

## PSA-64 POWER SPECTRUM

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### ABSTRACT

*Subject headings:*

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

The Donald C. Backer Precision Array for Probing the Epoch of Reionization (PAPER) is a dedicated experiment to measure the power spectrum of highly redshifted 21 cm emission from the Epoch of Reionization.

#### 2. OBSERVATIONS

Here, we describe the features of the data set used in this analysis. We used the maximally redundant configuration of the PAPER array (see Figure 1 for this analysis, relying on all of the redundant baselines for the calibration procedure, but only using a subset of the baselines for the power spectrum analysis. For the power spectrum analysis we are using the baselines that correspond to the width between two columns (e.g. 49-41) as well as those that correspond to over and up and down one antenna (e.g. 10-41 and 10-58, respectively). These 154 baselines are used in the power spectrum analysis because they are instantaneously redundant and therefore they measure the same Fourier modes on the sky. The sensitivity of the array is mostly captured by these baselines.

The observation of the 64 antenna data set spanned a 135 day period that commenced on 2012 November 8 (JD62456240) and ended 2013 March 23 (JD62456375). Each baseline instantaneously measured the 100-200 MHz band which was divided into 1024 frequency channels of resolution 97.66 kHz and integrated for 10.7 seconds.

##### 2.1. Compressing the Data

The raw described above constitute XX TB of data which can be cumbersome and time consuming to do meaningful science. Therefore, the raw data was reprocessed through a compression algorithm that comprised of chopping bits of data out that corresponded to parts of the sky that was not relevant to our science objectives. By applying Fourier filters in the delay (Fourier dual of frequency) and fringe rate (Fourier dual of time) spaces, we are able to disregard

#### 3. SUMMARY OF IMPROVEMENTS FROM PSA32

In comparison to the previous PAPER pipeline (see Parsons, 2014), this analysis took a slightly different approach which included some important steps to improve

our bottom line. In short, the improvements included using a new, refined redundant calibration method (Zheng 2014), increasing the width of the wideband delay filter that removes smooth spectrum foregrounds, weighting the 1st binned data sets, and optimal fringe rate filtering.

Figure ?? shows the power spectra when each of the steps mentioned above are turned off and for the one where all of them are turned on.

#### 4. ANALYSIS

Describe the overall flow of the data through of the pipeline. Here we describe the analysis pipeline of the data set obtained in 2012/2013 observing season. Data was first run through a preprocessing compression pipeline which reduces the volume of the data by a factor of forty. Afterwards we calibrate the relative phases of our array on the basis of redundancy using a logical approach in delay space, and then get the absolute phase calibration by fitting. We then set the flux scale of our observations by using Pictor A. The logical done above was a rough estimate of the phase calibration and hence we used Omnical to get the calibrations to higher accuracy. This was a major difference in the pipeline from previous iterations on PAPER data. We then remove foregrounds using the delay filtering technique and form power spectra. The details of the above are discussed below and figure ?? shows a block diagram of the analysis pipeline.

##### 4.1. Preprocessing Compression

As low frequency interferometer grow bigger, data volume becomes an issue. For this data set a 10 minute file consisting of 1024 channel complex visibilities integrated for 10.7 seconds each, requires 4G of storage space. For the observing season this requires about 40TB of storage space. This is doable, for now, but when it comes to analyzing sorting through this much data can be cumbersome. Therefore we have implemented a compression technique which reduces the amount of storage by a factor of forty. Details of this critical step are presented in the appendix A of (Parsons et al. 2014). The punch line is that after RFI flagging, and removing unsmooth and transient emission from the data, we end up with a factor of 20 reduction in data volume, ending up with a total data set that requires 2TB of storage. After compression, it ends up that the original 1024 channels get downsampled to 203 channels (still encompassing the 100 MHz) and the 60 time samples per 10 minute file end up as 14 timesamples with an effective integration time of 42.8 seconds.

