SIGNATURES OF FOREGROUND SKY IN POWER SPECTRA OF REDSHIFTED NEUTRAL HYDROGEN FROM THE EPOCH OF REIONIZATION

NITHYANANDAN THYAGARAJAN¹, DANIEL C. JACOBS¹, JUDD D. BOWMAN¹, A. P. BEARDSLEY², B. J. HAZELTON², M. F. MORALES², J. POBER², I. S. SULLIVAN², T. PRABU³, G. BERNARDI⁴, F. BRIGGS⁵, R. J. CAPPALLO⁶, B. E. COREY⁶, A. A. DESHPANDE³, D. EMRICH⁷, B. M. GAENSLER^{8,9}, R. GOEKE¹⁰, L. J. GREENHILL¹¹, M. JOHNSTON-HOLLITT¹², D. L. KAPLAN¹³, J. C. KASPER^{14,11}, E. KRATZENBERG⁶, C. J. LONSDALE⁶, M. J. LYNCH⁷, S. R. MCWHIRTER⁶, D. A. MITCHELL^{15,9}, E. MORGAN¹⁰, D. OBEROI¹⁶, S. M. ORD^{7,9}, A. E. E. ROGERS⁶, A. ROSHI¹⁷, N. UDAYA SHANKAR³, K. S. SRIVANI³, R. SUBRAHMANYAN^{3,9}, S. J. TINGAY^{7,9}, M. WATERSON^{7,5}, R. B. WAYTH^{7,9}, R. L. WEBSTER^{18,9}, A. R. WHITNEY⁶, A. WILLIAMS⁷, C. L. WILLIAMS¹⁰

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ABSTRACT

Detection of 21 cm H_I emission from the Epoch of Reionization (EoR), at redshifts z > 6, is limited primarily by foreground emission. With much of the information coming from the spectral line that maps to distance along line of sight (cosmic time), foregrounds affecting the spectral domain deserve close attention. We investigate in detail the chromatic signatures of an all-sky foreground model imprinted by its spectral structure and instrumental transfer function. We use an antenna pair based delay spectrum technique. Besides confirming foreground contamination is predominantly restricted to a wedge-shaped region in Fourier space, we demonstrate that the foreground signatures which have the largest impact on the HI signal via spillover outside the wedge arise from power received far away from the primary field of view. Comparing data from recent Murchison Widefield Array (MWA) observations with simulations broken down by sky position and type of emission, we identify diffuse emission near the horizon as the largest contributing factor even on wide antenna spacings relative to compact objects, hitherto unpredicted. These roles are switched in and around the primary field of view. This imprints a pitchfork on the wedge in Fourier space. The observation that the brightest contaminants are localized and only effect a fraction of the baselines leads us to propose that by down-weighting certain baselines at certain times, a large fraction of foreground contamination can be mitigated.

Keywords: large-scale structure of Universe — methods: statistical — radio continuum: galaxies radio lines: general — reionization — techniques: interferometric

¹ School of Earth and Space Exploration, Arizona Tempe, State University, AZ 85287, USA: t_nithyanandan@asu.edu

² Department of Physics, University of Washington, Seattle,

WA 98195, USA

³ Raman Research Institute, Bangalore 560080, India

⁴ Square Kilometre Array South Africa (SKA SA), Cape Town 7405, South Africa

Research School of Astronomy and Astrophysics, Australian National University, Canberra, ACT 2611, Australia

MIT Haystack Observatory, Westford, MA 01886, USA ⁷ International Centre for Radio Astronomy Research, Curtin University, Bentley, WA 6102, Australia

⁸ Sydney Institute for Astronomy, School of Physics, The University of Sydney, NSW 2006, Australia

ARC Centre of Excellence for All-sky Astrophysics (CAAS-TRO)

¹⁰ Kavli Institute for Astrophysics and Space Research, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA 02139,

USA $^{11}\,\mathrm{Harvard\text{-}Smithsonian}$ Center for Astrophysics, Cambridge, MA 02138, USA

12 School of Chemical & Physical Sciences, Victoria University

of Wellington, Wellington 6140, New Zealand

13 Department of Physics, Univ Milwaukee, Milwaukee, WI 53201, USA

¹⁴ Department of Atmospheric, Oceanic and Space Sciences, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA

⁵ CSIRO Astronomy and Space Science (CASS), PO Box 76, Epping, NSW 1710, Australia

National Centre for Radio Astrophysics, Tata Institute for Fundamental Research, Pune 411007, India

National Radio Astronomy Observatory, Charlottesville and Greenbank, USA

¹⁸ School of Physics, The University of Melbourne, Parkville, VIC 3010, Australia

1. INTRODUCTION

After the CMB epoch, the period in the history of the universe often referred to as the dark ages, followed the epoch of reionization (EoR). This was a period of nonlinear growth of density perturbations and astrophysical evolution. Studying the epoch of reionization holds the key to understanding this evolution. Recently, observing the redshifted 21 cm spin transition of neutral hydrogen has emerged as a very promising experiment to fill the gaps in our understanding of the universe's history.

Sensitive instruments such as the Square Kilometer Array (SKA) are required for direct observation and tomography of redshifted HI. Numerous precursors to the SKA such as the Murchison Widefield Array (MWA; Lonsdale et al. 2009; Tingay et al. 2013), the Low Frequency Array (LOFAR; van Haarlem et al. 2013), and the Precision Array for Probing the Epoch of Reionization (PAPER; Parsons et al. 2010) have become operational with enough sensitivity for a statistical detection of the EoR HI power spectrum.

Perhaps the key challenge in the statistical detection of power spectrum of the redshifted HI signal arises from the contamination by Galactic and extragalactic foregrounds (see, e.g., Di Matteo et al. 2002; Zaldarriaga et al. 2004; Furlanetto et al. 2006). Morales & Hewitt (2004) show that the inherent isotropy and symmetry of the EoR signal in frequency and spatial wavenumber (k) space make it distinguishable from sources of contamination which are isolated to certain k modes by virtue of their inherent spectral smoothness(Morales et al. 2006; Bowman et al. 2009; Liu & Tegmark 2011; Parsons et al. 2012; Dillon et al. 2013). Considerable effort has been made towards understanding the k-space behavior foreground signatures in the observed power spectrum (Thyagarajan et al. 2013; Pober et al. 2013; Morales et al. 2012; Trott et al. 2012; Datta et al. 2010; Bowman et al. 2009). A general model of how smooth spectrum foregrounds are scattered to higher k-modes by the wide-field response of the instrument, into the so-called 'wedge', has emerged that provides a high level explanation for the observed foreground power spectrum. The conservative foreground strategy that has developed alongside this work is to discard k-modes which could be contaminated (Avoidance). The more aggressive alternative is to subtract a sky model and regain access to modes lost by Avoidance. In both cases, which parts of the sky are most critical to either Avoid or Subtract has remained largely uncertain. Here we will focus primarily on the Avoidance strategy, focusing on identifying foreground components most likely to "leak" from foreground modes to EoR modes.

