

# Denormalization of Visibilities for In-Orbit Calibration of Interferometric Radiometers

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**Abstract**—This paper reviews the relative calibration of an interferometric radiometer taking into account the experimental results of the first batch of receivers developed in the frame of the European Space Agency’s Soil Moisture and Ocean Salinity mission. Measurements show state-of-the-art baseline performance as long as the system is capable of correcting the effect of orbital temperature swing. A method to validate internal calibration during in-orbit deep-sky views and to correct linearity errors is also presented.

**Index Terms**—Calibration, interferometry, radiometer.

## I. INTRODUCTION

SOIL MOISTURE and Ocean Salinity (SMOS) is the second Earth Explorer Mission to be developed as part of the European Space Agency’s (ESA) Living Planet Program, scheduled for launch in 2007. It has been designed to observe soil moisture over the Earth’s landmasses [1] and salinity over the oceans [2]. Soil-moisture data are urgently required for hydrological studies, and data on ocean salinity are vital for improving our understanding of ocean circulation patterns. SMOS’ single payload is the Microwave Imaging Radiometer with Aperture Synthesis (MIRAS) [3], a dual-polarization L-band radiometer using two-dimensional (2-D) aperture synthesis. It consists of a Y-shaped interferometric radiometer formed by 69 receivers called lightweight cost-effective front end (LICEF) placed along the arms. A cross correlation of the signals collected by each receiver pair “ $k, j$ ” gives the samples of the so-called visibility function  $V_{kj}$ . The brightness temperature map is then obtained by a Fourier synthesis of the calibrated visibility function. Due to the large amount of correlations, MIRAS uses one-bit two-level digital correlators. The signal collected by the antennas is downconverted to an intermediate frequency, yielding their in-phase ( $i_k, i_j$ ) and quadrature ( $q_k, q_j$ ) components. These signals are fed into the one-bit two-level correlators to measure  $M_{kj}^{ii}$ ,  $M_{kj}^{iq}$ ,  $M_{kj}^{qq}$ , and  $M_{kj}^{qi}$ . These real correlations are then

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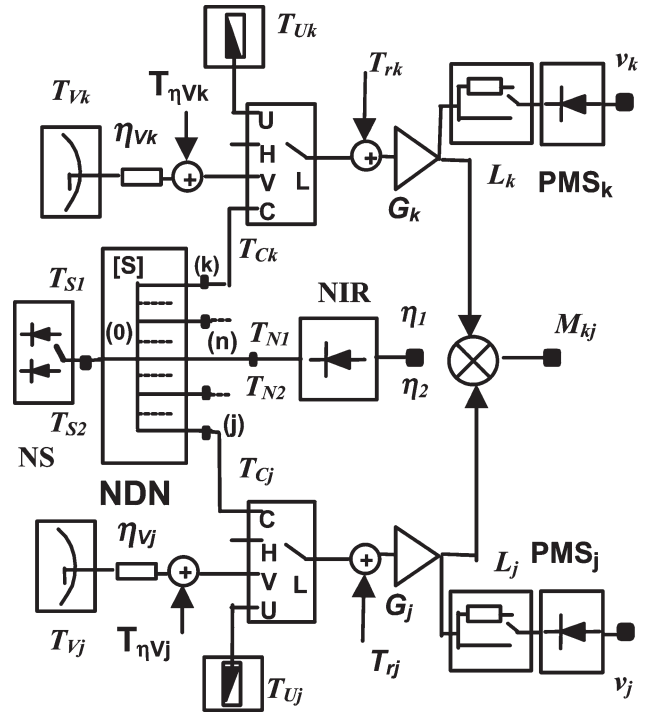


Fig. 1. Block diagram of a single baseline, compounded by two LICEF receivers ( $k$  and  $j$ ) and a complex one-bit two-level correlator. Basic outputs of the system are the normalized correlations  $M_{kj}$  and the PMS voltage readings  $v_k$  and  $v_j$ , which are used to denormalize the correlations. The LICEF can be switched to the CAS, which includes a two-level NS, an NDN, and a reference radiometer called NIR. The CAS is used for internal phase and amplitude calibration of the baseline. Each LICEF can also be switched to an internal matched load (U-load) for calibration purposes. When switched to the antenna (H or V polarizations), each baseline gives a sample of the so-called visibility function  $V_{kj}$ . The definition and interrelation of all magnitudes is given in Section I.

combined into the so-called nominal and redundant normalized complex correlations

$$M_{kj}^{\text{Nom}} = M_{kj}^{ii} + jM_{kj}^{qi} \quad (1)$$

$$M_{kj}^{\text{Red}} = M_{kj}^{qq} - jM_{kj}^{iq} \quad (2)$$

Since in an ideal instrument nominal and redundant correlations are equal, throughout the text the symbol  $M_{kj}$  is used to refer to any of them (Fig. 1). A noise injection radiometer (NIR) placed in the hub measures the scene mean temperature. The NIR, when switched to the internal noise distribution network (NDN), also acts as reference radiometer to calibrate the power measuring system (PMS) in each LICEF. The visibility

samples are denormalized and corrected from instrumental errors according to

$$V_{kj} = \frac{\sqrt{T_{\text{sys}A_k} T_{\text{sys}A_j}}}{G_{kj}} M_{kj} \quad T_{\text{sys}A_k} = \frac{v_{A_k} - v_{\text{off}k}}{G_k^A}. \quad (3)$$

The computation of normalized correlations  $M_{kj}$  and the fringe wash term  $G_{kj}$  is thoroughly detailed in [4]. Extensive experimental results to validate the calibration approach can be found in [5].  $T_{\text{sys}A_k}$  ( $A = V, H$  polarizations) stands for system temperature referred to the antenna plane, which is obtained from  $\text{PMS}_k$  reading  $v_{A_k}$ , once  $\text{PMS}_k$  offset and gain at antenna plane,  $v_{\text{off}k}$  and  $G_k^A$ , are calibrated.

