Carrier Recovery Enhancement for Maximum-Likelihood Doppler Shift Estimation in Mars Exploration Missions

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Abstract—One of the most crucial stages of the Mars Exploration Missions is the Entry, Descent, and Landing (EDL) phase. During EDL, maintaining reliable communication from the spacecraft to Earth is extremely important for the success of future missions, especially in case of mission failure. EDL is characterized by very deep accelerations, caused by friction, parachute deployment and rocket firing among others. These dynamics cause a severe Doppler shift on the carrier communications link to Earth. Methods have been proposed to estimate the Doppler shift based on Maximum Likelihood. So far these methods have proved successful, but it is expected that the next Mars mission, known as the Mars Science Laboratory, will suffer from higher dynamics and lower SNR. Thus, improving the existing estimation methods becomes a necessity. We propose a Maximum Likelihood approach that takes into account the power in the data tones to enhance carrier recovery, and improve the estimation performance by up to 3 dB. Simulations are performed using real data obtained during the EDL stage of the Mars Exploration Rover B (MERB) mission.

Index Terms—Doppler effect, frequency estimation, maximum-likelihood estimation, space vehicle communication.

I. INTRODUCTION

NASA’s Viking missions made history when they became the first spacecraft to land safely on Mars in 1976. The next landing was accomplished twenty years later by the 1996 Pathfinder mission, which introduced innovative landing techniques. The two Mars Exploration Rover (MER) missions named MERA and MERB were launched by NASA in mid 2003, landing the rovers on Mars on January 2004. These rovers have travelled for miles across the Martian surface, conducting field geology and making atmospheric observations.

NASA’s next mission requiring safe landing on the surface of Mars is known as the Mars Science Laboratory (MSL), and is planned for the Mars launch opportunity in 2009. The primary objective is to investigate the habitability of Mars (i.e., its capacity to sustain life) [1]. One of the most outstanding characteristics of MSL compared to previous Mars Exploration missions is the advanced landing techniques that will be employed. The Mars Entry, Descent, and Landing (EDL) stages of the MSL mission will deliver a larger rover to a higher altitude, while maintaining precision landing [2], providing access to previously unaccessible sites [2]–[4].

A. Entry, Descent and Landing

The EDL stages of the mission refer to those stages between the point when the shuttle enters the atmosphere of Mars and when it finally lands on its surface. Fig. 1 shows the EDL stages for the 2004 Mars Exploration Missions [6], [5].

During EDL, it is highly important to maintain communication between the spacecraft and Earth, since the information sent could be critical for the success of future missions, especially in the eventuality of a mission failure. Before Entry and until the lander is separated from the backshell, communication is by a direct-to-Earth (DTE) X-band (8.4 GHz) link. After separation the backshell antenna can no longer be used, and communication is achieved using two links: a main UHF relay link to the Mars Odyssey or Mars Global Surveyor spacecraft, and a backup DTE link using the rover antenna. The DTE link uses a special form of MFSK modulation that transmits one out of 256 possible data tones every 10 s. This form of modulation will be discussed in the next section.

EDL is the most challenging phase of the spacecraft to ground communications [6]. There exist several phenomena that continuously accelerate and decelerate the spaceship during EDL, such as atmospheric friction and parachute deployment during Entry, bridle descent, swinging on bridle, rocket firing and bridle

Fig. 1. Entry, Descent, and Landing stages during MER missions (from [5]).
separation during Descent, and bouncing on the Landing stage. All these factors contribute to the effect known as Doppler shift, where the frequency of the main carrier of the communications signal is shifted from its nominal value. Fig. 2 shows the residual frequency profile observed during the EDL stage of the MERB mission. It can clearly be observed that the Doppler shift, ranges between −3 and 6 kHz. This range refers to the frequency residual which results after a first stage of Doppler shift correction; the actual Doppler shift has a range of about 90 kHz (see [5] for example). The Doppler rate, defined as the derivative of the Doppler shift, ranges between −200 and 200 Hz/s, except during parachute deployment where it can reach 1000 Hz/s.

For the 2009 Mars Science Laboratory mission, both higher Doppler shifts and Doppler rates are expected. This is due to the landing techniques of the new mission, which requires landing a load of about 1000 kg, nearly twice as that of the MER missions and with a tighter landing ellipse. Predicted Doppler shifts for the MSL mission range within 15 kHz, and predicted Doppler rates are in the range −600 to 300 Hz/s. Also, since the shuttle will be able to land in areas farther away, a lower SNR is expected (possibly 0.5 to 3 dB lower).