(Show plot of raw data and compressed data? )

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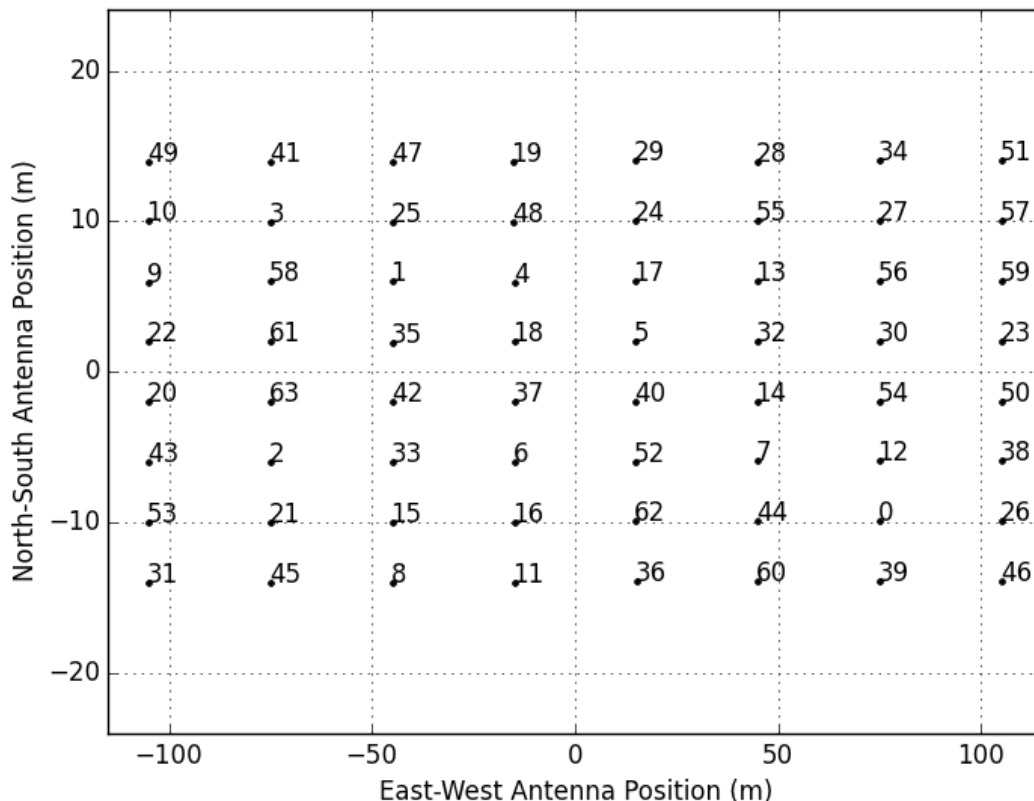


FIG. 1.— Antenna positions for the PAPER 64 observation run.

## 4.2. Calibrations

### 4.2.1. Overview

Precise calibration turned out to be critical in improving our bottom line of our final result. We began the calibration procedure by first using a logarithmic calibration scheme based in redundant measurements ((Liu et al. 2010), (?)) as well as using standard interferometric self calibration. We set the flux scale of the observations to Pictor A (?) which has the spectrum

$$S_\nu = 382 \left( \frac{\nu}{150 \text{ MHz}} \right)^{-.76} \text{ Jy}. \quad (1)$$

We then apply the solutions and run through another round of calibration. We use the methods described in (Liu et al. 2010) and (?) to use a linearized redundant calibration. Specifically, we used a pre production version of the Omnical package described in (?).

### 4.3. The logcal

Before we begin the fine calibration, we perform the same calibration that was done in (?). That is, we use redundancy to do a relative phase<sup>6</sup> calibration between antennas, which removes the electrical delays from cables in the signal path. Due to redundancy, we calibrate out all of the per-antennas delays in the signal path relative to two parameters which we call  $\tau_{ns}$  and  $\tau_{ew}$ . These delays are the relative electrical delays that

correspond to baseline delays in the north-south and east-west component for 2 reference baselines (49-10 and 49-41, respectively). The antenna based delay solutions vary as much as a couple nanoseconds day to day when solutions are averaged over hour long timescales withing a day. However, the variations in solutions is worse when only averaging over ten minute time scales. . Therefore need for better calibration is required. We use self calibration to derive the two unknow parameters,  $\tau_{ns}$  and  $\tau_{ew}$ , by using Centaurus A, Fornax A, and Pictor A.

Note that there is no possibility of signal loss (see (?)).

### 4.4. Gain Calibration

Gain calibration was derived on the basis of redundancy and self calibration. The phase calibrations described above, simultaneously also calibrated for the gain variation between antennas. Again we can only calibrate to a fiducial antenna (49) whose gain is defined as unity. We then perform a self calibration to set the flux scale to Pictor A whose spectrum is derived in (?). We use the same methods describes in (?).

Figure ?? shows that dataset beamformed to Pictor A, with log janskies on the y axis and lst on the xaxis for a frequency of  $.1 + (120/203) \cdot .1/203$ . As can be seen, the day to day variation in the formed beam has a fractional spread of about 10%. This shows the stability of the instrument and the well behaved calibration solutions derived above.