#### A. Two-Level Four-Point Calibration

The PMS is calibrated at plane  $C$  (Fig. 1) by means of the so-called two-level four-point method [6], [7]. HOT and WARM injected temperatures are defined at the  $C$  port as

$$T_{Ck}^{\text{HOT}} = T_{S2} |s_{k0}|^2 = 1500 \text{ K} \quad T_{Ck}^{\text{WARM}} = T_{S1} |s_{k0}|^2 = 75 \text{ K} \quad (4)$$

where  $T_{S2}$  and  $T_{S1}$  are the HOT and WARM temperatures injected by the noise source (NS) to port "0" of the NDN, and  $S_{k0}$  is the  $S$  parameter from port "0" to port "k" (switch-C input). Related system temperatures can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} T_{\text{sys}Ck}^{\text{HOT}} &= T_{Ck}^{\text{HOT}} + T_{\text{ph}}^{\text{NDN}} (1 - |s_{k0}|^2) + T_{rk} \\ T_{\text{sys}Ck}^{\text{WARM}} &= T_{Ck}^{\text{WARM}} + T_{\text{ph}}^{\text{NDN}} (1 - |s_{k0}|^2) + T_{rk}. \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

The term  $T_{rk}$  stands for receiver temperature, and  $T_{\text{ph}}^{\text{NDN}}$  is the NDN physical temperature. Two additional measurements are performed by inserting an IF attenuator  $L_k$  in the PMS path. The four-point PMS readings are then defined as

$$\begin{aligned} v_{1k} &= v_{\text{off}k} + G_k^C T_{\text{sys}Ck}^{\text{WARM}} & v_{3k} &= v_{\text{off}k} + \frac{G_k^C}{L_k} T_{\text{sys}Ck}^{\text{WARM}} \\ v_{2k} &= v_{\text{off}k} + G_k^C T_{\text{sys}Ck}^{\text{HOT}} & v_{4k} &= v_{\text{off}k} + \frac{G_k^C}{L_k} T_{\text{sys}Ck}^{\text{HOT}}. \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

The PMS gain is retrieved by a differential method, which eliminates the noise contribution of the receiver and the NDN

$$G_k^C = \frac{v_{2k} - v_{1k}}{(T_{S2} - T_{S1}) |s_{k0}|^2}. \quad (7)$$

Since the NIR is also measuring the HOT and WARM temperatures,  $\text{PMS}_k$  gain can be computed relative to the differential temperatures measured by the NIR,  $T_{N2} - T_{N1}$ , placed at port "n" of the NDN (Fig. 1)

$$G_k^C = \frac{v_{2k} - v_{1k}}{T_{N2} - T_{N1}} \frac{|S_{n0}|^2}{|S_{k0}|^2}. \quad (8)$$

By doing so, the NS does not require to be calibrated. Finally, the PMS gain is translated to the antenna plane as

$$G_k^A = G_k^C \frac{|S_{LA_k}|^2}{|S_{LC_k}|^2} \eta_{A_k} \quad (9)$$

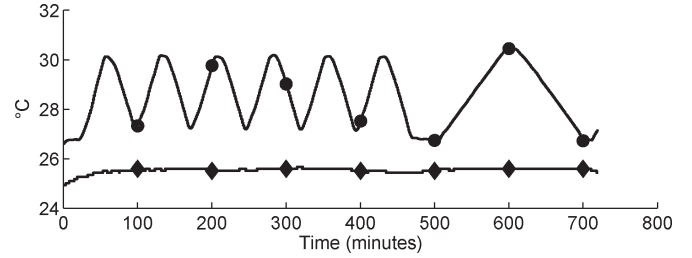


Fig. 2. Temperature-swing tests in the thermal chamber reproduce thermal evolution of the instrument along several orbits. LICEF U-load (●) and CAS NDN (◆) temperatures are continuously recorded.

where  $S_{LA_k}$ ,  $S_{LC_k}$  are the switch  $S$ -parameters and  $\eta_{A_k}$  are the antenna losses.  $\text{PMS}_k$  offset, which exclusively depends on  $\text{PMS}_k$  linearity, is retrieved by the four-point method [4]

$$v_{\text{off}k} = \frac{v_{2k}v_{3k} - v_{1k}v_{4k}}{(v_{2k} - v_{4k}) - (v_{1k} - v_{3k})}. \quad (10)$$

## II. TEMPERATURE-DRIFT CORRECTION ON RELATIVE CALIBRATION

Relative (internal) calibration is performed by switching the instrument to the noise-injection mode described so far, a few times per orbit. This section is devoted to describing the procedure to compensate the effect of temperature drift in between calibration events.

