Multiscale CLEAN Deconvolution of Radio Synthesis Images

Tim J. Cornwell

Abstract—Radio synthesis imaging is dependent upon deconvolution algorithms to counteract the sparse sampling of the Fourier plane. These deconvolution algorithms find an estimate of the true sky brightness from the necessarily incomplete sampled visibility data. The most widely used radio synthesis deconvolution method is the CLEAN algorithm of Högbom. This algorithm works extremely well for collections of point sources and surprisingly well for extended objects. However, the performance for extended objects can be improved by adopting a multiscale approach. We describe and demonstrate a conceptually simple and algorithmically straightforward extension to CLEAN that models the sky brightness by the summation of components of emission having different size scales. While previous multiscale algorithms work sequentially on decreasing scale sizes, our algorithm works simultaneously on a range of specified scales. Applications to both real and simulated data sets are given.

Index Terms— Deconvolution, radio astronomy, radio Interferometry.

I. INTRODUCTION

R ADIO synthesis imaging of astronomical sources was revolutionized by the invention of the CLEAN algorithm [1]. This simple algorithm enabled synthesis imaging of complex objects even with relatively poor Fourier plane coverage, such as occurs with partial earth rotation synthesis or with arrays composed of small numbers of antennas (see [2]).

The algorithm is motivated by the observation that in the image formed by simple Fourier inversion of the sampled visibility data (the "dirty" image), each point on the sky is represented by a suitably scaled and centered point spread function. Hence, one can find the brightest point source by simply performing a cross-correlation of the dirty image with the point spread function. Removing the effects of the brightest point then enables one to find the next brightest, and so on. This simple algorithm works very well for collections of point sources, and surprisingly well for extended objects. Convergence is slow for extended objects (as might be expected since one is trying to identify a potentially large number of pixels one by one), and instabilities occur [3]. For this reason, other deconvolution algorithms such as the Maximum Entropy Method [4], [5] are often preferred. However, the CLEAN algorithm remains attractive for many purposes so the natural question arises as to how the basic algorithm can be improved in convergence and stability

Manuscript received February 01, 2008; revised July 15, 2008. Current version published December 10, 2008. The associate editor coordinating the review of this manuscript and approving it for publication was Dr. Amir Leshem.

The author is with the Australia Telescope National Facility, Epping, NSW 1710, Australia (e-mail: tim.cornwell@csiro.au).

Digital Object Identifier 10.1109/JSTSP.2008.2006388

while maintaining the advantages of simplicity and noise be-

There are many different deconvolution algorithms in use in various scientific domains but one thread common to many of the best algorithms is the use of the multiscale approach [6]. In multiscale methods, the object to be recovered is modelled as being composed of various different scale sizes. The reconstruction algorithm then has the task of estimating the strengths of the various scales, instead of estimating the strength of pixels. Thus the number of degrees of freedom in the reconstruction can be significantly reduced with a concomittant increase in various measures of performance, such as robustness, stability, and signal to noise. Examples of multiscale methods are as follows.

- Multiresolution CLEAN: Reference [7] developed a simple strategy for running the CLEAN algorithm emphasizing broad emission first and then finer and finer resolution. The dirty image and point spread function are smoothed and decimated to emphasize the broad emission. The image resulting from CLEANing this dirty image is then used as an initial model for a CLEAN deconvolution of the full resolution image.
- Multiscale Maximum Entropy: References [8] and [9] noted that the performance of Maximum Entropy deconvolution could be improved by decomposing the image to be estimated into several channels of different resolutions. A hierarchy of scale sizes is specified and an image reconstructed by estimating pixels in the combined space such that the convolution equation is satisfied.
- Wavelets: Numerous authors have described the virtues of wavelet analysis and its application to deconvolution. The recent textbook by [10] provides an excellent summary and includes discussion of the connections between Multiresolution CLEAN and wavelet analysis. Various authors have described an extension of the Maximum Entropy Method to wavelets as basis functions [11]–[13].
- Pixons: Reference [14] developed a method for estimating not only pixel strengths but an associated scale size. The combination of strength and scale size, they dubbed a "pixon". The Pixon method has been extended considerably, and the original algorithm drastically improved [15], [16]. Performance is extremely good, especially as measured by the statistical whiteness of the residuals. However, there has been no published success in applying the algorithm to synthesis observations because a key assumption, that the PSF is compact, does not hold for Fourier synthesis.
- Adaptive Scale Pixels: Reference [17] developed a method for fitting extended components during a deconvo-

lution process. This has good deconvolution performance but is computationally expensive.

Thus, multiscale methods have demonstrated advantages in deconvolution, encouraging further development of multiscale algorithms. This conclusion is supported by the explosion of interest and technical advances in "compressive sampling" [18]–[21]. Compressive Sampling (CS) theory shows that under quite general conditions, a sparse signal can be reconstructed from a relatively small number of random projections. This is reassuring for radio astronomers since deconvolution of radio synthesis observations has been the norm for about thirty years.