### 4.5. Omnical

<sup>6</sup> In actuality, we solve for delays to get around phase wrapping issues. These delays are applied to visibilities as  $e^{2\pi i \tau \nu}$

(How did we know that our calibrations was not good enough? Because of the power spectrum? PSA32? We did beamform data to pictorA and say that vs LST, the beamform matched well day to day with a fractional spread of about 10%. The 10% spread in the formed beam to Pictor A in figure ?? shows the stability of the solutions over time. However, we wanted to do better. The new element to our calibration pipeline was the use of the omnical package developed at MIT by Jeff Zheng ((?)). This calibration pipeline takes redundant calibration one step deeper by performing lin cal, which solves for the unbiased phase and gain solutions.

Omnical performs a logical first to find biased phase and gain solutions so the solutions are close. lincal, in order to converge, requires a guess of the solutions that are close to the actual value. Logcal delivers this result. Because of the calibration performed above, which was an implementation of logcal, the data required for lincal was already in hand. Lincal was ran on the data and the solutions were applied to the data.

Figure ?? shows the gain solutions output by omnical.

#### 4.6. *lstbinning*

After calibration, we then average and bin data in lst bins of

#### 4.7. *WB delay filtering*

Galactic synchrotron and extragalactic point sources, generally foregrounds, greatly contaminate the EOR signal. They are roughly 9 orders of magnitude (Pober 2013a) above the expected level and EOR and can hide low order RFI events and cross-talk. Therefore, its removal is completely necessary and required in order to obtain the desired EOR signal. In addition to dominating the EOR signal, foregrounds can corrupt higher-order  $k$  modes in the power spectrum measurement from the sidelobes arising from RFI flagging and the finite bandwidth used in the line of sight Fourier transform (corresponding to  $k_{||}$ ).

PAPER uses the delay filtering technique described in Parsons 2012b to remove smooth spectrum foregrounds that mask EOR. Following the technique described there, we first take the delay transform of every baseline for every integration, as per

$$\tilde{V} = \int W(\nu)S(\nu)V(\nu)e^{-2\pi i\tau\nu}d\nu, \quad (2)$$

where  $V(\nu)$  is the visibility measured,  $W(\nu)$  is a blackman-harris windowing function and  $S(\nu)$  is the weighting function that encodes the flags for the data. Following the method in (Parsons Backer 2009), we use a CLEAN algorithm to deconvolve out the effects of RFI flags and band edge effects. RFI flags and the band edges have the effect of scattering foreground emission to higher order delay modes which would otherwise be uncontaminated. The implementation of CLEAN is such that it treats the RFI flags as a sampling function in frequency and iteratively fits to the highest point in delay space, and therefore trying to fill in the flagged data in frequency. We restrict these CLEAN components to fall within 100 ns of the horizon limit for a given baseline.

For the 30m baseline used, the cutoff corresponds

#### 4.8. *optimal Fringe-rate filter*

Before forming power spectra we need to time average visibilities that measure the same  $k$  mode on the sky. This is the best way to combine data because we get a  $\sqrt{N}$ , where  $N$  is the number of samples, gain in sensitivity. This is in opposition to weighting after forming power spectra, where noise beats down as the  $\sqrt{N}$ . Rather than a straight averaging in time, we can do better by using a weighted average. Specifically, we want to upweight samples that have higher signal-to-noise.

This is achieved by applying a carefully crafted filter in fringe rate domain, the fourier dual to time. Different patches on the sky correspond to different fringe rates, for a given baseline and frequency. Maximum fringe rates are found along the equatorial plane where zero fringe rates are found around the poles (sources at the poles do not move through the fringes of a baseline). Sources on the other side of the pole, corresponds to negative fringe rates, because they move through the fringe pattern in the opposite direction. By weighing the fringe rates sampled by a baseline by the beam response of the baseline, gives us the optimal fringe rate filter to use for time averaging. See Parsons/Liu 2014 for a detailed discussion.

We implement the optimal fringe rate filter by first calculating the fringe rate of every point on the sky and weighting it the beam of a given baseline, summing along constant fringe rate contours. This is then squared to get the effective sensitivity of each fringe rate bin (squaring the power beam). That is we are upweighting fringe rate bins that have greater signal-to-noise. We then fit a gaussian to the optimal filter to have a smooth function, along with tanh function for to have a smooth cut off at the maximum fringe rate for the given baseline and frequency. Note that this only calculated for a given frequency and scaled to other frequencies, due to the fact that fringe rate scales linearly with frequency via

$$f_{max} = \frac{|b_{eq}|}{c}\omega_{\oplus}\nu \quad (3)$$

To minimize edge effects in time we fourier transform the optimal fringe rate filter to get the time domain convolution kernel and apply it to each visibility for a given channel and baseline.