The LICEF internal temperature is expected to present about 2 °C peak-to-peak drift along one orbit. In order to experimentally assess the impact of orbital temperature drift of main baseline parameters, a smooth temperature swing of about 4 °C peak to peak, with a period of 100 min, is applied during 12 h to two LICEF units labeled EM03 and EM04, which, by the time of the writing of the final revision of this manuscript, are fully representative of flight units. The two receivers are enclosed in a climate chamber, while the calibration system (CAS) is kept outside at a fairly constant temperature. A standard power meter is acting as reference radiometer (NIR). Both LICEF U-load and CAS temperature are monitored during the test (Fig. 2). The receivers are configured in calibration mode so as to continuously repeat the four-point calibration sequence in steps of 1.2 s. An additional step is used to switch to the internal matched load (U-noise injection). Therefore, PMS offset and gain is estimated every 6 s. (Fig. 3, top and bottom, respectively). PMS gain and offset at a given temperature  $T_{\text{ph}1}$  can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} G(T_{\text{ph}1}) &= G(T_{\text{ph}0}) \left( 1 + \frac{S_{T_{\text{ph}}}}{100} \Delta T_{\text{ph}} \right) \\ v_{\text{off}}(T_{\text{ph}1}) &= v_{\text{off}}(T_{\text{ph}0}) + S_{T_{\text{ph}}}^{\text{Voff}} \Delta T_{\text{ph}} \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

where  $T_{\text{ph}0}$  is the LICEF temperature during calibration. The sensitivity parameters are estimated from Fig. 3 by a linear fit, yielding

$$S_{T_{\text{ph}}}^{G_0} = -0.36\%/^{\circ}\text{C} \quad S_{T_{\text{ph}}}^{\text{Voff}} = -0.42 \text{ mV}/^{\circ}\text{C}. \quad (12)$$

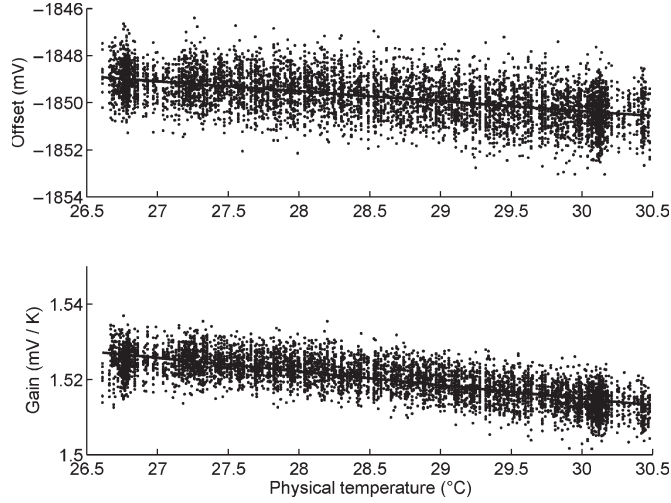


Fig. 3. EM04 PMS offset (top) and gain (bottom) sensitivity to temperature are retrieved by linear fit.

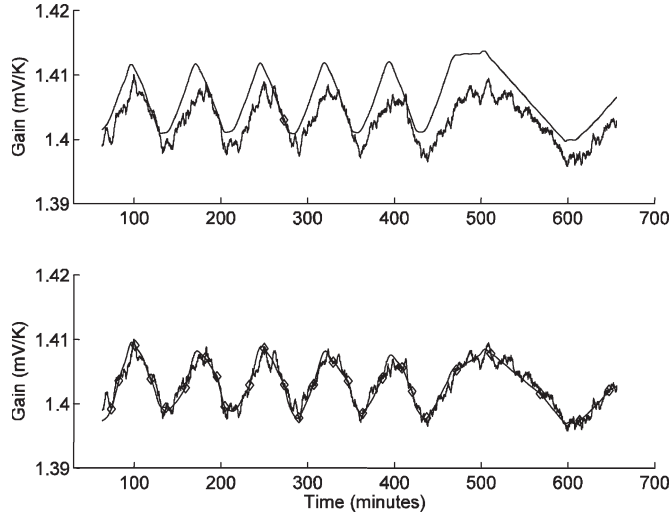


Fig. 4. Measured and predicted EM03 gain drift due to temperature swing. (Top) PMS is calibrated at one single position ( $\diamond$ ). Mean error is 0.27% with a standard deviation of 0.15%. (Bottom) Gain estimation uses four calibration points per swing. Samples in between calibration points are corrected by a linearly weighted average, yielding a mean error below 0.01% and a standard deviation of 0.08%.

Fig. 3 shows that parameter sensitivity to temperature can be retrieved by periodically running the instrument in calibration mode during a dedicated full orbit. Fig. 4 (top) gives the comparison between EM03 measured and predicted PMS-gain drift. Gain prediction makes use of a single calibration point (diamond mark), continuous temperature measurements (Fig. 2), and the sensitivity parameters computed in (11) and (12). However, this simple calibration presents a bias error, which is also very dependent on the particular calibration point. This reveals internal-temperature gradients inside the LICEF, with slightly different time constants. In order to overcome this problem, an alternative method is shown in Fig. 4 (bottom), where four calibration points per orbit are used (diamond marks). PMS gain in between calibrated points uses a linearly weighted average to achieve an outstanding track of temperature drift along the orbit.