The recent growth of work in compressive sampling algorithms holds great promise for new and efficient algorithms for deconvolution of radio synthesis observations. However, here we concentrate on a simple extension of the CLEAN algorithm. We describe a conceptually and algorithmically straightforward multiscale generalization of the CLEAN method that improves convergence and stability (as well as some other properties). This retains the pattern matching motivation of the Högbom algorithm but extends it to encompass extended emission as well as point sources. Unlike the Multiresolution CLEAN and Wavelet CLEAN, this algorithm selects among scales considered simultaneously rather than sequentially. We present some background in the next section, our multiscale algorithm in Section III, some demonstrations and comparisons to other algorithms in Section IV, and summarize our work in Section V.

II. BACKGROUND

Radio synthesis arrays image the radio sky not through a single large physical aperture but by synthesising a virtual aperture of equivalent size and angular resolution. This is done by invoking the van Cittert-Zernike theorem relating the spatial coherence function (or "visibility") of the electric field and the sky brightness function (see [2]).

A given pair of antennas, with baseline vector u,v,w (as seen from the source) measures a single Fourier component of the sky brightness I

$$V(u,v) = \int I(x,y)e^{2\pi j(ux+vy)}dxdy.$$

Given complete sampling of the Fourier space, the sky brightness may be obtained by Fourier inversion of noise-free observations

$$I(x,y) = \int V(u,v)e^{-2\pi j(ux+vy)}dudv.$$

For a real array, the true, completely sampled, visibility function V is not available and we have only noisy samples of the visibility function at discrete locations in the Fourier plane. Ignoring for the moment the effects of noise, we can represent this by replacing V by the "sampled" visibility function S(u,v)V(u,v), where the sampling function S(u,v) is

$$S(u,v) = \sum_{k} w_k \delta(u - u_k) \delta(v - v_k).$$

Inserting this into the Fourier inverse, we then obtain the *Dirty* image

$$I^D = \mathcal{F}^{-1}SV$$
.

Applying the convolution theorem from Fourier transform theory, we find that the dirty image is the convolution of the true image I with a "Dirty" beam B

$$I^D = B * I$$

where the Dirty Beam or Point Spread Function $B=\mathcal{F}^{-1}$ S is given by

$$B(x,y) = \sum_{k} \cos[2\pi(u_k x + v_k y)] w_k.$$

Thus, the deconvolution problem is to solve for I from knowledge of the dirty image I^D , and the point spread function B.

The CLEAN algorithm finds a solution to the convolution equation by positing a model for the true sky brightness which is a collection of point sources

$$I^{C} = \sum_{q} I_{q} \delta(x - x_{q}) \delta(y - y_{q}).$$

The key aspect of the CLEAN algorithm is the way that it solves iteratively for the positions and strengths of the CLEAN components. Defining

$$I^{C}(m) = \sum_{q=1}^{m} I_{q}\delta(x - x_{q})\delta(y - y_{q}).$$

The values for I_n, x_n, y_n are found by locating the peak in the residual image

$$I^{R}(n) = I^{D} - B * I^{C}(n-1).$$

In fact, a least squares fit for I_n, x_n, y_n dictates that one find the peak in $B*I^R(n)$. However, the difference between these two is often minor and is nearly always neglected. On finding the nth component, the residual image is simply updated by subtracting a suitably scaled and centered copy of the point spread function. Hence, the main work in the algorithm is (a) finding the location of the peak residual, and (b) shifting, scaling, and subtracting the point spread function. Performance of the deconvolution can be improved by restricting the search to a "CLEAN window" wherein the image brightness is known to be nonzero. Such support constraints aid deconvolution in general by restricting the range of possible solutions.

The Högbom CLEAN algorithm is therefore simple to understand and implement. For small images, the algorithm is very fast. For larger images, [22] developed a faster algorithm that uses a support-limited approximation to the point spread function, followed by FFT-base convolution using the full point spread function.

Reference [23] has analyzed the Högbom CLEAN algorithm in detail and has developed a convergence proof. CLEAN is a greedy algorithm: it consists of a sequence of iterations, and

within each iteration, the choice made depends only on information available at the iteration [see [24], for a discussion of greedy algorithms.) There is no guarantee that the result of the CLEAN algorithm is globally optimal in any particular sense, although there is a conjecture that the image L1 norm is minimized [25]. Schwardt (private communication) has developed the interpretation of Högbom Clean in Compressive Sampling language as a matching pursuit algorithm calculating residual vectors in image space.

III. MULTISCALE CLEAN ALGORITHM

The Högbom CLEAN algorithm performs surprisingly well given that it chooses to model extended emission by point sources (Dirac delta functions). Our extension is to use extended components to model the source. Our model is that that the true sky brightness is a summation of appropriately scaled and centered extended components. Denoting the component width by a single parameter α_q , we have that the model is:

$$I^{M} = \sum_{q} I_{q} m(x - x_{q}, y - y_{q}, \alpha_{q})$$

Following the greedy strategy used in the CLEAN algorithm, we search for the *n*th component by looking for a peak in

$$I^{R}(n) = I^{D} - B * I^{M}(n-1)$$

where the search is over I_q, x_q, y_q, α_q . In practice, the search over the nondiscrete axis α_q could be quite time consuming. However, we have found that searching only a few well-chosen scale sizes works well in many cases.