Foregrounds leak into the EoR HI power spectrum by either having intrinsic spectral variability, high instrumental chromaticity, or through approximations in power spectrum analysis. To decouple from possible analysis effects, such as those pointed out by Hazelton et al. (2013), we compute power spectra using the individual antenna pair based approach of Pober et al. (2013); Parsons et al. (2014). This approximates the power spectrum as the inverse fourier transform of the spectra generated by the correlator.

Matching real observations from the Murchison Widefield Array Epoch of Reionization observing program with instrumental simulations of the entire known sky we examine the signature of the power spectrum of each baseline. We confirm that the foregrounds most likely to obfuscate the Epoch of Reionization power are not caused by emission central field of view but rather from near the horizon. We also find that the smooth galactic emission plays a larger role then previously thought. We quantify this contamination by breaking the simulations down by sky region and type of emission. Using these we arrive at a new method for minimizing the contribution of bright foregrounds which uses prior knowledge of the sky to downweight badly contaminated baselines.

In §2 we introduce the delay spectrum technique, then in §3, §3.2, and §3.3 we describe the MWA setup, summarize the observing parameters and present the resulting data. Simulations of these observing parameters are described in §4 and analyzed by sky location, and type of emission in §5. §7 offers a discussion along with a basic comparison to other current and future instruments. §8 offers conclusions and an initial description of a more precise foreground avoidance technique.

2. DELAY SPECTRUM

Interferometer array data known as visibilities, $V_f(\overline{\mathbf{u}}, f)$, represent correlations between time-series of electric fields measured by different antenna pairs with separation vectors $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ and then Fourier transformed along time axis to obtain a spectrum along frequency (f) axis. Here, $\overline{\mathbf{u}} \equiv \overline{\mathbf{x}} f/c \equiv \overline{\mathbf{x}}/\lambda$, c is the speed of light and λ is the wavelength. $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ is related to transverse spatial frequency modes $(\overline{\mathbf{k}}_{\perp})$ of brightness distribution of the sky as $\overline{\mathbf{k}}_{\perp} \equiv 2\pi \overline{\mathbf{u}}/D(z)$, where D(z) is the transverse comoving distance at a redshift z. If $I(\bar{\mathbf{l}}, f)$ is the emission at different frequencies on the sky as a function of direction unit vector ($\overline{\mathbf{l}}$) specified as direction cosines, $V_f(\overline{\mathbf{u}}, f)$ represents the Fourier decomposition of $I(\bar{\mathbf{l}}, f)$ attenuated by the antenna's angular power pattern $A(\bar{\mathbf{l}}, f)$, into transverse spatial frequency modes. Taking into account the instrumental bandpass weights $W_f(f)$, this relation can be written as:

$$V_f(\overline{\mathbf{u}}, f) = \int A(\overline{\mathbf{l}}, f) I(\overline{\mathbf{l}}, f) W_f(f) e^{-i2\pi \overline{\mathbf{u}} \cdot \overline{\mathbf{l}}} d^2 \overline{\mathbf{l}}.$$
 (1)

We define the *delay spectrum* $V_{\eta}(\overline{\mathbf{u}}, \eta)$ to be the inverse Fourier transform of $V_f(\overline{\mathbf{u}}, f)$ along the frequency coordinate:

$$V_{\eta}(\overline{\mathbf{u}}, \eta) = \int V_{f}(\overline{\mathbf{u}}, f) W_{f}'(f) e^{i2\pi\eta f} df, \qquad (2)$$

where, $W_f'(f)$ is a frequency window weighting function which can be chosen to control the quality of the delay spectrum (Thyagarajan et al. 2013; Vedantham et al. 2012). η represents the signal delay between the antenna pairs in an interferometer given by:

$$\eta = \frac{\overline{\mathbf{x}} \cdot \overline{\mathbf{l}}}{c} = \frac{\overline{\mathbf{u}} \cdot \overline{\mathbf{l}}}{f}.$$
 (3)

The terms delay and lag are used interchangeably in this paper.

Since we are studying a redshifted HI spectral line, f is a measure of cosmological distance along the line of sight.

Consequently, η is a measure of line of sight spatial frequency mode, k_{\parallel} . Thus, $|V_{\eta}(\overline{\mathbf{u}}, \eta)|^2$ is directly related to the spatial power spectrum of redshifted HI distribution, $|V(\overline{\mathbf{k}}_{\perp}, k_{\parallel})|^2$. However, foreground objects emit in radio frequencies and contaminate the signals from the redshifted HI. Due to their spatial and spectral properties, $V_{\eta}(\overline{\mathbf{u}}, \eta)$ also contains contamination from foreground radio sources (Thyagarajan et al. 2013; Trott et al. 2012; Morales et al. 2012; Bowman et al. 2009). These contaminations have to be characterized precisely in order to reduce their impact on redshifted HI power spectrum detection sensitivity.

In summary, $V_{\eta}(\overline{\mathbf{u}}, \eta)$, is closely related to visibilities, $V_f(\overline{\mathbf{u}}, f)$, the basic data blocks measured by each antenna pair, as seen from equation 2. It captures all the effects of EoR HI signal corruption caused by foregrounds and the instrument. At the same time, it is very closely related to the sought power $|V(\overline{\mathbf{k}}_{\perp}, k_{\parallel})|^2$ in k-modes containing critical information about spatial scales. For our analysis, we use an equivalent quantity, $V_{\eta}(\overline{\mathbf{x}}, \eta) \equiv V_{\eta}(\lambda \overline{\mathbf{u}}, \eta)$. For purposes of illustration, we often use a simplified quantity $|V_{\eta}(|\overline{\mathbf{x}}|, \eta)|$.

We now describe in detail an important ingredient, the MWA instrument.

3. MURCHISON WIDEFIELD ARRAY OBSERVATIONS

3.1. The MWA

The MWA was completed in 2012, and after commissioning, began its EoR observing program in 2013. In its final configuration the MWA is a 128–tile interferometer array capable of observing a 30 MHz band anywhere in the range 80–300 MHz. Each tile is a phased array of 16 dipoles each in the shape of a bow–tie characterized by a grating response with a $\sim 25^{\circ}$ wide primary field of view and multiple secondary side lobes. The tile arrangement is a centrally condensed core of $\sim 300~\text{m}$ — there are many spacings in the range 5–50 m — and a radial density that falls off as the inverse of the radius with the longest baselines at 3 km (Beardsley et al. 2012). Here we focus on antenna spacings $|\overline{\mathbf{x}}| \leq 200~\text{m}$ (spatial scales relevant to reionization) and a frequency range 170–200 MHz.