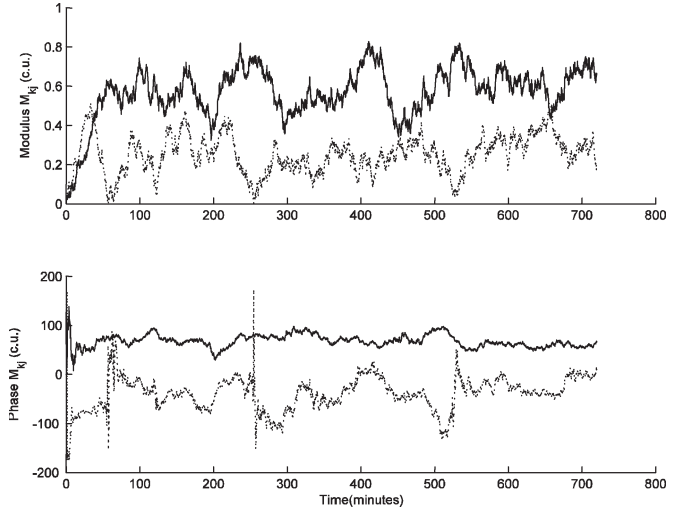


Fig. 5. (Top) Modulus and (bottom) phase of nominal (solid line) and redundant (dotted line) normalized U-mode correlations. Modulus measured in correlation units (1 c.u. =  $10^{-4}$ ). Each point was averaged out of 300 samples at a 1.2-s integration time.

#### A. U-Noise Correlations

U-noise correlations are measured by switching the LICEF to the internal matched load (Fig. 1). Ideally, these correlations give a zero-mean output. However, some residual correlation is present due to noise coupling between receivers (e.g., via the common local oscillator). This residual correlation must be characterized and eliminated from all correlations. Fig. 5 shows U-noise correlations measured in correlation units (1 c.u. =  $10^{-4}$ ). Their mean value is 0.58 c.u. (0.24 c.u.) for the nominal (redundant) amplitude and  $69^\circ$  ( $-39^\circ$ ) for the phase. The standard deviation is 0.098 c.u. (0.095 c.u.) for the amplitude and  $12^\circ$  ( $32^\circ$ ) for the phase. The dispersion in the measurements is mainly related to temperature drift since the effect caused by finite integration time has been reduced well below 1 c.u. by averaging 300 consecutive samples at 1.2 s. As shown, it is not practical to have frequent in-orbit estimates of residual U-noise drift due to the large integration periods required to obtain each sample. Instead, residual U-noise has been constrained below 1 c.u. by proper hardware design. Then, its mean value can be well estimated by averaging at least 300 samples distributed along one orbit in calibration mode. This averages both thermal noise and temperature drift. The mean value obtained by this procedure is removed from all correlations. The error due to residual U-noise will present a zero mean with the standard deviation measured in Fig. 5, which is below 0.1 c.u.

#### B. Normalized Correlations

Normalized correlations when HOT or WARM noise is injected can be expressed as given in [8, eq. (9)]

$$M_{kj}^{C2} = \frac{S_{k0}S_{j0}^* (T_{S2} - T_{ph}^{NDN})}{\sqrt{T_{sysCk}^{HOT} T_{sysCj}^{HOT}}} G_{kj} \quad (13)$$

$$M_{kj}^{C1} = \frac{S_{k0}S_{j0}^* (T_{S1} - T_{ph}^{NDN})}{\sqrt{T_{sysCk}^{WARM} T_{sysCj}^{WARM}}} G_{kj}. \quad (14)$$

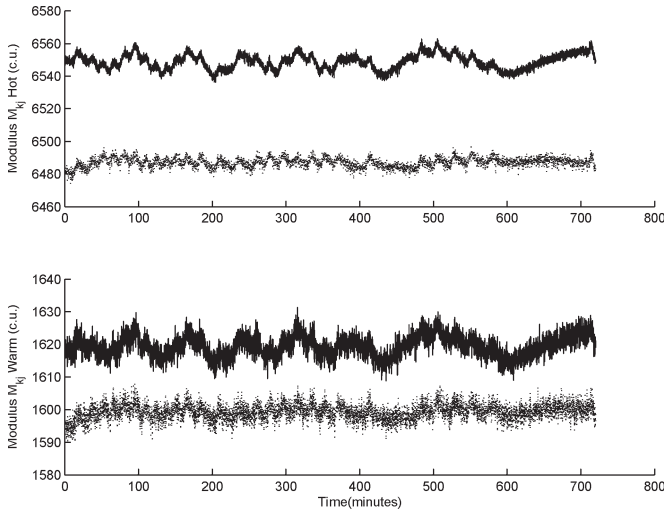


Fig. 6. Modulus of (top) HOT and (bottom) WARM normalized correlations for the nominal (dashed) and redundant (dotted) cases.

