

# Validation of ICON-MIGHTI thermospheric wind observations: 2. Green-line comparisons to specular meteor radars

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## Key Points:

- Coincident wind measurements by ICON-MIGHTI and specular meteor radars are strongly correlated ( $r=0.82$ )
- The mean discrepancy between the datasets is 4.5 m/s, validating the MIGHTI v03 zero reference
- The RMS discrepancy is 26 m/s, which is attributed to inherent data errors and variability on time scales  $\lesssim 70$  min

**Abstract**

We compare coincident thermospheric neutral wind observations made by the Michelson Interferometer for Global High-Resolution Thermospheric Imaging (MIGHTI) on the Ionospheric Connection Explorer (ICON) spacecraft, and four ground-based specular meteor radars (SMRs). Using the green-line MIGHTI channel, we analyze 1158 coincidences between Dec 2019 and May 2020 in the altitude range from 94 to 104 km where the observations overlap. We find that the two datasets are strongly correlated ( $r=0.82$ ) with a small mean difference (4.5 m/s). Although this agreement is good, an analysis of known error sources (e.g., shot noise, calibration errors, and analysis assumptions) can only account for about a quarter of the disagreement variance. The unexplained variance is 27.8% of the total signal variance and could be caused by unknown errors. However, based on an analysis of the spatial and temporal averaging of the two measurement modalities, we suggest that some of the disagreement is likely caused by temporal variability of the wind on scales  $\lesssim 70$  min. The observed magnitudes agree well during the night, but during the day, MIGHTI observes 16–25% faster winds than the SMRs. This remains unresolved but is similar in certain ways to previous SMR-satellite comparisons.

**Plain Language Summary**

Although Earth’s atmosphere becomes less dense at high altitudes where it transitions to space, the wind speed grows faster, often exceeding 100 m/s (225 mph). One barrier to better predictions of conditions in the near-Earth space environment is obtaining knowledge of the wind in the thermosphere, the uppermost layer of the atmosphere. Measurements of the thermospheric wind are difficult to make and historically sparse. ICON, a new NASA mission launched in October 2019, carries the MIGHTI instrument to measure the wind from 90 to 300 km altitude. In this study we compare the observations of MIGHTI to those of meteor radars, which measure the wind from the ground by analysis of radio waves reflected by meteor trails. The results indicate good agreement between the datasets when they measure the wind at the same time and place. Specifically, with 1158 coincidences over the first 6 months of the ICON mission, the correlation is 0.82 and the average difference is 4.5 m/s. This study is important because it validates the MIGHTI data, giving confidence for subsequent studies using its data. It also quantifies limits to the agreement between space-based and ground-based winds, which is useful information for future studies combining them.

**1 Introduction**

The thermospheric wind acts to distribute energy and momentum from high-latitude drivers to the global thermosphere-ionosphere system, and likewise from sources in the lower and middle atmosphere to near-Earth space. In the lower thermosphere, a region with high electrical conductivity, neutral winds generate dynamo electric fields which transport ionospheric plasma (Heelis, 2004; Richmond, 2011). In the upper thermosphere, winds force the ionosphere via drag and via advection of compositional changes (Rishbeth, 1972). The interplay between these and other wind-driven processes is not well understood but is critical for predicting variability in the thermosphere-ionosphere system (Pedatella et al., 2018; Liu, 2016; Maute et al., 2012; Fuller-Rowell, 2011; England, 2011; Titheridge, 1995; Killeen, 1987). However, the thermospheric wind is difficult to observe, and measurements remain sparse.

A new wind dataset is now available from the Ionospheric Connection Explorer (ICON), a NASA mission launched in October 2019 to study the sources of ionospheric variability (Immel et al., 2017). The Michelson Interferometer for Global High-Resolution Thermospheric Imaging (MIGHTI) is one of four instruments on-board ICON (Englert et al., 2017), measuring the low-/mid-latitude horizontal wind between 90 and 300 km altitude. Wind estimates are derived from remote observations of Doppler shifts in two naturally

78 occurring atomic oxygen airglow emissions: the green line (the  $O(^1S-^1D)$  557.7-nm emis-  
 79 sion in the lower thermosphere) and the red line (the  $O(^1D-^3P)$  630.0-nm emission in  
 80 the middle/upper thermosphere). In addition to the neutral wind, MIGHTI also mea-  
 81 sures neutral temperature by observing the spectral shape of the  $O_2$  A-band emission  
 82 (Stevens et al., 2018). In this study we focus on MIGHTI wind observations obtained  
 83 from the green line.

84 Although different interferometric techniques were used, similar wind observations  
 85 were made by previous space-borne instruments: for example, the Fabry-Perot interfer-  
 86 ometer on Dynamics-Explorer 2 (DE-2) (Hays et al., 1981), the Wind Imaging Interfer-  
 87 ometer (WINDII) (Shepherd et al., 2012) and the High-Resolution Doppler Imager (HRDI)  
 88 (Hays et al., 1993) on the Upper Atmosphere Research Satellite (UARS), and most re-  
 89 cently the Thermosphere Ionosphere Mesosphere Energetics and Dynamics (TIMED) Doppler  
 90 Interferometer (TIDI) (Killeen et al., 2006). MIGHTI is unique in that it gathers data  
 91 from both OI emissions and all altitudes simultaneously, with no duty cycling or scan-  
 92 ning of the field of view or interferometer parts. Although this is an advantage for data  
 93 coverage and cadence, it requires that separate calibrations be employed for each sen-  
 94 sor, wavelength, and altitude. Thus, validation is critical.