One important feature of the MWA's measured spectrum is the shape of its bandpass. The band is divided coarsely into 24 chunks with each chunk weighted by a digital filter. The channels at the edges of these chunks have been flagged because they are known to possibly be contaminated by aliasing at a low level. Any spectral flags, or other known weights constitutes $W_f(f)$ in equation 1. The bandpass properties used in this paper are illustrated in figure 1.

Thermal noise in simulated visibilities is estimated assuming a system temperature of $T_{\rm sys}=90~\rm K$ per polarization for all frequency channels for all antenna pairs throughout the course of observation. We take into account the increase in thermal uncertainty in frequency channels that results due to aforementioned bandpass correction. (Since the bandpass correction is digital, shouldn't the noise stay flat after bandpass correction?)

3.2. Observation Parameters

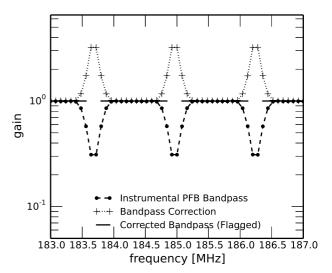


Figure 1. Bandpass properties used in modeling and analysis of delay spectrum of MWA visibilities. The filled circles joined by dotted lines show the 8–tap PFB bandpass shapes obtained using a Kaiser window with parameter $\beta=5$. The plus symbols joined by dashed lines are the bandpass correction factors. The solid line shows the flagged (gaps) and gain–corrected bandpass shape, $W_f(f)$. These shapes are repeated every 1.28 MHz for the entire bandwidth of 30.72 MHz centered around 185 MHz.

One of the primary targets for EoR observing with the MWA is a patch of sky centered around RA = 00h $00 \text{m} \ 00.00 \text{s}$, $Dec = -30^{\circ} \ 00^{\circ} \ 00^{\circ} \ 00^{\circ}$. This is one of the regions of low foreground emission within 27° from the zenith. The MWA tracks a patch of sky through antenna beams formed and steered electronically by controlling delay settings of an array of dipoles in a MWA tile. These beamformer delay settings can be changed only in discrete steps. The sky is allowed to drift for a certain period of time (usually ~ 30 mins) before the discrete shifts in the beamformer delay settings position the beam to be centered again on the same patch of sky. This process is repeated throughout the course of the observation ≈ 4.86 hours. Figure 2 illustrates how the apparent pointing oscillates around the desired pointing direction.

The LST of two snapshots we chose for our study are shown as vertical lines at -1.92 hours (i.e., 22.08 hours) and 0.09 hours which are hereafter denoted as off-zenith and zenith pointings respectively. These pointings (phased array power patterns) are centered at RA = $4^{\circ}.387$, Dec = $-29^{\circ}.86$ and RA = $-28^{\circ}.8$, Dec = $-26^{\circ}.701$, whereas the visibilities themselves are phased to zenith corresponding to RA = $-28^{\circ}.8$, Dec = $-26^{\circ}.701$, and RA = $1^{\circ}.35$, Dec = $-26^{\circ}.701$ respectively.

The observations reported here were observed, near the beginning of the campaign, on Aug 23, 2013. This day has been chosen as a reference data set for comparison within the MWA EoR collaboration. This day was selected on the basis of low number of known system errors from among a long stretch of stable observing.

Throughout this paper, $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ and $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ are assumed to be on a coordinate system aligned with the local east, north

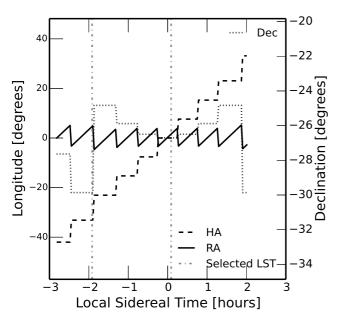


Figure 2. MWA tile beam pointing directions during the course of the observation. The x-axis refers to the Local Sidereal Time (LST) in hours. The axis on the left refers to longitudes, namely, Right Ascension (RA) and Hour Angle (HA) in degrees. Negative values of RA, HA, and LST are to be interpreted as having been wrapped around by 360° or 24 hours. The axis on the right refers to the declination of the pointing direction. The RA, HA, and declination are plotted with solid, dashed and dotted line styles respectively. A "drift and shift" scheme is used. The sky is allowed to drift for ~ 30 mins before the beamformer delay settings change in a discrete step to center the beam around RA = 00h 00m 00.00s, Dec = -30° 00′ 00″0. Dot—dashed vertical lines show the LST of off-zenith and zenith pointings used in our study.

(along local meridian) and upward directions at the MWA site. For the conventions of Fourier transform and its inverse we use in this paper, in accordance with equation 3, signals from the sky towards east and north are recorded with positive delays on eastward and northward oriented antenna spacings respectively. For instance, at the beginning of the observation, the Galactic center is in the westward sky just about to set. Signals from this direction are recorded with a negative delay on baselines whose antenna spacings are oriented towards the east. Similarly, signals from directions eastward of the local meridian arrive with positive delays on eastward oriented antenna spacings.

For geometrical intuition, we restrict the orientation (θ_b) , measured anti-clockwise from East) of all antenna spacings to lie in the range $-67^{\circ}.5 \leq \theta_b < 112^{\circ}.5$. Antenna pairs with spacings oriented in the other half-plane measure conjugate visibilities with delays of equal magnitude but of opposite sign and hence are ignored in our analysis.

3.3. Data Analysis

The data are flagged for interference (Offringa et al. 2012, 2010), removing $\sim 3\%$ of the data. These are averaged in time and frequency to 2s and 40kHz respectively.

3.4. Imaging and deconvolution

Describe the FHD data analysis up to the point of getting calibrated visibilities here.

3.5. Deconvolution along Delay Axis

We obtain the delay spectrum of these calibrated visibilities using equation 2 while choosing $W_f'(f)$ to be a Blackman–Harris window function. Due to periodic gaps in frequency bandpass occurring in intervals of 1.28 MHz (see figure 1), the delay spectrum is expected to contain harmonics of actual foreground emission repeated at intervals of 0.78 μ s. Hence, we have employed deconvolution by CLEAN algorithm (Taylor et al. 1999) along the delay axis (Parsons & Backer 2009; Parsons et al. 2012) to rid the delay spectra of such artifacts. The convolving kernel for the algorithm is given by the inverse Fourier transform of the instrumental bandpass shape.