The NS and the NDN are placed outside the climate chamber at a fairly constant temperature (Fig. 2). Therefore, the temperature drift on measured normalized correlations is exclusively caused by LICEF and correlator temperature variations. Fig. 6 (top) shows the amplitude of HOT normalized correlations giving a mean value of 6549 c.u. (6487 c.u.) for the nominal (redundant) case, with standard deviation of 0.07% (0.05%). Fig. 6 (bottom) shows the amplitude of WARM noise injection, which gives a mean value of 1619 c.u. (1599 c.u.) with standard deviation of 0.21% (0.16%). There is a small undesired difference between the mean of nominal and redundant correlations of 0.95% and 1.25% on the HOT and WARM cases, respectively. These discrepancies are attributed to slight differences on the equivalent receiver noise temperature and end-to-end frequency response for the in-phase and quadrature channels of each receiver. The drift on normalized correlations is mainly contributed by receiver temperatures  $T_{rk}$ ,  $T_{rj}$  drift. This conclusion is based on the fact that normalized correlations are insensitive to gain changes. Additionally, the fringe washing function (FWF) term  $G_{kj}$ , as will be shown in the next section, is also very insensitive to temperature drift. Conventional measurements by MIER Espacio give 0.5 K/°C and 1 K/°C for the EM03 and EM04 receiver temperature sensitivity, respectively, which is in good concordance with measured amplitude ripple on normalized correlations (Fig. 7).

It is also worth to comment that the phase of nominal correlations presents a constant 0.3° difference between the HOT and WARM cases (0.1° in redundant correlations) along the whole test. This is assigned to a slight compression of the HOT signal (amplitude-to-phase conversion). The case in [5, Fig. 6] clearly shows this effect.

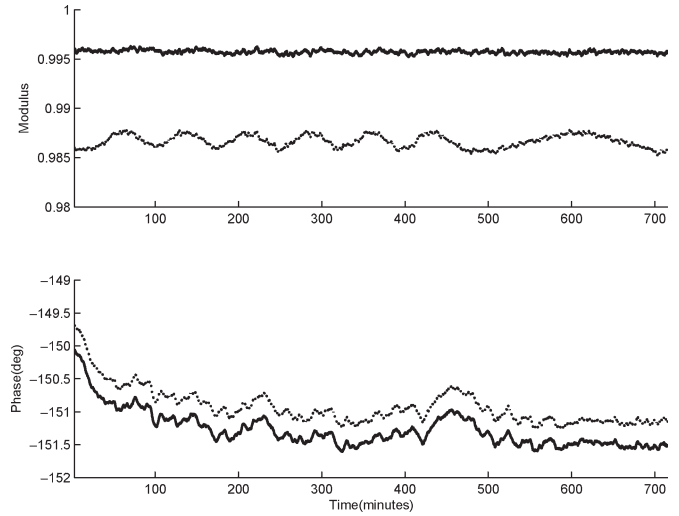


Fig. 7. EM03 and EM04 evolutions of the FWF modulus (top) and phase (bottom) at the origin. The drift is below 0.5% and 0.75°, respectively, for the 4 °C multicycle temperature swing. Note that measurements include the CAS contribution.

### C. Fringe Washing Function

As shown in (3), the FWF, evaluated at the origin, is required to calibrate each sample of the visibility function. The FWF term is calculated by combining (3) and (8) into (13) and (14) to yield (15), shown at the bottom of the page.

This resulted in a very robust estimation of the FWF since it exclusively depends on normalized correlations and PMS linearity. Note that the two-level differential approach eliminates the dependence on physical temperature of the NDN, which is very difficult to measure and model. The FWF term presents a mean nominal (redundant) value of 0.996 (0.987). This high value confirms that end-to-end frequency response between units is very similar. There is a difference of 0.9% between the nominal and redundant amplitudes (0.35° phase difference), assigned to a slight difference between the in-phase and quadrature frequency response of the receivers. The standard deviation due to thermal drift in the nominal (redundant) case is 0.02% (0.06%). The FWF phase is also very insensitive to thermal drift, yielding a standard deviation for the nominal (redundant) case of 0.27° (0.28°).

### D. Denormalized Visibility

Finally, denormalized visibilities are computed by means of (3). Fig. 8 gives the amplitude error after denormalizing HOT correlations. Temperature drift has only been corrected for PMS gain (dominant error), according to the estimation given in Fig. 4 (bottom). A slight dependence with temperature is still clearly seen, probably due to PMS offset drift (Fig. 9 top). Fig. 8 (top) gives the error when an averaging factor of 16 has been applied to all measurements, whereas Fig. 8 (bottom) shows the

$$G_{kj}^C = \frac{M_{kj}^{C2} \sqrt{(v_{2k} - v_{\text{off}k})(v_{2j} - v_{\text{off}j})} - M_{kj}^{C1} \sqrt{(v_{1k} - v_{\text{off}k})(v_{1j} - v_{\text{off}j})}}{\sqrt{(v_{2k} - v_{1k})(v_{2j} - v_{1j})}} \quad (15)$$