95 Other methods to measure the thermospheric wind include observing the red and  
 96 green emissions from the ground (Meriwether, 2006), tracking satellite drag (Xiong et  
 97 al., 2015; Visser et al., 2019), observing the drift of tracers released from sounding rock-  
 98 ets (Larsen, 2002), inverting incoherent scatter drifts in the lower thermosphere (Hysell  
 99 et al., 2014), and observing the Doppler shift of specular radar echoes from meteor trails  
 100 (Chau et al., 2019). The specular meteor radar (SMR) method has the advantage of con-  
 101 tinuous temporal coverage, with altitude coverage reaching from below the mesopause  
 102 to  $\sim 105$  km or higher. It is thus a promising method for validation of MIGHTI green-  
 103 line winds, which have complete local time coverage spanning 90– $\sim 109$  km. A separate  
 104 paper discusses validation of the MIGHTI nighttime red-line winds by comparing with  
 105 ground-based Fabry-Perot interferometers (Makela et al., 2020).

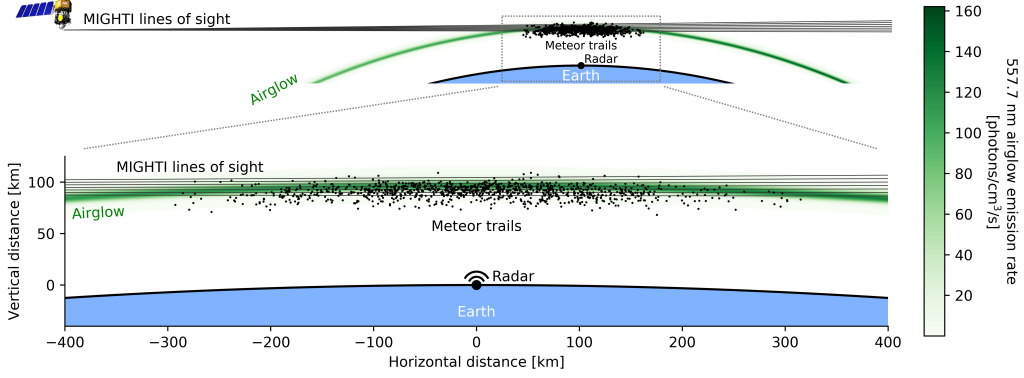
106 Although validation is the primary goal, understanding and quantifying the dif-  
 107 ferences between these two techniques is useful in other ways. In general, ground-based  
 108 sensors have excellent local-time coverage but poor spatial coverage, while space-based  
 109 sensors have global-scale spatial coverage, but poor local-time coverage (as controlled  
 110 by orbital precession which takes weeks or months). Combining these sampling strate-  
 111 gies could be advantageous for quantifying the spatiotemporal variability of the thermo-  
 112 sphere. The quantitative comparisons shown here are useful for identifying any cross-  
 113 calibration issues and also for tuning assimilative models. Finally, since MIGHTI and  
 114 SMR have similar horizontal and vertical spatial resolutions (as discussed in the Appendix)  
 115 but different temporal resolutions, statistical differences in the two observations are po-  
 116 tentially a measure of wind variability on time scales  $\lesssim 70$  min.

## 117 2 Instrumentation

118 In this study we compare observations made by MIGHTI and by a SMR at nearly  
 119 the same place and time, which we refer to as a coincidence. An idealized MIGHTI-SMR  
 120 coincidence is shown schematically in Figure 1, indicating the locations of ICON, the MIGHTI  
 121 lines of sight, the green line airglow layer, and a representative set of meteor detections.  
 122 More details on MIGHTI and SMR wind observations are described below.

### 123 2.1 ICON-MIGHTI

124 MIGHTI utilizes the Doppler Asymmetric Spatial Heterodyne (DASH) spectroscopy  
 125 technique (Harlander et al., 2017) to sense Doppler shifts in the red line and green line  
 126 emissions. From a  $27^\circ$  inclination orbit at  $\sim 600$  km altitude, the two MIGHTI sensors



**Figure 1.** The geometry of a coincidence between ICON-MIGHTI and a specular meteor radar (SMR). Black dots indicate meteor detections during a 71-minute period (the full-width half-max of the temporal weighting used in the SMR analysis). Black lines indicate the six lowest MIGHTI lines of sight. An average 557.7 nm green line airglow distribution is shown, for the night case. During the day, the emission layer is thicker. The bottom graphic is shown to scale, and in the top graphic the vertical coordinate is stretched by a factor of 2.

127 observe the northern limb at azimuth offsets of  $45^\circ$  and  $135^\circ$  from the spacecraft veloc-  
 128 ity vector, covering latitudes from about  $12^\circ\text{S}$  to  $42^\circ\text{N}$ . For each exposure from each sen-  
 129 sor, the observed interferogram is inverted to estimate the component of the horizontal  
 130 neutral wind along MIGHTI’s line of sight (LoS). Wind estimates are generally avail-  
 131 able continuously from 90–300 km altitude during the day, with a gap at night between  
 132  $\sim 109$  and  $\sim 210$  km, where the airglow is dim or nonexistent. More details of the wind  
 133 retrieval are described by Harding et al. (2017).

134 The inverted wind speed profiles (i.e., the component of the horizontal wind vec-  
 135 tor in the direction of the field of view, as a function of altitude, hereafter “LoS wind  
 136 profiles”) are ICON’s Level 2.1 data product. Profiles from the two orthogonally oriented  
 137 sensors (MIGHTI-A and MIGHTI-B) are combined to estimate altitude profiles of the  
 138 zonal and meridional wind, which is ICON’s Level 2.2 data product. In normal science  
 139 mode, MIGHTI-B observes the same region of the atmosphere as MIGHTI-A after 5–  
 140 8 minutes of spacecraft motion. Combining these observations implicitly assumes the wind  
 141 has not changed significantly over this period. In this study, we use the Level 2.1 data  
 142 product, since no assumptions of temporal coherence are needed, and it will allow us to  
 143 separately investigate the calibrations of the two MIGHTI sensors.