In deciding which scale to select, we must apply a bias towards smaller scales. To understand why, consider a source which is dominated by a point source but which has a very small amount of extended emission. If we don't bias towards smaller scales, the point source plus the small amount of extended emission will result in selecting a large scale to represent the emission. The residuals, however, will show the point source nearly untouched, and a large negative bowl around the point source, and it will take many iterations to clean up this mess. In any one iteration, we evaluate the maximum residual for a set of scale sizes, and choose that scale size with the maximum adjusted residual. We have found the following relation to work well:

$$S(\alpha) = 1 - 0.6\alpha/\alpha_{\text{max}}$$
.

In any iteration, the component selected is thus located at the peak with the appropriate scale size. The magnitude of the component is given by the loop gain times the peak. Unlike delta-function clean algorithms which make errors in imaging extended structure when the loop gain is much higher than 0.1, Multiscale CLEAN is able to produce good images with a loop gain of 0.5 or even higher.

The algorithm can be made efficient by careful precomputation of all terms that are needed for the update

• $B*m(\alpha_q)$;

• $B*m(\alpha_q)*m(\alpha_r)$.

By using these precomputed images, the operations needed for the CLEAN reduce to scaling, shifting, and subtracting, just as for the Högbom algorithm.

We now turn to the question of the shape of the components, $m(x, y, \alpha)$. There are a number of considerations, as follow.

- Since the final image is composed of a summation of these components, each individual component should be astrophysically plausible (for example, without negative brightness).
- The component should be independent of pixel orientation, and therefore should be a function of $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ only.
- The component shape must allow a support constraint to be used. This rules out Gaussians since the tails extend over all space. However, too sharp a truncation in image space will cause difficulties as well.

For these reasons, we have chosen a tapered, truncated parabola as the component shape

$$m(r,\alpha) = \Psi(r) \left(1 - \left(\frac{r}{\alpha}\right)^2\right)$$

where Ψ is a prolate spheroidal wave function (calculated using an approximation provided by F. Schwab). The difference between this function and a suitably scaled Gaussian is quite minor, though, and use of a Gaussian will only be a problem at high dynamic range or when using an image plane support constraint.

For zero α , this corresponds to a Dirac delta function. We always include such a scale size to ensure that the finest scales can be fit.

The use of extended components as well as delta functions must be accommodated in any support constraint that is used. If a window function w(x,y) is to be used then no emission in the model can leak outside of this window. Hence each scale size α must be subject to a trimmed window function $w(x,y,\alpha)$ such that a component centered within the trimmed window function has no emission outside the window function w(x,y). The trimmed window functions are simple to calculate. However, clearly if α is too large, a trimmed window function may not exist. This simply means that a component of a given size cannot be fitted into the specified window function w(x,y).

A convergence proof can be constructed following that given by [23]. The most important limitation of Schwarz's convergence proof is that the PSF should be positive-semidefinite. If the PSFs are calculated accurately and the component shape is chosen appropriately, then convergence is assured.

The algorithm is relatively low in complexity and can be implemented straightforwardly by augmenting an existing CLEAN code. The only mildly difficult part is using the precomputed cross terms correctly.

We have implemented this algorithm in the AIPS++ (now CASA) Package. It is available in the deconvolver and imager tools. AIPS++ also supports the following algorithms: Högbom and Clark Clean, the Maximum Entropy Method (via the Cornwell-Evans algorithm), and Multiresolution Clean (via a trivial script.) In addition, AIPS++ supports an unpublished algorithm called Maximum Emptiness developed by the author

about twenty years ago. This algorithm is identical to MEM except that the entropy objective function is replaced by a sech function. The motivation for this is to approximate the minimization of the L1 norm. We include this algorithm for comparison purposes.

Our Multiscale CLEAN algorithm is similar to the Multiresolution Clean [7], the principal difference being that our algorithm works simultaneously on all scales being considered instead of sequentially. In other words, our algorithm is greedy only with respect to component position and strength whereas Multiresolution Clean is greedy with respect to component scale, position, and strength. The main virtue of simultaneous searching is that errors on selecting a scale size can be corrected immediately rather than being frozen in.

The representation used in Multiscale CLEAN is similar to that in the Pixon method but the algorithms are quite different. The greedy Multiscale CLEAN approach cannot claim to find a globally optimal solution (as the Pixon method does). A global solution would be superior (less bias and more compact) if it could be calculated for Fourier synthesis problems. Future work would do well to investigate the possibility of adapting Compressive Sampling algorithms to this particular domain and representation.

The choice of rotationally symmetric components is required to cut down the dimension of the implicit search space—it is possible to use representations such [26] as curvelets to better represent sharp edges but the overhead in searching would be very substantial. This points to a clear shortcoming in our strategy of explicit and exhaustive search in the component parameters.

In Multiscale CLEAN, the selection of scale sizes to evaluate over is admittedly ill-defined but usually not too crucial. Too fine a range such as an arithmetic progression wastes compute time, and too coarse can lead to poor convergence. We have generally chosen a geometric progress such as 0, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32 or 0, 3, 10, 30 pixels, terminating at or below the largest scale expected. This is an area that could be improved in future work.

Multiscale CLEAN is stable in the presence of a spatially varying background provided sufficiently large scales are included in the search. The large scale structure is then removed first, leaving the fine scale structure to be estimated on an largely empty background.