3.6. Delay Spectrum after Delay Deconvolution

We show results of delay spectrum from MWA data after deconvolution along delay axis in figure 3. Boundaries of the foreground wedge are also shown. The off-zenith pointing has emission notably higher than in the zenith pointing inside the wedge boundaries. This is shown later to be due to response of the array to the bright Galactic center and Galactic plane in the westward sky. Consequently, the contamination into the EoR window is also higher. Emission in zenith pointing is more centrally concentrated due to phasing of power pattern to the zenith, whereas the off-zenith pointing has a power pattern phased eastward of zenith and is also responsive to emission from angles far away from zenith.

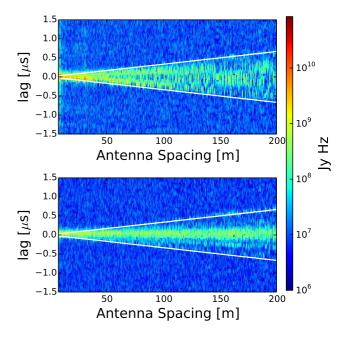


Figure 3. Delay spectrum amplitude, $|V_{\eta}(|\overline{\mathbf{x}}|, \eta)|$ (in units of Jy Hz), obtained with MWA data for off-zenith (top) and zenith (bottom) pointings. White lines mark the boundaries of foreground wedge determined by the horizon delay limit and antenna spacing. The features in the wedge appear to be brighter and the spillover contamination appears to be higher in the off-zenith pointing relative to the zenith pointing due to the presence of brighter foregrounds such as the Galactic center and the Galactic plane. The logarithmic color scale (shown at the right) is common to both panels.

Despite delay deconvolution, we still see leakage beyond the cleaned regions indicating the inability of the deconvolution algorithm to fit the data perfectly. This is predominant at short antenna spacings. This is because the maximum delay envelope (boundary of the wedge) consists of mixed emission from large portions of the sky into a narrow range of delays and the deconvolution algorithm does not have sufficient support in delay space to fit the delay spectrum. However, we wish to emphasize that the purpose of deconvolution is to rid the delay spectra of instrumental artifacts to the best extent possible in order to see the underlying signatures of foreground emission. It is not our intention in this paper to use the deconvolution as a foreground removal tool. Hence, our discussion and conclusions are valid despite imperfections in deconvolution.

4. DELAY SPECTRUM MODELING

We describe power pattern and foreground models we have used in modeling the measured delay spectra.

4.1. Power pattern

The power pattern of a MWA tile, $A(\overline{1}, f)$ in equation 1, over the entire hemisphere is analytically modeled based on a 4×4 phased array of isotropic radiators at a height of 0.3 m above an infinite ground plane. We also assume that the delay corrections during the phased addition of dipole voltages in the beamformer suffer from random fluctuations of rms 0.05 ns. The models of power pattern used in data analysis take into account effects of mutual coupling of dipoles in the tile besides finite ground plane effects. Our models were found to be in reasonable agreement with those used in the data analysis.

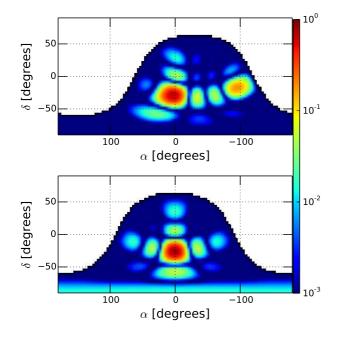


Figure 4. Models of MWA tile power pattern in Right Ascension (α) and Declination (δ) coordinates for the off–zenith (top) and zenith pointings (bottom) at 185 MHz. An MWA tile is modeled as a 4×4 array of isotropic radiators placed 0.3 m above the ground plane. Random fluctutations of rms 0.05 ns have been added to delay corrections during the phased addition of voltages from these isotropic radiators. The logarithmic color scale (shown at the right) is common to both panels.

4.2. Foreground Model

An instrument such as the MWA has a very wide field of view ($\gtrsim 20^{\circ}$ at 185 MHz) for imaging purposes. In the context of EoR HI power spectrum, it has been known that unsubtracted forground sources anywhere in the visible hemisphere up to the horizon directly contaminate the spatial frequency modes in the power spectrum. In addition, this contamination also spills over into the relatively cleaner regions, called EoR window, due to spectral properties of the instrument and the foregrounds (Thyagarajan et al. 2013; Pober et al. 2013; Vedantham et al. 2012; Parsons et al. 2012). Thus, it is important to consider an all-sky model for foreground objects in evaluating the features seen in the power spectrum instead of restricting to the primary field of view.

Beardsley et al. (2013) estimated the sensitivity of the MWA to EoR HI power spectrum detection taking into account theremal noise effects in the *Eor window*. Thyagarajan et al. (2013) estimated the sensitivity taking into account the spillover from foreground contamination from unsubtracted extragalactic point sources in the EoR window besides thermal noise. In this paper, we include the diffuse Galactic emission for enhancing our understanding of foreground signatures in the power spectrum. We use an all-sky foreground emission model that consists of diffuse and bright compact components.

4.2.1. Diffuse Foreground Model

For the diffuse component, we use an all-sky radio foreground model (de Oliveira-Costa et al. 2008) to estimate the emission at 185 MHz. Since this map is predominantly based on the 408 MHz all-sky map of Haslam et al. (1982) which has an angular resolution of 0°.85, we smoothed the 185 MHz diffuse emission map to the same resolution. However, to avoid any artifacts from sampling this map, we sample it at $\approx 27'$ intervals. Using the same source model, we also obtain the diffuse emission maps at 170 MHz and 200 MHz to estimate the spectral index map of the diffuse emission model.

A low resolution version of the diffuse foreground model used is show in figure 5. Contours of the MWA tile power pattern shown in figure 4 are also overlaid. Of notable significance in the off-zenith pointing is the presence of a portion of the Galactic plane and the bright Galactic center in the visible hemisphere in the westward sky and the MWA tile's power receptivity is significantly high ($\gtrsim 0.125$) in that direction. In the zenith pointing, the Galactic plane has almost set and the contour level of power pattern in that direction is at least 16 times lesser.

4.2.2. Compact Foreground Model

We use a combination of NRAO VLA Sky Survey (NVSS; Condon et al. 1998) at 1.4 GHz and Sydney University Molonglo Sky Survey (SUMSS; Bock et al. 1999; Mauch et al. 2003) at 843 MHz due to their matched flux sensitivity and angular resolution, and complimentary survey footprints covering the entire sky. The SUMSS catalog covers the sky with declination $\delta < -30^\circ$ with a limiting peak brightness of 6–10 mJy/beam and an angular resolution of $\sim 45''$. The NVSS covers the sky with $\delta > -40^\circ$ with a similar angular resolution and a limiting flux density of ≈ 2.5 mJy for discrete sources.