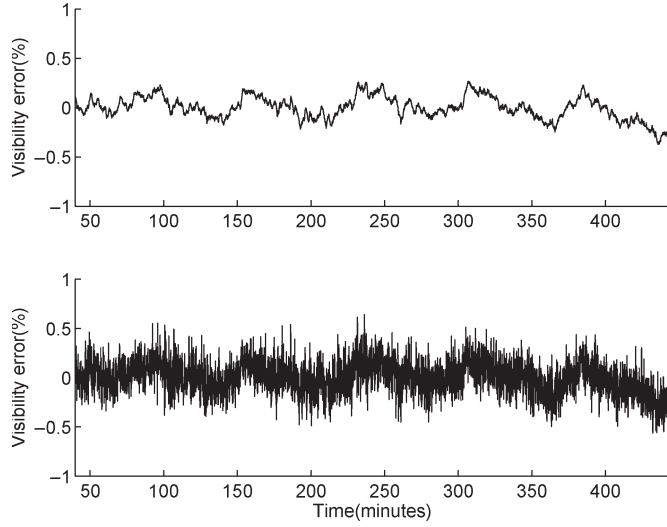


Fig. 8. HOT noise-injection visibility error after PMS-gain correction for temperature drift. Its mean value is 958.4 K. The standard deviation is 0.08% when (top) an averaging factor of 16 is applied and (bottom) 0.12% at a nominal integration time of 1.2 s.

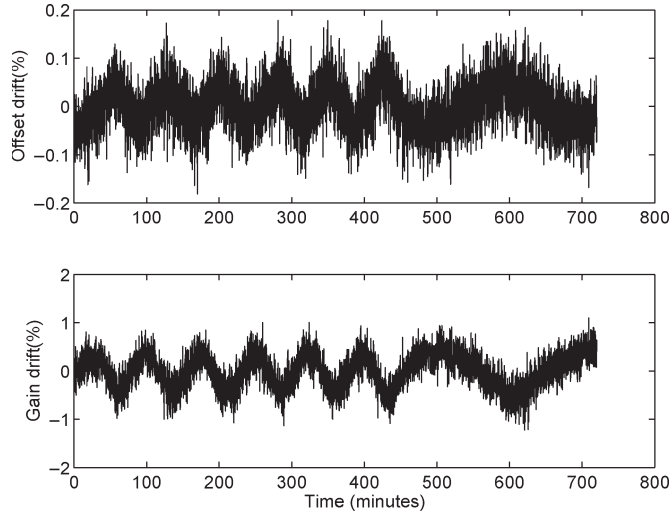


Fig. 9. EM04 PMS offset (top) and gain (bottom) drift. PMS parameters are retrieved by the four-point method. HOT and WARM noise temperatures estimated from noise source ENR and NDN  $S$ -parameters.

case when the averaging factor has only been applied to estimate PMS-gain drift (calibration mode). That is, denormalized HOT visibility is displayed, after correction, with the nominal 1.2-s integration time (imaging mode). As shown, amplitude error due to temperature drift for in-orbit calibrated visibilities is well below the 1% target, even in the case that a 4 °C peak-to-peak temperature swing is present.

### III. MIRAS–SMOS ABSOLUTE CALIBRATION

The previous section was devoted to relative calibration in the sense that PMS calibration of all receivers was referred to the differential measurement of injected noise performed by the NIR [9]. Additionally, temperature correction was performed to compensate deviation from relative calibration. This section is devoted to present the procedure and validation test devoted to the absolute calibration of the instrument.

Absolute calibration of the MIRAS–SMOS instrument is performed by periodic (e.g., monthly) deep-sky views so as to calibrate the reference radiometer (NIR) by the so-called one-point calibration [9]. If  $\eta_2$  and  $\eta_1$  are NIR readings when acting as the reference radiometer to measure the HOT and WARM injected noise (Fig. 1), respectively, we can write

$$T_{N2} = \frac{\eta_2 - \eta_{\text{off}}}{G_N^C} \quad T_{N1} = \frac{\eta_1 - \eta_{\text{off}}}{G_N^C} \quad (16)$$

where  $G_N^C$  and  $\eta_{\text{off}}$  are NIR offset and gain at plane  $C$  (NDN output). For any LICEF in measurement mode, system noise at the antenna plane can be expressed by combining (3), (8), (9), and (16) into

$$T_{\text{sys}}^{A_k} = \frac{v_k^A - v_{\text{off}k} |S_{k0}|^2 |S_{LCk}|^2}{v_{2k} - v_{1k} |S_{n0}|^2 |S_{LAk}|^2 \eta_{A_k}} \frac{\eta_2 - \eta_1}{G_N^C}. \quad (17)$$

As derived from (17), absolute calibration accuracy mainly depends on the error in the estimation of NIR gain, antenna losses, and relative  $S$ -parameter amplitude. The NDN is designed to minimize differential dispersion due to temperature gradients. In-orbit thermal monitoring shall constrain the NDN  $S$ -parameter error to the required  $\pm 0.045$  dB. As will be shown in the following sections, ground-measured NDN  $S$  parameters can also be retrieved during deep-sky imaging, so as to validate the calibration scheme.