IV. DEMONSTRATIONS

A. Performance on Real Data

To illustrate one of the key motivations for the Multiscale CLEAN algorithm, we show an application to a dirty image of one spectral channel of a galaxy (NGC1058) observed in HI emission with the Very Large Array in D configuration. Since in this example, the signal-to-noise ratio is not high and the source has very extended structure, the fine-scale sidelobes are not as troublesome as the broader sidelobes. In the dirty image (see Fig. 1), a broad negative bowl is seen surrounding the emission. Although this may appear to be a largely cosmetic defect, it does prevent accurate estimate of integrated emission in cases such as this.

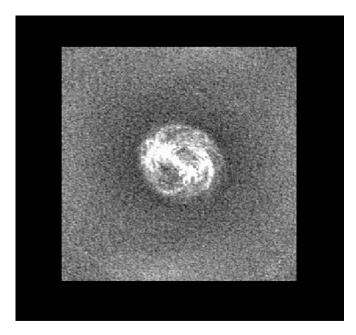


Fig. 1. Imaging of one channel of an HI synthesis of NGC1058, observed with the VLA. This shows the "dirty image" formed from inverse Fourier transform of the observed data. The transfer function is truncated to show the range -3 mJy/beam to +3 mJy/beam. The peak in the image is about 12 mJy/beam.

Classic Högbom CLEAN (Fig. 2) is poor at correcting the negative bowl because many point sources must be subtracted to represent the broad emission. We applied Multiscale CLEAN to this image, using 1000 iterations at loop gain 1.0, with scale sizes set to 0, 1.5, 3, 6, 12, 24 pixels. The stopping criterion is that the peak residual flux reach 4σ . At convergence, the integrated flux in the Multiscale CLEAN image is 3.08Jy, and that in the Högbom CLEAN image is 0.32Jy. For the Multiscale image, this value is robust to changes in the integration region to beyond the nominal extent of the source whereas for Högbom CLEAN, the integrated flux is highly dependent on the integration region (because of the substantial negative bowl in emission left behind after deconvolution).

There are a number of features worth emphasizing.

- The Multiscale CLEAN algorithm finds and detects emission on the largest scales first, moving to finer and finer detail as iteration proceeds. This is the opposite behavior to Högbom CLEAN where the fine detail is removed first.
- At large numbers of iterations for multiscale CLEAN, the peak residuals for all scales become comparable.
- The multiscale CLEAN algorithm converges to relatively stable values of the flux on different scales. In comparison, the Högbom CLEAN continues to find more and more flux as iteration progresses.
- To extract more flux using the Högbom CLEAN requires CLEANing deeper than 4σ . This is possible, but is slow and distorts the appearance of the noise.

B. Performance on Simulated Data

Now that we have seen how multiscale CLEAN works on real data, we turn to show behavior on simulated observations in which the ground truth is known.

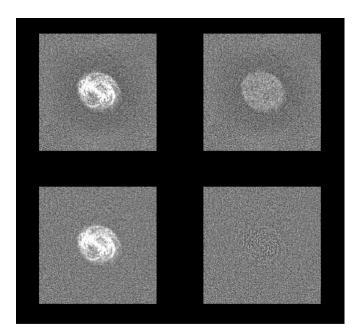


Fig. 2. Deconvolution at low signal-to-noise: imaging of one channel of an HI synthesis of NGC1058, observed with the VLA. (a) Högbom CLEAN restored image, (b) Högbom CLEAN residual image, (c) Multiscale CLEAN restored image, and (d) Multiscale CLEAN residual image. All images are displayed with the same transfer function -3 mJy/beam to +3 mJy/beam. The peak in the image is about 12 mJy/beam.

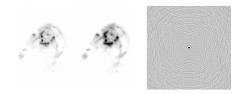


Fig. 3. Image and PSF used in simulations. (a) Full resolution model image. (b) Smoothed model image. (c) Point spread function.

First we show simulations of VLA observations on a well-known test image—the "M31" image used in many radio simulation studies. This is of a moderately complex source. In Fig. 3, we show the model at full resolution and also smoothed with a typical CLEAN beam (as would occur in the usual restoration process).

Using the AIPS++/CASA simulator tool, we simulated VLA observations of this object in C configuration. The source was taken to be at declination 45 degrees, and observations of 60 s were made every 5 min for hour angles from -4 to +4 hours. This is therefore a well-sampled observation with sufficient short spacings that the deconvolution should perform quite well.

We performed deconvolutions with the Högbom and Clark CLEAN, and Maximum Entropy method, in addition to multiscale CLEAN. The multiscale CLEAN used scales 0, 1.5, 3, 6, 12, and 24 pixels. In Fig. 4, we show the various restored images, along with the error pattern. The latter is calculated by subtracting the model image as smoothed with the appropriate CLEAN beam.

The times taken for each deconvolution (on a 3.06 GHz Xeon) are shown in Table II.