144 The vertical sampling of MIGHTI is 2.9 km on the limb at 90 km altitude, and 2.2  
 145 km at 300 km altitude. MIGHTI takes an exposure every 30 seconds in day mode and  
 146 60 seconds in night mode. As a result of spacecraft motion, this implies a horizontal aver-  
 147 aging of  $\sim 250$  or 500 km in the along-track direction. In addition, the long path of the  
 148 LoS through the emitting layer represents a horizontal averaging of hundreds of km, where  
 149 deviations from the assumption of spherical symmetry have the potential to incur retrieval  
 150 errors (Y. J. Wu et al., 2020). The Appendix contains a detailed quantification of hor-  
 151 izontal resolution issues in MIGHTI and SMR. In brief, at night the MIGHTI horizo-  
 152 ntal sampling is similar to or slightly larger than the horizontal sampling of the SMR. Dur-  
 153 ing the day, the MIGHTI sampling is a factor of 3–4 larger since the emission layer is  
 154 thicker.

155 For any interferometric velocity measurement, determination of the zero reference  
 156 is a critical calibration step. For the MIGHTI v03 dataset used in this study, the zero

**Table 1.** Specular meteor radar sites

Name	Latitude	Longitude	Frequency	Peak power	Reference
Tirupati	13.6°N	79.4°E	35.25 MHz	40 kW	Rao et al. (2014)
Ledong	18.4°N	109.0°E	38.9 MHz	20 kW	Wang et al. (2019)
Wuhan	30.5°N	114.6°E	38.9 MHz	20 kW	Yu et al. (2013)
Beijing	40.3°N	116.2°E	38.9 MHz	10 kW	Yu et al. (2013)

157 wind phase was established by a comparison between a 60-day average of MIGHTI data  
 158 and a 60-day average of the Horizontal Wind Model 2014 (Drob et al., 2015), an empir-  
 159 ical model informed by decades of previous wind measurements. Separate calibrations  
 160 are used for MIGHTI-A and -B, red and green, day and night, and for each row of pix-  
 161 els on the detector (i.e., each altitude). A future release will utilize the on-orbit zero-wind  
 162 maneuver to refine this calibration. More information on the latest release can be found  
 163 in the MIGHTI documentation (<ftp://icon-science.ssl.berkeley.edu/pub/Documentation/>).

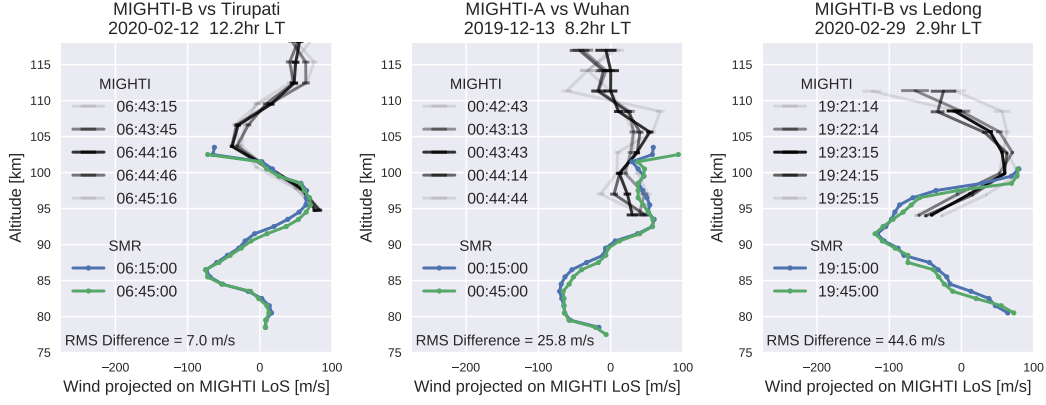
## 164 2.2 Specular Meteor Radar (SMR)

165 In this work we use four monostatic SMRs located at Tirupati, Ledong, Wuhan and  
 166 Beijing, spanning from low to mid latitudes. The SMRs are from the same manufacturer,  
 167 and each uses one single antenna on transmission and five antennas on reception in an  
 168 interferometer configuration. The latter is used to locate the scattering center of the re-  
 169 ceived echo, which along with the measured LoS Doppler velocity, is used to get hori-  
 170 zontal winds using the homogeneous velocity technique over the illuminated area (around  
 171 180 km radius at 90 km altitude) (e.g., Holdsworth et al., 2004). These winds have been  
 172 obtained by binning the meteor measurements in time and altitude using a Gaussian weight-  
 173 ing function with total widths, i.e.,  $2\sigma$ , of one hour and two km in time and altitude, re-  
 174 spectively. The location, frequency, peak transmitter power and selected reference for  
 175 each of the four radars can be found in Table 1.

176 The horizontal velocity in each bin is obtained using a least square fitting proce-  
 177 dure with at least ten detections after data selection. The data selection process con-  
 178 sists of selecting detections with elevation angles greater than 30 degrees to avoid large  
 179 uncertainties in altitude, and removing detections with Doppler velocities larger than  
 180  $3\sigma$  deviations, where  $\sigma$  is estimated from daily distributions of radial velocities. Typi-  
 181 cal values of  $\sigma$  are 35–50 m/s. The same analysis software is used for all four sites.

## 182 3 Results and Discussion

183 We use the first 6 months of MIGHTI LoS wind data, from 2019-12-06 (the start  
 184 of routine science mode) to 2020-05-31. We only use samples for which the “wind qual-  
 185 ity factor” is equal to 1 (i.e., highest quality). For each SMR site, we consider all coin-  
 186 cidences, namely, times when the MIGHTI tangent point passes within a horizontal dis-  
 187 tance of 300 km from the SMR site. This threshold was chosen to be consistent with the  
 188 distance traversed by the line of sight through the tangent altitude shell and roughly con-  
 189 sistent with the MIGHTI horizontal resolution (see Appendix), but our qualitative con-  
 190 clusions do not change when different reasonable thresholds are used. This results in a  
 191 dataset of 1158 coincidences, spanning a variety of dates and local times. In order to com-  
 192 pare with the MIGHTI LoS wind, the meteor radar wind vector is projected onto the  
 193 MIGHTI viewing direction. In normal science mode, this is a direction between North  
 194 and East for MIGHTI-A and between West and North for MIGHTI-B, depending on lat-  
 195 titude.



