3.8 K
- contaminants in helium gas stream ultimately freeze out at 4 K, lead to erratic operation; 5 minute defrost cycle can help; every 6-12 months warm to room temperature, flush with fresh helium
- oil is injected into gas stream in the compressors to absorb heat of compression; overheating most likely in extremely cold weather when oil gets viscous

#### dewar design

to minimize heat load on cryocooler:

- evacuate to minimize gas conduction; pressure < 10<sup>-9</sup> atm, ~ a few x 10<sup>10</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup>
- use low thermal conductivity materials; a copper wire 24" long x .022" diam would conduct 50 mW from room temp to 4 K
- copper shields reduce loading from room temperature radiation (300 mW/sq in for a 300 K black body)

## local oscillators

- LO = microwave signal on each receiver that 'mixes' with incoming radio signal
- LO frequency is tunable, determines what spectral chunks are sent back to the control building on the IF
- LOs must be perfectly synchronized on all telescopes – phaselocked to reference signals sent from the lab (a servo system; subject of hardware lecture 3)
- beamsplitters combine signal and LO

## fiberoptic links

- signals between antenna and control building travel over glass fibers in underground conduits
- transmitter: intensity-modulated IR laser
- receiver: photodiode measures laser intensity
- 8 fibers per antenna: 2 Ethernet, 2 IF, 4 phaselock reference signals
- reconnect fibers in antenna base and in control building each time an antenna is moved

## receiver calibration



 black body emitters are the most convenient calibration sources (K instead of ergs cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> Hz<sup>-1</sup>); power collected in 1 polarization by horn with aperture D is:

$$P_{in} = \frac{1}{2}B A \Delta \Omega \Delta \upsilon = \frac{1}{2}\frac{2kT}{\lambda^2}D^2\frac{\lambda^2}{D^2}\Delta \upsilon = kT\Delta \upsilon$$

• T<sub>rcvr</sub> is the noise generated by the receiver, referred to the input of the receiver

### receiver calibration



- in the lab, use black body emitters at room temperature (295 K) and immersed in LN<sub>2</sub> (77K)
- solve for gain G and receiver temperature Trcvr
- Tsys = Tin + Trcvr is the total noise power from the receiver, calibrated as an input temperature



# calibration for astronomical objects

- ideally, calibrate with loads outside the atmosphere
- unfurl a 200 x 200 m load from the space station?
- nature provides  $T_1 = CMB$
- effective temperature of T<sub>2</sub> at the input to the receiver:

$$T_2' = T_2 e^{-\tau} + T_{atm} (1 - e^{-\tau})$$

so if  $T_2 = T_{amb}$ , it doesn't matter where we position the load along the line of sight – it can be right in front of the receiver!





chopper wheel calibration

#### more notes on chopper wheel cal

- effectively, we are including the atmosphere as part of the receiver: hence, we can't tell the difference between a poor receiver and a rainy day – both lead to high Tsys (but we have 15 antennas, so spotting bad rcvr is easy)
- as long as Tamb ≈ Tatm, the effective calibration temperature Tcal depends only weakly on the details of the atmospheric model
- receivers are sensitive to 2 bands (LSB and USB); normally Tsys(LSB) = Tsys(USB) = 2 × Tsys(DSB)
- reference: Ulich & Haas 1976

## fluctuations in Tsys

- remember that T<sub>sys</sub> is the AVERAGE noise power
- fluctuations in Tsys:



 so fluctuations are greater on ambient load or the Sun than on cold sky