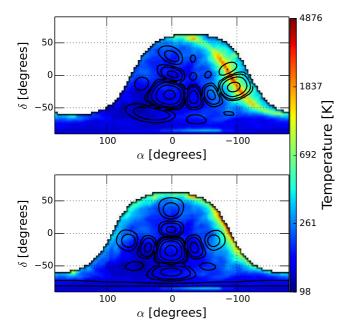


Figure 5. Sky brightness temperature (in K) of the diffuse foreground model at 185 MHz in Right Ascension (α) and Declination (δ) coordinates visible during off–zenith (top) and zenith (bottom) pointings. The color scale on the right is logarithmic and is common to both panels. Contours of power pattern shown in figure 4 are overlaid. The contour levels shown are 0.001953125, 0.0078125, 0.03125, 0.125, and 0.5. The Galactic center and a portion of the Galactic plane are prominently visible during the off–zenith pointing and the MWA tile power receptivity is significant (\gtrsim 0.125) in that direction. In contrast, emission from the Galactic plane in zenith pointing is significantly lesser.

From the SUMSS catalog, we select compact sources whose deconvolved major axes are equal to 0". From the NVSS catalog, we excluded objects that overlap with those in the SUMSS survey footprint. Compact sources from NVSS were selected if the convolved major axes were not greater than ≈ 47 ", which is almost equal to the angular resolution of the survey. Using a mean spectral index of $\langle \alpha_{\rm sp} \rangle = -0.83$ (flux density, $S(f) \propto f^{\alpha_{\rm sp}}$) obtained by Mauch et al. (2003) for both NVSS and SUMSS catalog objects, we calculate the corresponding flux densities at 185 MHz, S_{185} . From this subset, we choose compact objects with $S_{185} \geq 10$ Jy. The selection of such bright compact objects is not affected by minor differences in sensitivity of the two surveys. We verified that our selection criteria ensure a similar areal density of sources in the two surveys.

Based on these criteria, we selected 133 sources from the SUMSS catalog and 336 sources from the NVSS catalog. Together with the diffuse foreground model, we obtain an all-sky foreground model consisting of both compact and diffuse emission.

4.3. Comparison with Data

With the aforementioned all-sky foreground model, and instrumental and observational parameters, we simulate visibilities using equation 1. Figure 7 shows the amplitude of delay spectrum from off-zenith and zenith pointings. Notice the qualitative agreement of amplitude and structure with those obtained from data shown in figure 3. The Galactic center and the Galactic plane

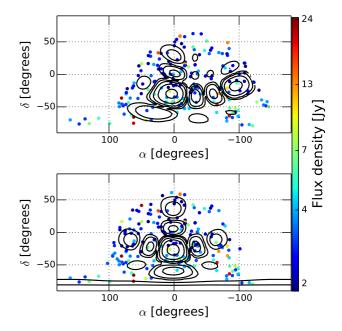


Figure 6. Flux densities (in Jy) of bright compact sources at 185 MHz in Right Ascension (α) and Declination (δ) coordinates visible during off-zenith (top) and zenith (bottom) pointings. The color scale on the right is logarithmic and is common to both panels and corresponds to the color-coded filled circles. Contours of power pattern shown in figure 4 are overlaid. The contour levels shown are 0.001953125, 0.0078125, 0.03125, 0.125, and 0.5. The locations of bright compact sources appear to be random.

visible in the off–zenith pointing make it appear brighter in the foreground wedge.

In order to make a quantitiative comparison of delay spectra obtained with the MWA data and our simulations, we consider the following uncertainties. Our foreground models are derived from other higher frequency catalogs and sky maps. The inherent spread in spectral index increases the uncertainty while predicting fluxes at the observed frequency. Using simple error propagation, the fractional error in the delay spectrum caused by the spread in spectral index is $\sim \ln(f_{\rm orig}/f) \Delta\alpha_{\rm sp}$, where, f_{orig} is the original frequency at which the catalog or map was created, f = 185 MHz is the observed frequency, and $\Delta \alpha_{\rm sp}$ is the spread (HWHM) in spectral index. From Mauch et al. (2003), we assume $\Delta \alpha_{\rm sp} \approx 0.35$ for compact sources from NVSS and SUMSS catalogs. Although the model of de Oliveira-Costa et al. (2008) yields a spectral index per direction on the sky, we assume similar uncertainties exist in spectral indices of our diffuse sky model as well, which is predominantly derived from 408 MHz map of Haslam et al. (1982). Thus, fractional errors in delay spectrum from compact foreground objects and diffuse emission are ~ 0.7 and ~ 0.3 respectively. In addition, delay spectra from simulations and data each have uncertainties due to thermal noise with rms, $\Delta V_{\eta}^{\rm N}(|\overline{\mathbf{x}}|,\eta) \sim$ 1.4×10^7 Jy Hz, where the superscript N stands for thermal noise. We estimate the ratio of delay spectra from data and simulations as, $\rho = |V_{\eta}^{\rm D}(|\overline{\mathbf{x}}|, \eta)| / |V_{\eta}^{\rm S}(|\overline{\mathbf{x}}|, \eta)|$, where superscripts D and S denote data and simulation respectively.

Figure 8 shows histograms of distribution of $\log_{10} \rho$ for the off-zenith (top panel) and zenith (bottom panel)

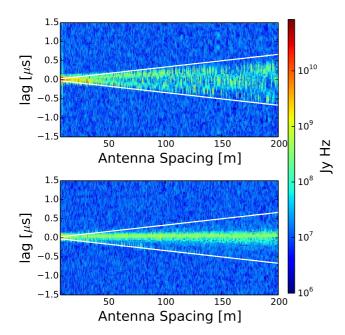


Figure 7. Delay spectrum amplitude, $|V_{\eta}(|\overline{\mathbf{x}}|, \eta)|$ (in units of Jy Hz), obtained with simulations for off-zenith (top) and zenith (bottom) pointings. White lines mark the boundaries of foreground wedge determined by the horizon delay limit and antenna spacing. The features resemble those obtained with MWA data shown in figure 3. The Galactic center and Galactic plane prominently visible in the off-zenith pointing makes the emission in the foreground wedge brighter relative to that in the zenith pointing. The axes and color scale are identical to those in figure 3.

pointings respectively inside the foreground wedge. The median absolute deviation from these distributions correspond to $\sim 90\%$ fractional difference between data and modeling on average in either case. This is in line with aforementioned uncertainties in foreground models and thermal noise in measurements. Currently we are significantly limited by unavailability of all–sky foreground models at the observed frequency of 185 MHz. Availability of an accurate foreground model will improve the agreement of simulations with observed data.

These uncertainties are presented only to confirm the qualitative agreement already seen between figures 3 and 7 and are not intended to serve as a comprehensive estimate of all uncertainties involved. However, since we have not accounted for numerous other uncertainties, especially in the data, such as uncertainties in the antenna power pattern, calibration, radio frequency interference (RFI), and wide field imaging effects, our estimates are conservative. Accounting for such uncertainties will only improve our confidence level in this comparison. Our primary objective is to explore in detail the foreground signatures embedded in the foreground wedge.