The exact implementation of the optimal fringe rate filter, uses a convolution kernel of 400 integrations (should we be??). This has the effect of denoising the data as if it averaged over 4.75 hours with a weighing function that is the beam weighted fringe rate. For each of the baseline types used ( 30 m baselines of different orientations).

Since the PAPER beam is 45 degrees, and the array is located at a declination of  $-30^\circ$  the fringe rates associated with the low signal to noise (down in the beam) correspond to very high and very low/negative fringe rates. Figure ?? shows a cut of the optimal fringe rate at MHz for a 30 m east west baseline. Therefore, the implemented fringe rate filter removes some sky signal, signal associated with fringe rates outside of the ranges shown in Figure ?? . Figure ?? shows that the applied filter removes sky associated with negative fringe rates and very high fringe rates.

## 5. RESULTS

## 6. SCIENCE

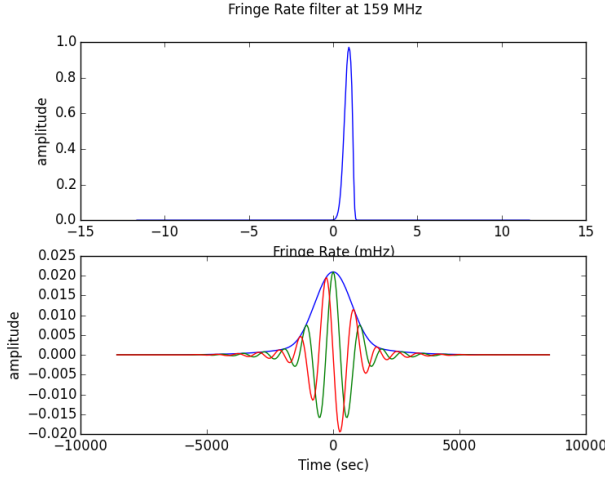


FIG. 2.— slice of a fringe rate filter at a frequency of 159MHz

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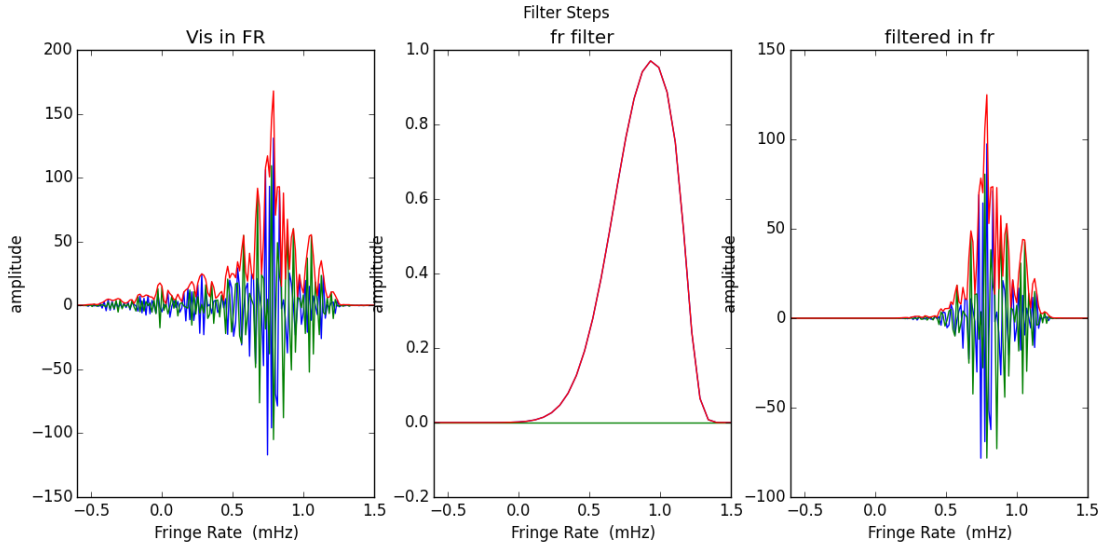


FIG. 3.— slice of a fringe rate filter at a frequency of 159MHz

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## 7. CONCLUSIONS

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