**Figure 2.** Three examples of coincident wind observations from ICON-MIGHTI and from specular meteor radars (SMRs). Colored lines are the SMR profiles before and after the coincidence, projected onto the MIGHTI line of sight (LoS) vector. Black lines are consecutive MIGHTI LoS wind profiles (ICON data product 2.1) during the overflight, where the transparency represents the horizontal distance to the SMR site. In all three cases, the closest approach is less than 85 km. Error bars represent  $1\sigma$  statistical errors. The root-mean-square (RMS) difference between the MIGHTI and SMR profiles is also displayed.

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### 3.1 Individual coincidences

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Figure 2 shows three example coincidences, which represent good, average, and poor agreement. In terms of the root-mean-square (RMS) difference (calculated in the altitude region where the datasets overlap), the left panel is 7.0 m/s, the middle panel is 25.8 m/s and the right panel is 44.6 m/s, which is in the 7th, 59th, and 92nd percentile, respectively, among all coincidences with at least 3 overlapping altitude samples. In each panel, two SMR wind profiles are shown in color, corresponding to the two time intervals centered before and after the coincidence. MIGHTI wind profiles during the overflight are shown in black, where the transparency of the line is proportional to the horizontal distance from the SMR site.

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In a qualitative sense, the MIGHTI wind profile and the SMR profile have similar trends with altitude. The structure is dominated by a vertical wavelength of 10–20 km, consistent with tides. Where the MIGHTI and SMR profiles overlap, they display similar slopes. However, in some cases the observations differ by 50 m/s or more. These differences are larger than the difference between the two consecutive SMR profiles, and are usually larger than the differences in 5 consecutive MIGHTI profiles during the pass. This suggests that the MIGHTI-SMR disagreements cannot be attributed to statistical noise in either instrument, as we discuss further in Section 3.4. In the next section we analyze all 1158 coincidences to make a more quantitative comparison.

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### 3.2 Statistics

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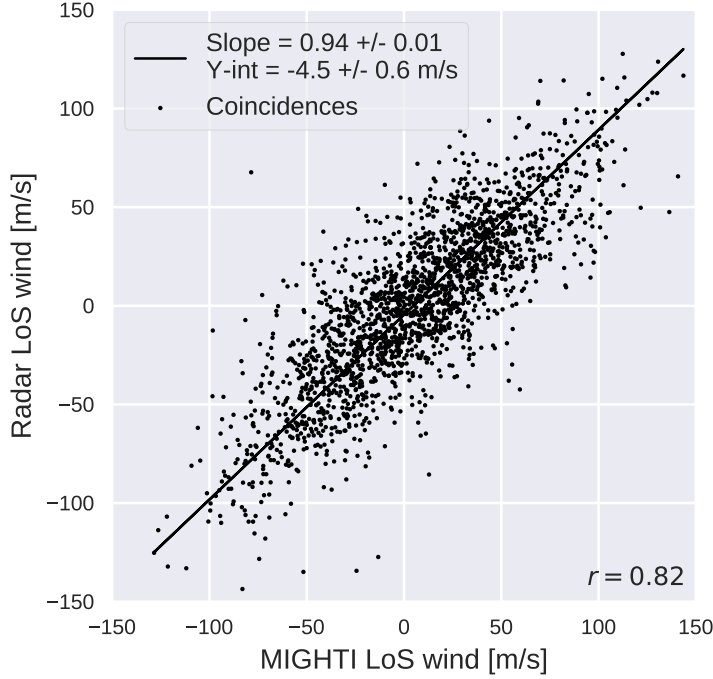
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For each of the 1158 MIGHTI overflights of a SMR site, we consider only the closest MIGHTI exposure, and linearly interpolate the SMR data in time and altitude to the MIGHTI time and altitudes. This interpolation is not expected to generate a significant error, because the SMR profiles are generally smooth in time and space (i.e., altitude and time variations are dominated by the true signal, not white noise). Extrapolation is never used.