#### A. PMS One-Point Calibration

In order to validate the in-orbit calibration approach, the PMS can be calibrated during deep-sky views by a similar strategy of that applied to calibrate the NIR. Note that the PMS can be calibrated at the antenna plane either to measure system temperatures or antenna temperatures

$$v_A = G^A T_{\text{sys}A} + v_{\text{off}} = G^A T_A + v'_{\text{off}} \\ v'_{\text{off}} = v_{\text{off}} + G^A T_R^A. \quad (18)$$

It must be pointed out that PMS gain is the same in both cases.  $T_R^A$  is the equivalent receiver temperature referred to as the antenna plane. For the sake of simplicity and without loss of generality, we can consider  $v_{\text{off}} = 0$  (it can be measured and canceled out independently by the four-point method if required). Now, the equivalent system temperature at the antenna plane, when the switch in Fig. 10 is in position U (WARM) or A (COLD), can be expressed as

$$T_{\text{sysW}}^A = \frac{1}{\eta_A |S_{LA}|^2} (T_{\text{ph}} + T_{\text{rec}}) \\ T_{\text{sysC}}^A = T_{\text{sky}} + \frac{T_{\text{ph}} (1 - \eta_A |S_{LA}|^2) + T_{\text{rec}}}{\eta_A |S_{LA}|^2}. \quad (19)$$

The WARM and COLD PMS readings are, respectively, given by

$$v_W = G^A T_{\text{sysW}}^A \quad v_C = G^A T_{\text{sysC}}^A. \quad (20)$$

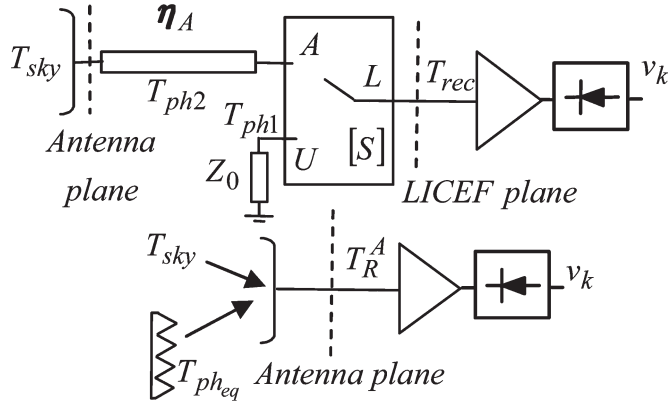


Fig. 10. PMS front-end scheme to illustrate the one-point calibration. The equivalent model for the differential system and antenna temperatures  $T_{ph} - T_{sky} = T_{sysW}^A - T_{sysC}^A$ .

Then, PMS gain can be calculated as

$$G^A = \frac{v_W - v_C}{T_{sysW}^A - T_{sysC}^A}. \quad (21)$$

System temperatures are unknown; however, in this case it holds

$$T_{sysW}^A - T_{sysC}^A = T_{ph} - T_{sky} \quad (22)$$

and the gain can be estimated as

$$G^A = \frac{v_W - v_C}{T_{ph} - T_{sky}}. \quad (23)$$

Now, PMS offset is directly retrieved as

$$v'_{off} = \frac{v_C T_{ph} - v_W T_{sky}}{T_{ph} - T_{sky}} \quad (24)$$

which also holds in the case that  $v_{off} \neq 0$ . As a conclusion, one-point calibration allows to calibrate the PMS to give both system temperature and antenna temperature, without the need for an external warm target. Additionally, it is worth to mention that in the case that the switch and the antenna are at different temperatures, the contribution of thermal noise at the front end can be taken into account if  $T_{ph1}$ ,  $T_{ph2}$ , and  $\eta_A$  are measured. The calibration still holds by substituting  $T_{ph}$  for an equivalent physical temperature at the antenna plane given by

$$T_{ph_{eq}}^A = \frac{T_{ph1} - T_{ph2}}{\eta_A} + T_{ph2}. \quad (25)$$

Moreover, assuming that antenna losses are estimated with an error  $\hat{\eta}_A = \eta_A(1 + \delta_A)$ , then the error in the estimation of the equivalent physical temperature is

$$\delta T_{ph_{eq}}^A = \frac{T_{ph1} - T_{ph2}}{\eta_A} \delta_A \quad (26)$$

i.e., the fractional error of antenna losses has a low impact on the calibration, since it is multiplied by the difference of two similar physical temperatures.

Finally, the PMS can also be fully calibrated by the one-point method to measure antenna temperature, since combining (23) and (24) yields

$$T_R^A = \frac{v_C T_{ph_{eq}} - v_W T_{sky}}{v_W - v_C}. \quad (27)$$

### B. In-Orbit Calibration of the NDN

In the previous section, PMS gain is calibrated by means of the one-point external calibration during deep-sky views. However, a second estimation of PMS gain can also be obtained by the internal calibration. The PMS gain at the antenna plane can be written from (17) as

$$G_k^A = G_N^C \frac{v_{2k} - v_{1k}}{\eta_{N2} - \eta_{N1}} \frac{B_k}{B_n} \quad (28)$$

where the NIR gain at the  $C$  plane  $G_N^C$  has been translated to the NIR antenna plane  $G_N^{CA}$  in a similar way as that done for the PMS. The parameter  $B_k$  is defined as the transmission parameter from antenna  $k$  plane to the input of the NDN (port "0")

$$B_k = \frac{|S_{LA_k}|^2 \eta_{A_k}}{|S_{LC_k}|^2 |S_{k0}|^2}. \quad (29)$$

A similar expression  $B_n$  holds for the transmission parameter from the NIR antenna plane to the input of the NDN. Then, combining (23) and (28), the transmission coefficients, relative to the NIR path, relating each PMS can be retrieved

$$\frac{B_k}{B_n} = \frac{1}{G_N^{CA}} \frac{\eta_2 - \eta_1}{T_{ph_k} - T_{sky_k}} \frac{v_{kW} - v_{kC}}{v_{2k} - v_{1k}}. \quad (30)$$