5. DELAY SPECTRUM ANALYSIS

Having established that results from modeling match those from data, we proceed to examine in further detail the signatures seen in the modeled delay spectra.

A number of factors are responsible for the characteristics noted in the delay spectra obtained from data and through modeling. We address these factors below:

• Sky Model: Our model of the sky consists of bright compact sources and diffuse emission on diverse

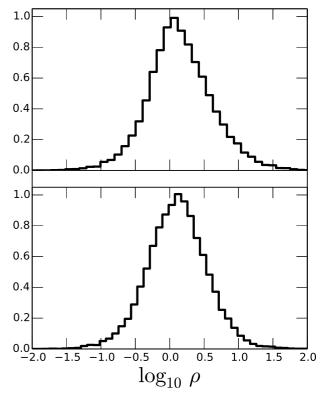


Figure 8. Histogram of logarithm of ratio of observed to simulated visibilities restricted to the *foreground wedge* for the *offzenith* (top) and *zenith* (bottom) pointings. Median absolute deviations of $\log_{10}\rho$ are 0.29 and 0.27 respectively. A value of zero indicates when the ratio $\rho=1$.

spatial scales as seen from figures 5 and 6. It also consists of localized regions of strong emission such as the Galactic plane and Galactic center. The resulting sky emission is anisotropic. In fact, the patch of sky for MWA observations is chosen from regions of low foreground emission. In our detailed study, we have divided the transiting sky into four different "bow-tie" shaped regions with equal areas around zenith as the origin. This results in the ability to attribute the features in the delay spectrum to eight different sectors of the sky.

- Antenna Pair Orientation: Since the spatial structure of our foreground model is not expected to be isotropic, we divide our antenna pairs by their orientation (θ_b) measured counter-clockwise from East. We use the following bins: −67°.5 ≤ θ_b < −22°.5, −22°.5 ≤ θ_b < 22°.5, 22°.5 ≤ θ_b < 67°.5, and 67°.5 ≤ θ_b < 112°.5. The bin centers are oriented towards South-East, East, North-East, and North respectively. Since delays depend on antenna pair orientation, binning by interferometer orientation allows us to match delay spectrum features to different sky directions.
- Tile Pointing and Power Pattern: Since the MWA tiles are steered electronically, the power pattern of the tile changes in any observing mode that tracks the source. Our observations consist of a combination of allowing the sky to drift and tracking the sky. In our study, we take into account the effect

- of changing power pattern of the antennas on the delay spectrum (figure 4). The LST of our data ranges from ~ 21 hours through ~ 2 hours, and for our analysis we chose *off-zenith* and *zenith* pointings shown in figure 2.
- Instrumental Passband: The instrumental passband characteristics have a direct effect on the delay transform owing to a Fourier relationship between the two. Due to excision of noisy and aliased edge channels repeated in each coarse channel of our passband, we saw repeated patterns of the foreground wedge in the delay spectra. As already mentioned earlier, we have used the deconvolution algorithm (CLEAN) to rid the delay spectra of band shape effects. Since this paper focuses on studying the effects of foreground on the delay spectra, we do not pursue the characterization of artifacts from the band shape and imperfections in CLEAN deconvolution.

The foreground signatures we henceforth identify in the delay spectrum are characterized as arising out of the aforementioned factors. Due to numerous combinations of such factors, we use unique annotations to characterize these signatures.

It may be noted that numerous features overlap at varying levels of significance as a result of various combinations of parameters. We assign the features to their predominant causes. Secondly, we have used noiseless cases to clearly illustrate the observed foreground signatures. With the addition of noise in the visibilities which is subject to observing time, some of the weaker features may not be as prominently visible. Since the foreground signatures are far too numerous and they reside in a vast volume of parameter space such as antenna pair orientation, power pattern, patch of sky under observation, and instrumental configuration, we highlight only some examples of the most notable features observed in the delay spectrum of foreground emission.

5.1. Diffuse Foregrounds

Figure 9 shows the amplitude of delay spectrum, $|V_{\eta}(|\overline{\mathbf{x}}|, \eta)|$, simulated with the diffuse foreground model. The top and bottom panels correspond to *off-zenith* and *zenith* pointings respectively.

Here we examine in detail some examples of interesting features observed with the diffuse foreground model.

5.1.1. Galactic Center on Eastward Antenna Spacings

The most prominent signature seen in the off–zenith pointing (top panel of figure 9) is due to the bright Galactic center situated on the far west on one of the sidelobes of the power pattern. It appears as a bright branch in the delay spectrum near the negative delay horizon delay limit. This feature is strongest at short antenna spacings and fades with increase in antenna spacing. This Galactic center signature is almost invisible in the zenith pointing because the Galactic center has already set over the horizon (see bottom panel in figure 9).

$5.1.2.\ \ Diffuse\ Emission$

Diffuse emission from the main lobe of the power patterns manifests as a branch at the top with positive delays and a zero-delay horizontal branch in the off-zenith

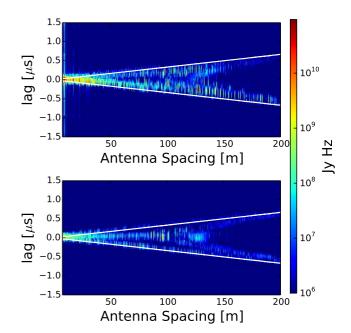


Figure 9. Delay spectrum amplitude, $|V_{\eta}(|\overline{\mathbf{x}}|, \eta)|$ (in units of Jy Hz), obtained with simulations for off-zenith (top) and zenith (bottom) pointings for the diffuse foreground model without any thermal noise. White lines mark the boundaries of foreground wedge determined by the horizon delay limit and antenna spacing. The logarithmic color scale is common to both panels. In the zenith pointing, diffuse emission delay spectrum has a two-pronged fork-shaped structure and is present even at wide antenna spacings.

and zenith pointings respectively, seen in figure 9. The former is seen at positive delays because the main lobe of the power pattern is centered eastward of zenith, whereas in the latter it is centered at zenith. The horizontal arm in the zenith pointing fades away on antenna spacings wider than $\gtrsim 125$ m indicating that the diffuse emission is devoid of spatial structures on scales $\lesssim 0^{\circ}.75$.