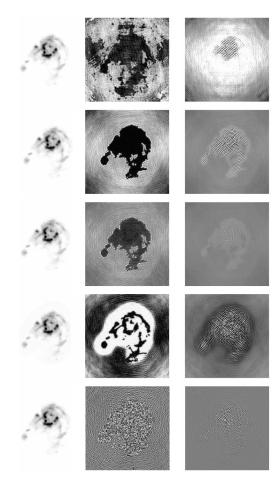


Fig. 4. Deconvolution of simulated VLA observations of the "M31" image. (a) Clark CLEAN restored image, (b) Clark CLEAN residual image, (c) Clark CLEAN error image, (d) Högbom CLEAN restored image, (e) Högbom CLEAN residual image, (f) Högbom CLEAN error image, (g) Entropy restored image, (h) Entropy residual image, (i) Entropy error image, (j) Multi-Resolution CLEAN restored image, (k) Multi-Resolution CLEAN residual image, (l) Multi-Resolution CLEAN residual image, (n) multiscale CLEAN error image, (m) multiscale CLEAN error image, and (o) multiscale CLEAN error image. The restored images are displayed with a transfer function running from -0.050 to 10 Jy/beam, the residual images from -1 mJy/beam to +1 mJy/beam, and the the error images from -50 mJy/beam to +50 mJy/beam.

TABLE I MULTISCALE ALGORITHM

Initialize

- Model: $I^M = 0$
- Residual Image: $I^R = I^D$
- For each scale α_q
 - calculate scale-convolved residual $I_{\alpha}^{R} = m(\alpha) * I^{R}$
 - calculate scale bias $S(\alpha) = 1 0.6 * \alpha/\alpha_{\text{max}}$
- For each pair of scales α_p, α_q , calculate cross term: $B*m(\alpha_p)*m(\alpha_q)$

Repeat

- 1) For each scale, find strength and location of peak residual
- Choose scale with maximum residual, after multiplying by scaledependent bias terms,
- 3) Add this component to current model, scaled by loop gain
- 4) Update all residual images using precomputed terms

Until

Either $max(I_{\alpha}^{R}) < \text{threshold}$

Or Maximum number of components identified

Finalize

- Convolve current model by clean beam: $B_G * I^M$
- Add residuals to get restored image: $B_G * I^M + I^R$

TABLE II
PERFORMANCE OF DECONVOLUTION ALGORITHMS FOR "M31" SIMULATION

Algorithm	Time (s)	Total flux (Jy)	RMS error (mJy/beam)
Högbom&204	1474	8.8	
Clark	50	1326	25.6
Multi-Resolution	147	1546	14.7
Multi-Scale	614	1495	4.9
Entropy	13	1486	2.5

Some comments on the results:

- This simulation illustrated a difficult obstacle to the use of Clark CLEAN on deep images. Schwarz's [23] analysis of the CLEAN algorithm shows that the PSF must be positive semi-definite (all eigenvalues non-negative). There are two reasons why the actual PSF may violate this requirement—first, the use of a gridded transform in place of a Fourier sum and second, for the Clark algorithm, the truncation of the PSF. Thus, at high iteration numbers, the CLEAN algorithm in either form may diverge. In this case, we found that the Clark CLEAN diverged above 300 000 CLEAN components at which point only 1391 Jy of the full 1495 Jy were recovered. While some tuning of the details of the major/minor cycles might have helped, the point remains that Clark CLEAN is marginal at high iteration numbers. The Högbom CLEAN does converge well. By comparison, the multiscale CLEAN converges quite well at only 5000 iterations.
- The structure in the residuals is quite obvious except for the case of multiscale CLEAN, for which the residuals show little correlation with the source structure.
- Entropy, Högbom CLEAN, and multiscale CLEAN perform exceptionally well in recovering the full flux of the object, whereas the Clark CLEAN is biased down by about 7%. This is in agreement with the qualitative results from the error images where the Clark CLEAN image shows a substantial negative bowl—exactly the effect multiscale CLEAN was designed to avoid.
- Even when the CLEAN algorithms converge, the results are prone to show "fringing" on extended emission [3], [27], [28]. This fringing is due to poor interpolation in holes and at the edge of the sampled Fourier plane. The fringing is apparent in the error images (difference from ground truth) but not in the residual images. These simulations show that multiscale CLEAN is also liable to such effects but at a lower level.
- Entropy produces systematically biased residuals but the error is much lower than for the various CLEAN algorithms. In this case, the bias term causes an extra 2Jy of flux in the overall 1495Jy flux. If thermal noise were added to the simulations, MEM's positivity bias would increase.

To test on a structurally different object, we have simulated VLA observations of Hydra A. Our model is an actual image with noise removed. The observing scheme was as in the M31 simulation. The results are shown in Fig. 5.