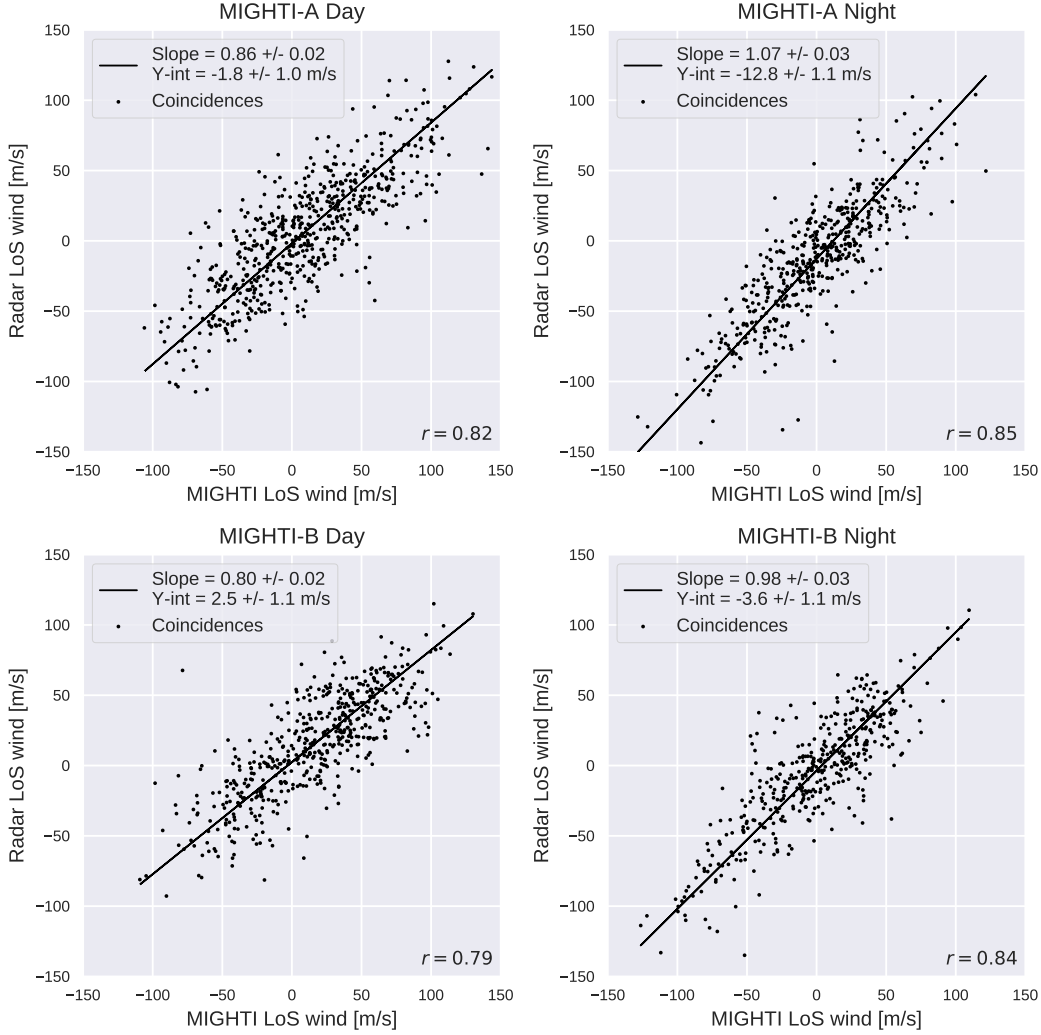


**Figure 3.** Summary of 1158 coincidences between MIGHTI and four SMR sites. Each dot indicates one altitude from one coincidence, spanning dates from Dec 2019 to May 2020 and altitudes from 94 to 104 km. Cardinal winds from the SMR observation are interpolated to the MIGHTI sample locations and projected onto MIGHTI’s line of sight (LoS). The Pearson correlation is 0.82. A linear fit using orthogonal distance regression is also shown, with a slope of 0.94 and a mean offset of -4.5 m/s. Standard error of the slope and y-intercept estimates are also shown.

222 Depending on meteor density, SMR winds overlap with up to 4 MIGHTI altitude  
 223 samples on each coincidence. In total, 2054 data points are available from the 1158 co-  
 224 incidences, spanning  $\sim 94$  to  $\sim 104$  km. MIGHTI observes two lower altitudes as well ( $\sim 88$   
 225 and  $\sim 91$  km). However, they are not included in this study because they are currently  
 226 labeled with a quality of 0.5 (i.e., “caution”) pending a more detailed analysis of the cal-  
 227ibrations for these rows near the edge of the field.

228 Figure 3 compares the MIGHTI wind to the SMR wind, where each point repre-  
 229sents one altitude from one coincidence. A linear fit using orthogonal distance regres-  
 230sion is also shown. The correlation between the two datasets is 0.82, implying that 67%  
 231 of the observed signal variance is common between MIGHTI and the SMRs. The slope  
 232 of the fit (0.94) is near 1, suggesting that similar wind magnitudes are seen between the  
 233 two datasets. The fact that the slope is slightly less than 1 is discussed in more detail  
 234 below.

235 Taking the difference (MIGHTI wind minus SMR wind), which is hereafter referred  
 236 to as the “discrepancy,” we find that the mean discrepancy is 4.5 m/s. Since the same  
 237 local oscillator is used for transmission and reception, the SMR zero baseline is many  
 238 orders of magnitude more accurate than the MIGHTI zero baseline, and this result is  
 239 thus interpreted as a validation of the zero wind reference used in the MIGHTI v03 dataset.  
 240 The RMS discrepancy is 26.4 m/s. Overall, this result gives confidence that MIGHTI  
 241 is healthy and providing useful green-line wind data in its first 6 months of operation.



**Figure 4.** Same as Figure 3, except the dataset is split between the two MIGHTI sensors and between the two MIGHTI operating modes (Day and Night).

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### 3.3 Day/night differences

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No trends are apparent when the MIGHTI-SMR discrepancy is analyzed as a function of altitude, coincidence distance, viewing direction, ascending/descending orbit, date, or SMR site. However, one difference is clear when the discrepancy is analyzed separately in day mode and night mode. Figure 4 shows the same data as Figure 3 except the dataset is split into 4 subsets, separating MIGHTI-A/B and day/night mode. In day mode, the exposure is 30 sec instead of 60 sec, the aperture is stopped to 15% of the nighttime aperture, and the emission layer spans more altitudes. Separate calibrations for zero wind, visibility, flat field, and phase distortion are used for these 4 cases, so it is useful to analyze them independently.

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In all 4 cases in Figure 4, we find similar values for the RMS discrepancy (23.7 – 27.8 m/s) and the correlation (0.79 – 0.85). The mean offsets are negligibly small (1.8, 2.5, and 3.6 m/s) with the exception of MIGHTI-A in night-mode, which is 12.8 m/s. This could be caused by an inaccuracy in the Horizontal Wind Model or by uncorrected



256 mechanical shifts, and this case will be a focus of an updated zero wind calibration for  
 257 a future MIGHTI data release.

258 One striking feature of Figure 4 is the apparent difference in fitted slopes between  
 259 day mode and night mode. In night mode the slopes are 1.07 and 0.98, while in day mode  
 260 they are consistently smaller (0.86 and 0.80). In other words, in day mode MIGHTI-A  
 261 measures 16% faster winds and MIGHTI-B measures 25% faster winds than the SMRs.