5.1.3. Diffuse Emission on Wide Antenna Spacings

A very interesting signature of diffuse emission is revealed at regions near the positive horizon delay limit in the off-zenith pointing and at both positive and negative horizon delay limits in the zenith pointing even on wide antenna spacings (125 m $\lesssim \overline{\mathbf{x}} \leq 200$ m) contrary to expectations, which are not expected to be sensitive to diffuse emission. We claim this is because wide antenna spacings appear shortened due to projection effects when sensitivity towards off-axis emission, especially towards the horizon, is concerned. It naturally holds for short antenna spacings as well. Thus, diffuse emission from far off-axis directions manifests as an edge-heavy twopronged fork across all antenna spacings. It decreases in strength with increasing antenna spacing as expected but is present in all orientations of the antenna spacing vector. This contributes to a pitchfork-shaped feature which will be discussed later in §5.3.1 in more detail.

5.2. Compact Foregrounds

Figure 10 shows the delay spectrum arising out of our compact objects sky model for *off-zenith* and *zenith* pointings (shown in figure 6) in the top and bottom panels respectively.

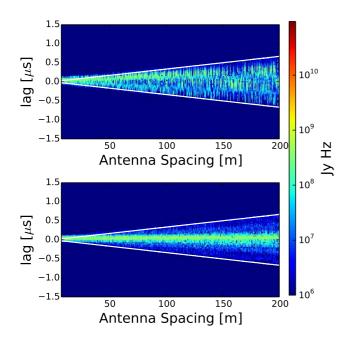


Figure 10. Delay spectrum amplitude, $|V_{\eta}(|\overline{\mathbf{x}}|,\eta)|$ (in units of Jy Hz), obtained with simulations for off-zenith (top) and zenith (bottom) pointings for the compact objects foreground model without any thermal noise. White lines mark the boundaries of foreground wedge determined by the horizon delay limit and antenna spacing. The logarithmic color scale is identical to that in figure 9. Emission from compact objects gives rise to centrally concentrated features in the foreground wedge.

In contrast to delay spectrum of diffuse emission, compact emission manifests as a center–heavy structure in the delay spectrum with either pointing. This contributes to the *pitchfork* feature which will be discussed in detail in §5.3.1. Below we summarize some specific notable features obtained with our compact objects foreground model.

5.2.1. Compact Emission in Power Pattern Main Lobe

Since the main lobe of the power pattern in the off-zenith pointing is centered eastward of zenith, bulk of the compact foreground emission is seen in a branch with positive delay but short of the positive horizon delay limit. Compact emission from the same patch of sky is seen as a bright horizontal arm at zero delay in the zenith pointing since the main lobe of the power pattern is centered at zenith.

5.2.2. Compact Emission in Power Pattern Sidelobes

Foreground emission in zero delay and negative delay regions in the *off-zenith* pointing is caused by compact objects co-located with sidelobes of the power pattern. On the other hand, compact objects co-located with sidelobes of power pattern in the *zenith* pointing are revealed as distinct but faint branches at positive and negative delays depending on the orientation of antenna spacing and direction of emission on the sky.

5.3. All-Sky Composite Foreground Model

Delay spectra from the all-sky foreground model in our study display a composite feature set drawn from the features of compact and diffuse foreground models. Here we

compare the relative strengths of emission from different spatial scales in our all-sky composite foreground model.

5.3.1. Pitchfork Effect

Excluding the bright emission from the Galactic center which is heavily dependent on the sky location pointed to by the antenna, delay spectrum resulting from the all–sky composite foreground model consists of signatures already noted in the diffuse and compact foreground cases. This is illustrated by a microscopic examination of the zenith pointing in our study.

Figure 11 shows delay spectra of three antenna pairs of different antenna spacings oriented northward during the zenith pointing. The diffuse, compact, and composite components are are shown as dotted, dashed, and solid lines respectively. The horizon delay limits are shown as vertical dot—dashed lines. The gray shaded area denotes the envelope of expected uncertainty in the delay spectrum. This uncertainty is dominated by the spread in spectral index of compact foreground objects inside the foreground wedge (between the horizon delay limits) proprotional to the delay spectrum from compact objects, and by thermal noise outside the horizon delay limits.

The zero–delay peak (corresponding to the main lobe in the power pattern) with a value of $\sim 10^8$ – 10^9 Jy Hz, independent of antenna spacing, is predominantly determined by compact foreground objects. The corresponding peak at zero–delay from diffuse foreground model is at least 10 times fainter and decreases drastically with increase in antenna spacing. This is the response expected from different antenna spacings towards compact and diffuse foreground objects.

Near the horizon delay limits at shorter antenna spacing, diffuse emission is brighter than that from compact objects. With increasing antenna spacing, although diffuse and compact components of emission become comparable, diffuse emission does not decrease as rapidly as seen at zero–delay. In fact, even with widely spaced antennas, diffuse emission in the delay spectrum near the horizon delay limits exceeds that in the main lobe by more than two orders of magnitude. This is due to apparent shortening of antenna spacing owing to projection effects while receiving emission from wide off–axis directions. This demonstrates the edge–heavy two–pronged fork feature discussed in §5.1.3.

The resulting delay spectrum from a composite foreground model that combines diffuse and compact object emission consists of center-heavy features on all antenna spacings from compact objects and edge-heavy features from both components especially diffuse emission even on wide antenna spacings. Henceforth, we call this as the *pitchfork* structure in the *foreground* wedge.

All these observations are consistent with those from figures 9 and 10. The observability of the predicted pitch-fork signature depends on the relative levels of uncertainty in the foreground model and thermal noise. In our simulations, since thermal noise is $\gtrsim 10^7$ Jy Hz, and features near the horizon delay limits are $\sim 10^7$ Jy Hz, the pitchfork feature is not expected to be detected in a noisy scenario although this feature is marginally visible in the zenith pointing of the observed data (see figure 3). We attribute this to differences between our foreground model and the actual sky. However, with improvements to the foreground model and instrument configuration

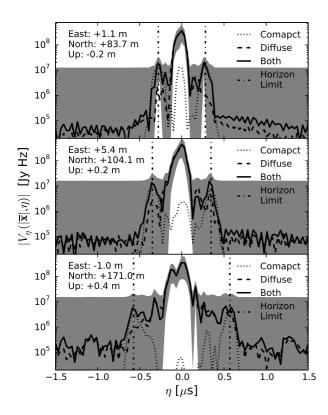


Figure 11. Absolute value of delay spectrum, $|V_{\eta}(\overline{\mathbf{x}}, \eta)|$, for three chosen antenna spacings, ${\sim}84$ m (top), ${\sim}105$ m (middle), and ${\sim}170$ m (bottom). The antenna spacing vector is specified in each panel along East, North and Upward directions. The dotted, dashed and solid lines denote contributions from diffuse emission, compact objects and composite foreground model respectively. The dot–dashed lines mark the horizon delay limits. The shaded region denotes the envelope of uncertainty around expected values for composite model. This uncertainty is dictated by uncertainties in spectral indices of foreground models inside the delay horizon delay limits. Outside the horizon delay limits, it is predominantly due to thermal noise. Compact objects dominate the central regions of power spectrum while both components, especially diffuse emission on short antenna spacings, dominate near the horizon delay limits, giving rise to a pitchfork–shaped structure.

that can reduce thermal noise and other systematic uncertainties, we are confident the *pitchfork* signature in delay spectrum will be observed with high significance.