C. Performance for Varying Source Size and Noise Level

To gain a better understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of multiscale CLEAN algorithm and compared to other

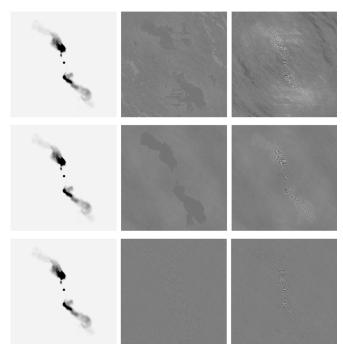


Fig. 5. Deconvolution of simulated VLA observations of the "Hydra" image. (a) Clark CLEAN restored image, (b) Clark CLEAN residual image, (c) Clark CLEAN error image, (d) Högbom CLEAN restored image, (e) Högbom CLEAN restored image, (f) Högbom CLEAN restored image, (g) multiscale CLEAN restored image, (h) multiscale CLEAN residual image, and (i) multiscale CLEAN error image. The restored images are displayed with a transfer function running from -0.050 to $10~\rm Jy/beam$, the residual images from $-1~\rm mJy/beam$ to $+1~\rm mJy/beam$, and the the error images from $-5~\rm 0~mJy/beam$ to $+5~\rm 0~mJy/beam$.

available deconvolution algorithms, we have investigated the imaging numerically through simulations made with systematically varying source size and thermal noise. These simulations were made with the AIPS++/CASA simulator tool. We put our model sources at declination 45 degrees and observed them with the VLA C array at X band with 60 s integrations between hour angles of -1 and +1. For models, we used both the "M31" brightness distribution and a model derived from an optical image of the spiral galaxy M51. Both images have been modified so that the brightness distributions have well-defined edges and off-source pixels are identically zero. From each model, we have produced a series of models with the same pixel size, but with the linear size of the source distribution decreased in a geometric series of $\sqrt{2}$. To assess the image quality, we use two very simple measures - recovered flux and dynamic range. The integrated flux itself can be an important quantity in many observations. In the context of these simulations, deviations from the true flux indicate systematic imaging errors which will in some way limit the usefulness of the reconstructed image in quantitative endeavors.

Fig. 6 indicates how the multiscale CLEAN, Maximum Entropy Method (MEM), Maximum Emptiness, and Clark CLEAN algorithms fail to recover all the flux as the source structure becomes larger in the case of the M51 series of model images. It is well known that MEM is superior to CLEAN at imaging extended structure. These simulations show this, but also that multiscale CLEAN is nearly as good as MEM in imaging very extended structure. Fig. 6 also shows how the

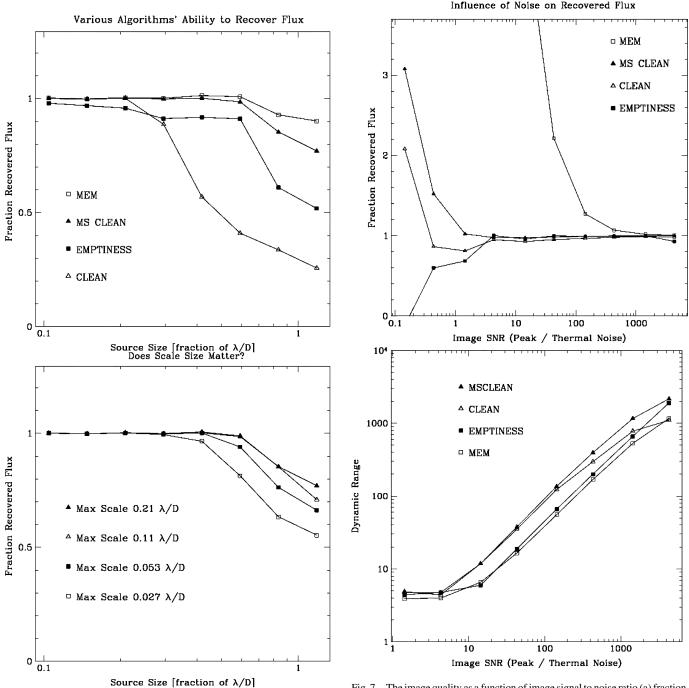


Fig. 6. The fraction of the recovered flux as a function of simulated source size (a) for various deconvolution algorithms and (b) for multiscale CLEAN with a variety of scale sizes. In each case, four scale sizes were used, spanning from a point source to the maximum listed in the figure (which ranges from 8 pixels, or $0.027 \ \lambda/D$, to 64 pixels, of $0.21 \ \lambda/D$).

recovered flux depends upon exactly which scale sizes are used in the multiscale CLEAN algorithm. For smallish sources, the amount of flux recovered does not depend upon the details of the scale sizes we used. However, for very large sources (the sources at about $0.8\lambda/D$ and $1\lambda/D$ are larger than we should be able to accurately image in C array), using large maximum scale sizes can appreciably increase the amount of flux recovered.

Fig. 7. The image quality as a function of image signal to noise ratio (a) fraction of recovered flux and (b) dynamic range (defined as the reconstructed image peak divided by the off-source RMS).