This expression, which is exclusively computed from calibration measurements during deep-sky views, can now be compared to the value estimated from ground measurements (after temperature correction)

$$\frac{B_k}{B_n} = \frac{|S_{LA_k}|^2 \eta_{A_k}}{|S_{LC_k}|^2 |S_{k0}|^2} \frac{|S_{LC_n}|^2 |S_{n0}|^2}{|S_{LA_n}|^2 \eta_{A_n}}. \quad (31)$$

Note that the term  $B_k/B_n$  simply represents the unbalance of the calibration network path to each PMS antenna plane, relative to the NIR path. It would value one for a perfectly balanced instrument. The procedure described so far is intended to provide, during deep-sky views, a validation of the PMS calibration procedure by internal calibration. Of course, (30) also holds during the observation mode just changing the sky temperature by the antenna temperature when looking at the Earth. However, in this last case, the errors will be much larger due to the reduced difference between the calibration temperatures and a larger error in the estimation of antenna temperature.

### C. PMS Linearity Correction

Finally, PMS nonlinearity affects the accuracy of absolute calibration. In [7], it was shown that the PMS behavior is very well modeled by means of a second-order response

$$v_k = v_{\text{off}k} + G_k^C T_{\text{sys}Ck} + a_k [T_{\text{sys}Ck}]^2. \quad (32)$$

The second-order term is measured by means of the so-called deflection or slope method [10], [11], yielding a value close to  $a_k = 5 \cdot 10^{-6}$  mV/K<sup>2</sup>. This gives a maximum error due to nonlinearity of about 1%, defined as the maximum fractional error in the estimation of system temperature for antenna temperatures ranging from 2.7 to 300 K (observation mode). The error is computed when PMS gain and offset are calibrated by the four-point method with the HOT and WARM temperatures described in Section I-A. This error can be reduced for in-orbit estimations of system temperature (both in measurement or calibration mode) by using the ground-measured second-order term as

$$T_{\text{sys}k} = \frac{v_k^c - v_{\text{off}k}}{G_k} \quad (33)$$

where the linearity-corrected PMS voltage  $v_k^c$  is given by

$$v_k^c = v_k - a_k [T_{\text{sys}k}^i]^2. \quad (34)$$

$v_k$  are direct PMS voltage readings. The first estimation of system temperature is computed as

$$T_{\text{sys}k}^i = \frac{v_k - v_{\text{off}k}^i}{G_k^i} \quad (35)$$

where  $v_{\text{off}k}^i$  and  $G_k^i$  are first estimates of the related magnitudes by neglecting the second-order term. This second-order term is assumed to have low aging and temperature drift. Anyway, the major advantage of this iterative method is given by the fact that it is very robust in front of error in the estimation of  $a_k$ : the error in the estimation of  $T_{\text{sys}k}$  can be reduced below 0.1% even in the case that the error in the estimation of  $a_k$  is about  $\pm 10\%$ .

## IV. CONCLUSION

The relative and absolute amplitude calibration of the MIRAS–SMOS instrument has been reviewed taking into account the experimental results from the first batch of engineering model receivers, which are fully representative of the flight hardware. Experimental results have shown state-of-the-art baseline performance and the capability of the system to be calibrated in orbit to compensate for temperature thermal drift. Residual errors after calibration are well below system specifications: 1% for the amplitude, 1° for the phase, and 1 c.u. for the offset. A method to validate the relative calibration of

the instrument during deep-space views has also been sketched. This validation is based on one-point calibration of the PMS as developed in this paper. Additionally, a proposal to reduce PMS linearity errors to 0.1% has also been proposed.

The experimental results presented in this paper are related to the MIRAS–SMOS hardware. However, they give a very good grasp on state-of-the-art single-baseline performance, which is the core of any passive interferometer devoted to remote sensing. Quantitative measurements on what can be achieved in terms of stability and temperature sensitivity of complex normalized and denormalized correlations, offset noise, or fringe washing response are presented. The differences between nominal and redundant correlation and fringe wash terms show the impact of small differences in the frequency response of the in-phase and quadrature branches. Finally, the results reveal that the dominant source of error, by far, comes from the amplitude denormalization of the correlations. An interesting result, indeed, since it has been widely believed that the use of one-bit two-level correlators made the interferometer insensitive to amplitude changes.

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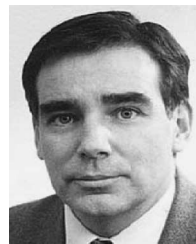


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