B. Doppler Shift Estimation

In order to recover the data transmitted by the spacecraft during EDL, it is necessary to estimate and correct the Doppler shift of the carrier. Several frequency estimation techniques have been proposed for such purposes. Maximum-likelihood estimation of a single tone embedded in noise is discussed in [7] and [8]. Estimation of signals where the tone frequency changes linearly with time has been studied in the context of chirp signals (see, for example, [9]–[16]). The case where the noise is not additive Gaussian has also been considered in [17] and [18]. In [19], an adaptive algorithm is proposed to track the carrier frequency once it has been acquired. Frequency tracking is also considered in [20]. For the Mars Exploration missions, the technique used is Maximum Likelihood both for carrier acquisition and tracking [5].

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{A. Transmitted Signal Model} \\
\text{The signal transmitted from the spacecraft to Earth during the EDL phase has the following form [5]:} \\
\quad s(t) &= \sqrt{2P_f} \cos \left[ 2\pi f_c^0 t + \mu \text{Sqr} \left( 2\pi \int_{t_0}^{t} f_d(\tau) d\tau \right) \right] \\
\end{align*}
\]

where
- \( P_f \) is the transmitted signal power;
- \( f_c^0 \) is the nominal carrier frequency;
- \( \mu \) is the modulation index (typically, \( \mu = \pi/4 \));
- \( \text{Sqr}(x) \) is the limiting function defined by
  \[
  \text{Sqr}(x) = \begin{cases} 
  1, & 0 < x \leq \pi \\
  -1, & \pi < x \leq 2\pi 
  \end{cases}
  \]
  \[
  \text{Sqr}(x) = \text{Sqr}(x + 2\pi)
  \]
- \( f_d(t) \) is the data tone frequency; it assumes one out of 256 possible values transmitted every 10 s;
- \( t_0 \) is the time instant where transmission began (typically, \( t_0 \to -\infty \)).

B. Received Signal Model

The signal received on Earth during EDL has the following model [5]:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{B. Received Signal Model} \\
r(t) &= \sqrt{2P_f(t)} \cos \left[ 2\pi \int_{t_0}^{t} f_c(\tau) d\tau + \mu \text{Sqr} \left( 2\pi \int_{t_0}^{t} f_d(\tau) d\tau \right) \right] + v(t) \\
\end{align*}
\]

where
- \( P_f(t) \) is the time-varying received signal power;
- \( f_c(t) \) is the time-varying carrier frequency, which is modeled as
  \[
  f_c(t) = f_c^0 + \Delta f_c(t)
  \]
where $\Delta f_d(t)$ is the unknown Doppler frequency shift; • $v(t)$ is a realization of an zero-mean, additive white Gaussian noise wide sense-stationary process with variance $\sigma_v^2$. The signal $r(t)$ is a bandpass signal centered around the frequency $f_0^i$. It can be expressed in the form

$$r(t) = r_f(t) \cos(2\pi f_0^i t) - r_Q(t) \sin(2\pi f_0^i t)$$

$$= \text{Re} \left\{ \tilde{r}(t)e^{j2\pi f_0^i t} \right\}$$

where $\tilde{r}(t) = r_f(t) + jr_Q(t)$ is the lowpass equivalent of $r(t)$, and $r_f(t)$ and $r_Q(t)$ are its in-phase and quadrature components. The same relation holds for $v(t)$, namely

$$v(t) = v_f(t) \cos(2\pi f_0^i t) - v_Q(t) \sin(2\pi f_0^i t)$$

$$= \text{Re} \left\{ \tilde{v}(t)e^{j2\pi f_0^i t} \right\}$$

The signal $\tilde{v}(t)$ is the low-pass equivalent of $v(t)$, corresponding to a realization of a complex, zero-mean, additive white circular Gaussian noise process of the form $\tilde{v}(t) = v_f(t) + jv_Q(t)$, with $v_f(t)$ and $v_Q(t)$ independent having variance $\sigma_v^2$. Note that the variance of $\tilde{v}(t)$ is $\sigma_v^2 = 2\sigma_v^2$.

The low-pass equivalent of (1) is therefore

$$\tilde{r}(t) = \sqrt{2P_R(t)} \exp \left\{ j\theta + j2\pi \int_{t_0}^{t} \Delta f_d(\tau) d\tau \right\} + j\tilde{v}(t)$$

with $\theta = -2\pi f_0^i t_0$.

The signal $\tilde{r}(t)$ in discrete-time by sampling at the rate $F_s = 1/T_s$, and using the compact notation $\tilde{r}(n)$ and $\tilde{v}(n)$ at $nT_s$ and $\tilde{v}(n)$ at $nT_s$. Then

$$\tilde{r}(n) = A(n) \exp \{ j\phi(n) \} + \tilde{v}(n)$$

where we defined

$$A(n) = \sqrt{2P_R(nT_s)} e^{j\theta}$$

$$\phi(n) = 2\pi \int_{nT_s}^{(n+1)T_s} \Delta f_d(\tau) d\tau$$

$$+ j\text{Sqr} \left[ 2\pi \int_{nT_s}^{(n+1)T_s} f_0^i(\tau) d\tau \right]$$

Note that if we assume that the data tone frequency is constant $(f_d(n) = f_d)$ between two arbitrary time instants $mT_s$ and $nT_s$, $n > m$, we have

$$\text{Sqr} \left[ 2\pi \int_{mT_s}^{nT_s} f_0^i(\tau) d\tau \right] = \text{Sqr} (2\pi f_0^i m/F_s + \varphi)$$

where $\varphi = 2\pi f_0^i \int_{mT_s}^{nT_s} f_0^i(\tau) d\tau - f_d m T_s$ is an unknown phase.