One of the major problems of the Maximum Entropy Method is positivity bias. Many extended sources which could benefit from MEM's superior ability to image large-scale structure show weak diffuse structure at moderate to low SNR. Fig. 7 shows the results of a set of simulations done on the M51 model scaled to $0.30\lambda/D$ —a size which is small enough so that all algorithms do a fairly good job at recovering all the flux. Varying amounts of Gaussian noise are added to the visibilities, and the theoretical image plane SNR, defined as the peak of the model image convolved with the CLEAN beam divided by the image plane noise, is calculated. We gauge the

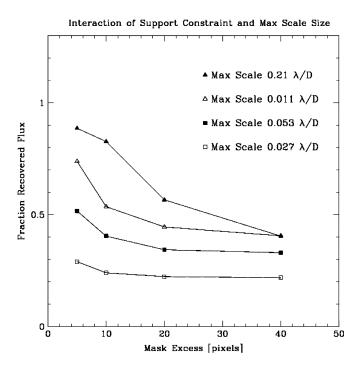


Fig. 8. Interaction between the maximum scale size used in multiscale CLEAN and the tightness of the mask used in the deconvolution. We used a model image of the M31 HII region which has been scaled to a size of $0.83 \ \lambda/D$.

deconvolution algorithms' response to noise first by looking at the recovered flux in Fig. 7(a). Here, we see that MEM's positivity bias results in a significant overestimate of the source flux starting with image plane SNR as high as 100. CLEAN, Maximum Emptiness, and multiscale CLEAN, do not share this shortcoming, and reproduce accurate estimates of the source flux down to SNR of about 4. Note that CLEAN actually estimates the total flux reasonably well even when the image plane SNR is below 1. Of course, if we were to taper this image to lower resolution, we would increase the amount of flux in the beam faster than we increase the thermal noise. In other words, Högbom CLEAN and multiscale CLEAN, are able to utilize the information in the shorter baselines even when the source is totally undetected at full resolution. Fig. 7(b) shows the dynamic range of the reconstructed images as a function of the image plane SNR. For SNR-limited imaging, we would expect a straight line with slope 1.0. At the high SNR end of the plot, we are just beginning to see the curves flattening as the images become limited by deconvolution errors. The flattening at the low SNR end of the plot at a dynamic range of about 4 is indicative of the peak over the rms of an image dominated by thermal noise.

Fig. 8 points to the complex interactions between the maximum scale size used in multiscale CLEAN, the tightness of the imaging mask, and the resulting image quality. In this case, a large model image $(0.83\lambda/D)$ was used, and multiscale CLEAN was just starting to fail. As the plot indicates, significant improvement in image quality can be obtained by using a fairly large maximum scale size (about one quarter the size of the object), and by using a very tight mask image.

V. SUMMARY

Multiscale CLEAN has been in use for 5–6 years. It seems to work well in practice. For examples of the application of the algorithm, see [29], [30]. Besides the obvious efficacy of the algorithm, the major attraction is that it is simple to understand and to implement. The most notable deficiencies are that the scales must be chosen arbitrarily, and an arbitrary bias towards small scales must be introduced. For extended emission, multiscale CLEAN is much faster than Högbom or Clark CLEAN but usually slower than MEM. multiscale CLEAN shows much less bias than MEM at low to moderate signal to noise, and can be applied to images with negative flux.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The author thanks M. Holdaway for his contributions to this project. He thanks his co-workers in the AIPS++ Project for providing the package within which this work was carried out. He thanks S. Bhatnagar for many stimulating conversations on multiscale methods, and R. Puetter and A. Yahil for discussions on pixon based deconvolution. In addition, he thanks M. Rupen for providing the NGC1058 data. He thanks the referees of this paper for numerous helpful and illuminating comments and references.

REFERENCES

- J. A. Högbom, "Aperture synthesis with a non-regular distribution of interferometer baselines," *Astron. Astrophys. Suppl.*, vol. 15, p. 417, Jun. 1974.
- [2] A. R. Thompson, J. M. Moran, and G. W. Swenson, *Interferometry and Synthesis in Radio Astronomy*. New York: Wiley-Interscience, 2001.
- [3] T. J. Cornwell, "A method of stabilizing the clean algorithm," *Astron. Astrophys.*, vol. 121, pp. 281–285, May 1983.
- [4] S. F. Gull and G. J. Daniell, "Image reconstruction from incomplete and noisy data," *Nature*, vol. 272, pp. 686–690, Apr. 1978.
- [5] T. J. Cornwell and K. F. Evans, "A simple maximum entropy deconvolution algorithm," *Astron. Astrophys.*, vol. 143, pp. 77–83, Feb. 1985.
- [6] J. L. Starck, E. Pantin, and F. Murtagh, "Deconvolution in astronomy: A review," *Publ. Astr. Soc. Pacific*, vol. 114, pp. 1051–1069, Oct. 2002.
- [7] B. P. Wakker and U. J. Schwarz, "The multi-resolution CLEAN and its application to the short-spacing problem in interferometry," *Astron. Astrophys.*, vol. 200, pp. 312–322, Jul. 1988.
- [8] N. Weir, "A multi-channel method of maximum entropy image restoration," in ASP Conf. Ser. 25: Astronomical Data Analysis Software and Systems I, 1992, p. 186.
- [9] T. R. Bontekoe, E. Koper, and D. J. M. Kester, "Pyramid maximum entropy images of IRAS survey data," *Astron. & Astrophys.*, vol. 284, pp. 1037–1053, Apr. 1994.
- [10] J.-L. Starck, F. Murtagh, and A. Bijaoui, "Image processing and data analysis. The multiscale approach.," in *Image Processing and Data Analysis*. The Multiscale Approach, Publisher. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1998, 1998,, ISBN: 0521590841.
- [11] E. Pantin and J.-L. Starck, "Deconvolution of astronomical images using the multiscale maximum entropy method.," *Astron. & Astrophys. Suppl.*, vol. 118, pp. 575–585, Sept. 1996.
- [12] J.-L. Starck, F. Murtagh, P. Querre, and F. Bonnarel, "Entropy and astronomical data analysis: Perspectives from multiresolution analysis," *Astron. Astrophys.*, vol. 368, pp. 730–746, Mar. 2001.
- [13] K. Maisinger, M. P. Hobson, and A. N. Lasenby, "Maximum-entropy image reconstruction using wavelets," *Mon. Not. Roy. Astr. Soc.*, vol. 347, pp. 339–354, Jan. 2004.
- [14] R. C. Puetter and R. K. Piña, "The pixon and Bayesian image reconstruction," *Proc. SPIE*, vol. 1946, pp. 405–416, Oct. 1993.
- [15] D. D. Dixon, W. N. Johnson, J. D. Kurfess, R. K. Piña, R. C. Puetter, W. R. Purcell, T. O. Tuemer, W. A. Wheaton, and A. D. Zych, "Pixon-based deconvolution.," *Astron. Astrophys. Suppl.*, vol. 120, p. C683, Dec. 1996.