262 The cause of this disagreement is not presently known. It is interesting to note that  
 263 similar features were seen in previous comparisons between space-based and SMR-based  
 264 winds. Burrage et al. (1996) compared the HRDI O<sub>2</sub>(0-0) winds to the Jakarta SMR.  
 265 They did not quantify the correlation, but reported that HRDI measured generally larger  
 266 meridional winds than the SMR. Forbes et al. (2004) compared HRDI O<sub>2</sub>(0-0) winds to  
 267 three SMRs in terms of zonal-mean winds and retrieved tidal amplitudes. One conclu-  
 268 sion of this study was a multiplicative speed bias of 1.6 for zonal-mean winds and 1.3  
 269 for the semidiurnal tide. An anisotropy was noted wherein the zonal winds disagree more  
 270 than the meridional winds. Finally, Q. Wu et al. (2006) reported a larger diurnal tide  
 271 amplitude in TIDI O<sub>2</sub>(0-0) meridional wind data than in SMR data from Maui. While  
 272 it is probable that multiple factors are contributing to these conclusions, it is notewor-  
 273 thy that all these studies found space-based winds to be faster than ground-based winds  
 274 in certain ways. To our knowledge, no study reached the opposite conclusion.

275 We performed an identical analysis (not shown here) using the MIGHTI cardinal  
 276 wind data (ICON data product 2.2) compared to the SMR cardinal wind data, and no  
 277 significant difference between zonal and meridional wind comparisons were found. This  
 278 is expected given that the cardinal wind data is a combination of MIGHTI-A and -B data,  
 279 and no significant difference between MIGHTI-A and -B is seen in the LoS wind com-  
 280 parisons.

281 To our knowledge the root cause of previous ground-to-space discrepancies has not  
 282 been identified. The MIGHTI-SMR comparisons shown here are qualitatively consistent  
 283 with previous comparisons and suggest an inherent bias with SMR wind observations  
 284 or with space-borne airglow-based wind observations. Our study suggests this problem  
 285 may exist in the daytime only. As the biggest difference between day and night is the  
 286 thickness of the airglow layer, this suggests some influence of error from the inversion  
 287 of the space-based measurement. One possibility arises from the fact that the MIGHTI  
 288 samples used here are taken from the bottom of the green-line airglow profile. As a con-  
 289 sequence of the inversion, the retrieved wind at these low altitudes is a small difference  
 290 of large numbers and is thus sensitive to small errors in flat fielding or violations of spher-  
 291 ical symmetry (Y. J. Wu et al., 2020). This will be a focus of future work. Until this dis-  
 292 agreement is resolved, users of MIGHTI data could take a conservative approach by eval-  
 293 uating the impact of a 16–25% positive daytime speed bias on their conclusions. Although  
 294 this disagreement could be important for certain analyses, the winds are not usually large  
 295 enough for this to significantly contribute to the total RMS discrepancy of 26.4 m/s. Other  
 296 factors must be dominant. We discuss possible contributors to the discrepancy in the  
 297 next section.

### 298 3.4 Sources of Discrepancy

299 The results shown above are interpreted as validation of the first 6 months of MIGHTI's  
 300 green-line winds, in terms of the variations and the zero baseline for both operating modes  
 301 and both sensors. However, even though the MIGHTI-SMR discrepancy is small, it is  
 302 not negligible, and it is important to understand for future studies. Notably, the discrep-  
 303 ancancy cannot be understood simply as noise in the data. The mean precision (i.e., ran-  
 304 dom or statistical error) in the MIGHTI data used in these comparisons is 3.3 m/s and  
 305 in the SMR winds is <1 m/s. Even if the reported precision values were optimistic by  
 306 a factor of 2, which is unlikely, the noise variance would remain less than 7% of the dis-

**Table 2.** Sources of discrepancy in MIGHTI-SMR comparisons with estimated magnitudes

Source	Root-mean-square magnitude	Percent variance
LoS wind measurements	43.3 m/s	
MIGHTI-SMR discrepancy	26.4 m/s	100.0%
MIGHTI shot and read noise	3.3 m/s	1.6%
MIGHTI mechanical drift	5 – 10 m/s	3.6 – 14.4%
MIGHTI zero wind error	4.9 m/s	3.4%
MIGHTI spherical asymmetry	<5 m/s	<3.4%
SMR precision	<1 m/s	< 0.14%
SMR sensitivity to gradients	3.5 m/s	1.8%
SMR sensitivity to vertical wind	1.4 m/s	0.3%

307 crepancy variance. For future studies utilizing MIGHTI data, and possibly combining  
 308 them with SMRs, there is a need to understand other factors contributing to the discrep-  
 309 ancy.

310 In the following, we discuss possible factors, which are summarized in Table 2. For  
 311 each factor, an estimate of the RMS magnitude is provided, as well as the square of that  
 312 quantity, reported as a percent of the discrepancy variance.

313 Although statistical errors are small, there can be errors in calibration or assump-  
 314 tions in the analysis. For MIGHTI, there are two possibilities for calibration errors: in-  
 315 strument drift and zero wind error. As discussed above, the zero wind error is estimated  
 316 at 4.8 m/s. Instrument drift is dominated by thermal fluctuations in the interferome-  
 317 ter and in the mechanical alignment. Interferometer drift is corrected by monitoring the  
 318 interference fringes of an on-board calibration lamp (Marr et al., 2019); an error in this  
 319 correction cannot be ruled out, but since the observed variation is slow and periodic with  
 320 respect to the orbit, the correction is straightforward and unlikely to cause a significant  
 321 error. Mechanical drift can be monitored using the position of a notch-pattern engraved  
 322 on one of the interferometer gratings (Harlander et al., 2017; Englert et al., 2017; Marr  
 323 et al., 2020). This correction is not implemented in v03 data but will be included in a  
 324 future release. Its RMS magnitude is estimated at 5 – 10 m/s based on preliminary anal-  
 325 ysis.