We also note that increasing the antenna spacing results in progressively improving the resolution along delay axis by increasing the number of delay bins inside the foreground wedge. This improves the localization of foreground objects whose signatures are imprinted in the delay spectrum. For instance, there is an increase in the number of secondary peaks in the delay spectrum between zero-delay and horizon delay limits as antenna spacing increases from ~ 84 m to ~ 170 m. In this case, these correspond to sidelobes of the power pattern that lie between the main lobe and the horizon along the North-South direction. In short antenna spacings, due to relatively lower resolution along delay axis inside the foreground wedge and a consequent loss of localization of direction of foreground emission, these secondary peaks blend in with other major peaks and are not distinctly

visible. These findings are consistent with dicussion in $\S 5.2.2$.

In summary, the brightest signature ($\gtrsim 10^{10}$ Jy Hz) is that of the Galactic center in the off-zenith pointing colocated at a westward sidelobe with a significantly high gain. The next brightest signature ($\sim 10^8 - \sim 10^9 \text{ Jy Hz}$) is caused by compact emission appearing to be concentrated in the inner regions of the foreground wedge (near zero delays) rather than towards the edges. Diffuse emission co-located at the main lobe of the power pattern is fainter by approximately an order of magnitude relative to compact emission from the same region for a ~ 84 m antenna spacing but unlike the latter, diffuse emission decreases rapidly by over two orders of magnitude as antenna spacing is widened to ~ 170 m. However, diffuse emission is significantly high near horizon delay limits compared to main lobe of the power pattern as antenna spacing is widened. This leads to edge—heavy features in the delay spectrum. Complemented by the center-heavy compact foreground features, we have demosntrated the presence of a three-pronged pitchfork-shaped signature in the delay spectrum of foreground sky.

6. SCREENING OF SEVERE FOREGROUND CONTAMINATED INTERFEROMETERS

The delay spectrum, $V_{\eta}(\overline{\mathbf{x}}, \eta)$, not only carries information on spatial scales of foreground emission but also offers a unique advantage of viewing the sky through a combination of antenna spacing vector and the delay axis. This allows us to programmatically screen data for antenna spacings that are severly contaminated by foregrounds which can be weighted appropriately during data analysis. While the *foreground wedge* is a region of high foreground contamination, of particular interest to the EoR community is foreground contamination near horizon delay limits. These regions are responsible for significant spillover into the relatively clean EoR window due to spectral response of the instrument and foregrounds.

With a foreground model known a priori in which locations of very bright foreground objects such as the Galactic center or AGN are available, we can predict their response across antenna spacings as a function of observing parameters such as LST, power pattern, etc. Specifically, we can pick antenna pairs where these bright foreground objects will be visible at delays near horizon delay limits. One such example is already provided in our study. The Galactic center is the most dominant source of foreground contamination in the off-zenith pointing. Since it is located in the western sky, it is most distinctly seen near the negative horizon delay limit on eastward oriented antenna spacings in the delay spectrum (see figures 3, 7 and 9, and §5.1.1). In fact these figures illustrate that deconvolution along delay axis is severly hampered by this extreme contamination, thereby leading to leakage beyond the foreground wedge into the EoRwindow. In practice, we could downweight these antenna spacings for the specific LST to mitigate the effects of spillover from such foreground contamination in EoR studies. With spatial scales of such objects known, besides downweighting based on antenna spacing orientation, we could also downweight based on antenna spacing distance. For instance, a bright compact object will yield uniform visibility amplitudes across antenna spacings whereas that of an extended object will gradually fade with increase in antenna spacing.

This provides us with a very simple and yet effective tool in adding a layer of sophistication to mitigate effects of foreground contamination in EoR data analysis.

7. DISCUSSION8. CONCLUSION9. SUMMARY

Our primary motivation in this work is to analyze the signatures of foreground components in the measured delay spectrum. Such an analysis will be helpful in extending our knowledge on the challenge posed by foregrounds in studying the EoR and in devising techniques to mitigate contamination of EoR HI signal by foreground objects emitting in radio wavelengths. This is one of the first studies that uses an all-sky foreground model to study the resultant signatures on EoR delay spectrum.

Using parameters that match the instrument and EoR observations using the MWA, and an all-sky foreground model that consists of diffuse emission from a "global sky model" and bright compact sources from the NVSS and SUMSS catalogs, we model delay spectra obtained with the MWA on antenna spacings of length ≤ 200 m. We confirm that the modeled delay spectra is in agreement with data obtained with the MWA, to the extent allowed by levels of uncertainty known in the foreground models and thermal noise in measurements.

We use our simulations in a noiseless scenario to identify numerous signatures of different components of foreground emission seen in the delay spectra. We establish the relationship between these signatures and observing parameters such as antenna pointing and LST, instrument parameters such as antenna power pattern and bandpass shape, and foreground parameters such as the nature of emission, spectral index, etc.

The bright Galactic center at the edge of the western horizon co-located with one of the far sidelobes of MWA tile power pattern is the brightest source of foreground contamination in the *off-zenith* pointing. It manifests itself near negative horizon delay limit in the delay spectrum on antenna spacings oriented eastward.

On expected lines, diffuse emission in the primary beam of the antenna power pattern is prominent on shorter antenna spacings $\lesssim 125$ m corresponding to angular scales $\gtrsim 0.75$. However, the most interesting result is its footprint on wide antenna spacings near the horizon delay limits. This results in a edge—heavy two-pronged fork—shaped signature. This is due to apparent shortening of wide antenna spacings in the direction of foreground emission far off—axis thereby retaining their

response to extended emission. On the other hand, compact foreground objects predominantly map onto central regions of the *foreground wedge*. Features arising from compact sources coincident with primary beam and sidelobes of antenna power pattern have been noted. In general, compact objects produce delay spectrum signatures that are center—heavy, in clear contrast to those from diffuse emission. A composite all—sky foreground model consisting of diffuse and compact foregrounds combines the characteristic individual shapes into a *pitchfork*—shaped structure in the *foreground wedge*. This will be distinctly visible when the thermal noise floor is sufficiently lowered.

We also provide a simple and effective tool based on the delay spectrum technique to mitigate foreground contamination in EoR data analysis. It is possible to screen antenna pairs most affected by foreground contamination as a function of antenna spacing vector and time of observation, which can then be assigned optimal weights in the EoR data analysis chain.

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APPENDIX

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