- [16] R. C. Puetter and A. Yahil, "The pixon method of image reconstruction," in *Proc. ASP Conf. Ser. 172: Astronomical Data Analysis Soft*ware and Systems VIII, 1999, p. 307.
- [17] S. Bhatnagar and T. J. Cornwell, "Scale sensitive deconvolution of interferometric images. I. Adaptive scale pixel (ASP) decomposition," *Astron. Astrophys.*, vol. 426, pp. 747–754, Nov. 2004.
- [18] J. Haupt and R. Nowak, "Compressive sampling vs. conventional imaging," in *Proc. 2006 IEEE Int. Conf. Image Processing*, Oct. 2006, pp. 1269–1272.
- [19] J. Haupt and R. Nowak, "Signal reconstruction from noisy random projections," *IEEE Trans. Inform. Theory*, vol. 52, no. 9, pp. 4036–4048, Sep. 2006.
- [20] J. Bobin, J. Starck, and R. Ottensamer, "Compressed sensing in astronomy," ArXiv E-Prints, vol. 802, Feb. 2008.
- [21] R. Baraniuk, E. Candes, R. Nowak, and M. Vetterli, "From the guest editors [compressive sampling]," *Signal Processing Mag.*, vol. 25, no. 2, pp. 12–13, Mar. 2008.
- [22] B. G. Clark, "An efficient implementation of the algorithm 'CLEAN'," Astron. Astrophys., vol. 89, p. 377, Sep. 1980.
- [23] U. J. Schwarz, "Mathematical-statistical description of the iterative beam removing technique (method CLEAN)," *Astron. Astrophys.*, vol. 65, p. 345, Apr. 1978.
- [24] T. Cormen, C. Leisenson, R. Rivest, and C. Stein, *Introduction to Algorithms*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 2001.
- [25] K. A. Marsh and J. M. Richardson, "The objective function implicit in the CLEAN algorithm," *Astron. Astrophys.*, vol. 182, pp. 174–178, Aug. 1987.
- [26] J. L. Starck, D. L. Donoho, and E. J. Candes, "Astronomical image representation by the curvelet transform," *Astron. Astrophys.*, vol. 398, no. 2, pp. 785–800, Feb. 2003.
- [27] D. S. Briggs and T. J. Cornwell, "CLEAN/MEM deconvolution errors: Semicompact sources," in *Proc. IAU Symp. 158: Very High Angular Resolution Imaging*, 1994, p. 212.

- [28] D. S. Briggs, "High Fidelity Deconvolution of Moderately Resolved Sources," Ph.D. dissertation, New Mexico Tech., Socorro, Mexico, 1995.
- [29] R. Subrahmanyan, A. J. Beasley, W. M. Goss, K. Golap, and R. W. Hunstead, "PKS B1400-33: An unusual radio relic in a poor cluster," *Astron. J.*, vol. 125, pp. 1095–1106, Mar. 2003.
- [30] E. Momjian, J. D. Romney, C. L. Carilli, T. H. Troland, and G. B. Taylor, "Very long baseline array continuum and H I absorption observations of the ultraluminous infrared galaxy IRAS 17208–0014," Astrophys. J., vol. 587, pp. 160–170, Apr. 2003.



Tim J. Cornwell received the Ph.D. degree in 1980 from the University of Manchester, U.K., where he worked on image processing algorithms for radio synthesis telescopes. His first significant contribution was the development of the self-calibration algorithm widely used in radio astronomy.

In 1980, he moved to Socorro, NM, to work on the newly completed Very Large Array telescope run by the National Radio Astronomy Observatory. Over the 25 years at the NRAO, he made many contributions to radio astronomical techniques, including the key

algorithms needed for wide fields of view. He also contributed in the areas of telescope design (for the Atacama Large Millimeter Array), telescope commissioning (the Very Long Baseline Array), observatory management, and software development. In 2004, he joined the Square Kilometre Array International Engineering Working Group, primarily to contribute towards computing and algorithms. In 2005, he moved to Australia to take the lead role in computing for the Australia SKA Pathfinder, Australia Telescope National Facility, Epping, NSW.