326 Errors from spherical asymmetries in emission rate were investigated by Y. J. Wu  
 327 et al. (2020), who predicted errors less than 5 m/s at 97 km. This error was concentrated  
 328 in data near the terminators, which are automatically discarded in our analysis since they  
 329 are labeled with a “wind quality factor” of 0.5 (i.e., caution) in the MIGHTI data prod-  
 330 uct. However, we include 5 m/s as a worst case error. Errors in the inversion caused by  
 331 spherical asymmetries in the wind are another possible source of error. Attempting to  
 332 quantify this error would require accurate knowledge of small-scale fluctuations in the  
 333 wind. Such analysis is not attempted here. Another possible concern regarding airglow  
 334 gradients is the spacecraft velocity correction. The spacecraft velocity projected onto the  
 335 LoS changes by 240 m/s from the left edge to the right edge of the 2.7° field of view. The  
 336 data analysis corrects for spacecraft motion by adjusting the phase at each pixel inde-  
 337 pendently (Harding et al., 2017), so even in cases of extreme horizontal or vertical air-  
 338 glow gradients, no systematic error is introduced.

339 One other possibility is an altitude registration error. Indeed, some of the individ-  
 340 ual coincidences (e.g., Figure 2, right panel) would appear to agree better if the MIGHTI  
 341 profile were shifted up or down. Although meteor geolocation is expected to be accu-

rate, the MIGHTI geolocation is dependent upon an analysis of star fields to register the field of view. This was achieved to a precision of  $0.01^\circ$  or  $\sim 0.2$  km on the limb. We performed an analysis of the MIGHTI-SMR coincidences using different offsets for MIGHTI pointing, and found that the optimal offset is to shift the MIGHTI profile down by 1–2 km, where the discrepancy is reduced by 0.8 – 1.4 m/s. This improvement is small relative to the 26.4 m/s discrepancy, and the optimal shift is smaller than the field of view of an individual MIGHTI pixel, which is 2.2 – 2.9 km. Thus, we do not consider this effect further.

SMR data used in this study were processed assuming a horizontally homogeneous wind field and no vertical wind. If the meteor density were infinite, then the retrieved wind would indeed be a spatial average of the true wind (weighted by the averaging kernel, as described in the Appendix). However, a finite meteor density raises the possibility that high spatial frequencies of the wind may alias into the estimated wind. To test the impact of this assumption to first order, we reprocessed SMR data allowing for an estimate of gradients in zonal and meridional wind. The RMS difference was 3.5 m/s. Similarly, a test of the vertical wind sensitivity was performed, which led to an RMS difference of 1.4 m/s.

Assuming the errors are independent and add in quadrature (i.e., the variances add linearly), and using worst-case values, we conclude that 25% (13.2 m/s RMS) of the discrepancy variance can be explained by known instrument errors. The remaining discrepancy (75% or 22.8 m/s RMS) must be caused by either an unknown major error source or by the different MIGHTI and SMR averaging kernels, or some combination. The MIGHTI and SMR data are measured at nearly the same time and place, with nearly the same vertical averaging ( $\sim 2$ –3 km), and horizontal averaging functions with similar widths (see Appendix; MIGHTI’s averaging is slightly larger during the night and 3–4 times larger during the day).

However, their temporal averaging is vastly different. As mentioned above, the SMR analysis averages using Gaussian weighting with  $2\sigma = 60$  min (i.e., full-width at half-maximum of 71 min), while MIGHTI’s exposure time is 0.5 min (day mode) or 1 min (night mode). Thus, the remaining discrepancy could be resolved if temporal scales  $\lesssim 70$  min contain 27.8% of the total kinetic energy of the wind between 94 and 104 km.

A correlation analysis was performed and finds a Pearson correlation of 0.53 between the discrepancy at  $\sim 94$  km and at  $\sim 97$  km, and likewise a correlation of 0.54 between  $\sim 97$  km and  $\sim 100$  km. Such a feature is not expected to result purely from statistical noise (which would be nearly uncorrelated between rows) nor from calibration errors (which would be nearly correlated between rows). However, it is consistent with gravity waves with finite vertical wavelengths, and it supports the notion that much of the discrepancy could be related to wind fluctuations on short time scales. The data used here cannot disambiguate the effects of gravity wave variance and unknown data errors. Quantifying the contribution to variability from waves with short time scales could be possible with incoherent scatter based wind estimates (Hysell et al., 2014) or with correlation analysis of multistatic meteor radar data (Vierinen et al., 2019). Users of MIGHTI data wishing to take a conservative approach could attribute all of the unexplained discrepancy to MIGHTI, thus defining an upper bound for MIGHTI error of 26.4 m/s RMS.

## 4 Conclusion

We have compared simultaneous and colocated thermospheric wind measurements in the 94 – 104 km altitude range from two sources: the ICON-MIGHTI v03 dataset and four SMRs. By comparing 1158 coincidences when MIGHTI observes the atmosphere over the SMR site, we find strong correlation ( $r=0.82$ ) with small mean offset (4.5 m/s). This is interpreted as a successful validation of the initial 6 months of MIGHTI’s green-

line data, in terms of both the MIGHTI zero reference and variations about that reference. The RMS difference in the two observations is 26.4 m/s, which is a small but significant discrepancy. Only about a quarter of this discrepancy can be attributed to known instrument errors like shot noise, calibrations, or assumptions in the analysis. The remaining discrepancy (22.8 m/s RMS) could be caused by some combination of unknown errors or wind fluctuations on time scales  $\lesssim 70$  min. No trends in the discrepancy are seen with altitude, coincidence distance, viewing angle, ascending/descending orbit, date or SMR site; however, one difference is apparent between day mode and night mode. In day mode, MIGHTI observes 16–25% faster winds than the SMRs, an artifact which appears to be consistent in some ways with historical SMR versus satellite limb comparisons but remains unresolved and will be a focus of future work. Our results are a necessary validation of green-line (lower thermospheric) MIGHTI winds, and they provide a quantitative context for future work that will combine space-based and ground-based winds for characterizing the spatiotemporal variability of the lower thermosphere.

## Appendix A Horizontal Resolution

In the following, we compute the horizontal resolution of MIGHTI and SMR, showing that they are comparable at night (with MIGHTI slightly larger) but different by a factor of 3–4 during the day. This result is important to interpret the comparisons in this paper, and this analysis could also be a useful reference for assimilative models which will ingest thermospheric wind data. Such models often have an explicit or implicit notion of data covariance or correlation functions, the spatial distribution of which can be informed by the discussion below.

Because most geophysical observations can be represented as a spatial or temporal average of the true underlying quantity, they can usually be written as a Fredholm integral of the first kind:

$$g(x) = \int h(s, x) f(s) ds \quad (\text{A1})$$

where  $f$  is the true quantity being observed,  $x$  and  $s$  may be multi-dimensional, representing time and/or space,  $g$  is an imperfect observation of  $f$ , and  $h$  is a spatial and/or temporal averaging function, usually referred to as an impulse response or averaging kernel. In the case where  $h$  depends only on  $s - x$ , this equation reduces to convolution. Noise is neglected but can be trivially included as an additive term.

Per the Nyquist sampling theorem, the smallest resolvable scale is twice the width of the averaging kernel,  $h$ . In order to compare averaging kernels with different shapes, we define the width by considering the second central moment of  $h$ :

$$\sigma^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu_h)^2 h(x) dx \quad (\text{A2})$$

where  $h$  is defined to be normalized such that it integrates to 1, and  $\mu_h$  is the first moment of  $h$ . For example, the width of a rectangle function is  $3.46\sigma$  and the full width at half-maximum of a Gaussian function is  $2.36\sigma$ . Different definitions of “width” are useful for different purposes. For simplicity, here we define the width of  $h$  as  $2\sigma$ , though the normalization is unimportant for this study since we are interested in relative differences between MIGHTI and SMR.

For a specular meteor radar using the homogeneous velocity technique, the averaging kernel can be defined analytically for a known meteor echo distribution:

$$h_{i,\text{SMR}}(x) \propto n(x) b_i(x) \quad (\text{A3})$$

where  $n(x)$  is the density of meteors detected at location  $x$ ,  $i$  can represent the zonal or meridional wind, and  $b_i$  is the component of the Bragg vector in the direction of  $i$ . Using the average meteor distribution in one day of Tirupati data, we evaluate the expressions above. For the zonal wind, the zonal width is  $2\sigma = 260$  km and the meridional width

**Table A1.** Horizontal Averaging Kernels for ICON-MIGHTI and specular meteor radar (SMR)

Case	$2\sigma$ width	Direction
SMR	190–290 km	All
MIGHTI field of view	75 km	Across LoS
MIGHTI exposure time	125 km (Day) 250 km (Night)	Along spacecraft velocity
MIGHTI ray path length	760–1200 km (Day) 220–450 km (Night)	Along LoS

437 is 210 km. The meridional wind is similar, with a meridional width of 290 km and a zonal  
438 width of 190 km.

439 For MIGHTI, three main factors contribute to the horizontal averaging kernel. First,  
440 the horizontal field of view is  $2.7^\circ$ , which equates to an averaging kernel with  $2\sigma = 75$   
441 km in the direction across the line of sight. Second, the 7.1 km/s spacecraft velocity in  
442 the Earth-fixed frame implies an averaging kernel with a width of  $2\sigma = 125$  km dur-  
443 ing the day and 250 km at night.

444 The third factor is the averaging along the line of sight, which the most important  
445 yet most difficult to quantify, as it depends on the airglow distribution and the inver-  
446 sion technique. In the case where  $h$  depends only on  $s-x$ , the averaging kernel is equal  
447 to the observation  $g(x)$  when the true quantity  $f(x)$  is a delta function. Here we deter-  
448 mine this via simulation. In practice, we first compute the integral of  $h$  by simulating  
449  $g(x)$  when  $f(x)$  is a step function, then differentiate to obtain  $h$ . The simulation used  
450 is detailed Section 4 of Harding et al. (2017). In brief, given a known airglow and wind  
451 distribution, a forward model simulates the observed interferogram. This interferogram  
452 is processed with the Level 1 and Level 2.1 MIGHTI algorithms to produce an observed  
453 wind. By sweeping the location of the discontinuity in  $f(x)$ , we trace out the shape of  
454  $g(x)$ , and then differentiate to obtain  $h(x)$ . In general each altitude has its own averag-  
455 ing kernel. We simulate day and night separately. In each, a representative solar-minimum,  
456 equinoctial, equatorial green-line emission profile is used, similar to the profiles in Fig  
457 7 of Harding et al. (2017). The emission rate and wind are spherically symmetric except  
458 for the step-function discontinuity in the wind.

459 Applying (A2) to the computed averaging kernel  $h(x)$ , we find that at night, the  
460 along-LoS averaging kernel has a  $2\sigma$  width of 220–450 km, whereas during the day it  
461 is much larger, 760–1200 km. The width is larger at lower altitudes, where the path  
462 length through the layer gets longer. It is noted that this quantitative result depends on  
463 the MIGHTI processing technique. More advanced techniques such as the one described  
464 by Y. J. Wu et al. (2020), or possibly tomographic techniques, may be able to improve  
465 the resolution.

466 The  $2\sigma$  averaging kernel widths described in this Appendix are summarized in Ta-  
467 ble A1.

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