Throughout this work, the measure that will be used to quantify the noise level in a signal is the signal-to-noise-PSD ratio [5], and will be denoted by SNR. This measure is defined as the ratio of the received signal power to the white noise power spectral density in dB. Given a noise power spectral density of $\eta/2$, the SNR is defined as

$$\text{SNR} = 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{P_R}{\eta/2} \right) = 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{P_R F_s}{\sigma_v^2} \right) \quad [\text{dB} - \text{Hz}]$$

Thus the SNR defined in this way has units of Hertz, and in the dB scale this is denoted by db-Hz. Note that this scale can be converted to conventional SNR by subtracting $10 \log_{10} (F_s) = 50$ dB when $F_s = 100$ kHz.

C. Signal Demodulation

The received signal $\tilde{r}(n)$ is demodulated in three stages as shown in Fig. 3. First, a carrier acquisition algorithm is used to obtain a coarse estimate of the Doppler shift and Doppler rate of the received signal. This stage is critical during EDL since all subsequent stages depend on an accurate initial carrier acquisition. The method uses a search over a wide range of possible shifts and rates. After the carrier is acquired, the coarse estimate is refined using a tracking algorithm with a considerably reduced bandwidth. This stage tracks the carrier frequency at a finer scale, and provides carrier estimates for the third block, which performs the MFSK data demodulation.

In this work, we will focus on the carrier acquisition block only, since accurate acquisition is crucial for the subsequent stages. Carrier tracking and demodulation are considered in [5] and [19]. For the carrier acquisition problem, we are interested in coarse estimates of the carrier frequency. The resolution to be used for carrier acquisition is 10 Hz, that is, we need to be able to resolve carrier shifts with an error of $\pm 5$ Hz. As such, our performance metric will not be the mean-square error between the actual and estimated carrier frequency, or the bit error rate at the output of the demodulator, but rather, the probability that we acquire the carrier within the range of $\pm 5$ Hz. A mean-square error measure would be more appropriate for the tracking algorithm, whereas the bit-error rate would be more appropriate for the MFSK demodulation section. Naturally, the probability of carrier acquisition can be translated into a mean-square error measure, but the former measure will be of more interest in our case.

In what follows we will present a method where combining the carrier acquisition stage with the data demodulation stage can lead to a performance improvement of up to 3 dB, a process we denote by tone demodulation.

III. MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ESTIMATION

The objective of the carrier acquisition stage is to estimate the Doppler shift from the received signal $\tilde{r}(n)$ in (2). We will use boldface notation to denote random quantities, and assume that $\tilde{r}(n)$ and $\tilde{v}(n)$ are realizations of the random processes $\tilde{r}(n)$ and $\tilde{v}(n)$, respectively. Then we have
\[ \hat{f}(n) = A(n)e^{j\phi(n)} + \tilde{\theta}(n) \]

We start by introducing the following assumptions.

- The noise process \( \tilde{\theta}(n) \) is complex, zero-mean, circular Gaussian and iid, with variance \( 2\sigma^2 \).
- The data is analyzed in segments of \( N \times M \) samples. Typical values are \( N = 10000 \), \( M = 10 \) and \( F_s = 100 \) kHz, leading to an analysis segment duration of \( T = 1 \) second. During each segment, the Doppler shift \( f_0 \) and rate \( f_1 \) are assumed constant, and are modeled as unknown deterministic parameters.
- The complex amplitude \( A(n) \) is modeled as a piecewise constant deterministic parameter, i.e., \( A(n) \) is assumed constant in intervals of duration \( N \) samples, and the amplitude corresponding to the \( m \)th segment is denoted by \( A_m \). This assumption is useful to account for multiplicative noise and channel fading, since it allows more frequent changes in the amplitude, compared to less frequent changes in Doppler shift and rate. Furthermore, in order to guarantee an average signal power of \( 2P_R \) for the low-pass equivalent (2), we require:

\[
\frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} |A_m|^2 = 2P_R
\]

Let \( \hat{\phi} \) and \( \hat{\theta} \) denote the random vectors of length \( NM \) with individual entries \( \hat{\phi}(n) \) and \( \hat{\theta}(n), n = 1, \ldots, NM \), respectively. Under these assumptions, the probability density function (pdf) of the signal \( \hat{\phi} \) is

\[
f_{\hat{\phi}}(\hat{\phi}(n)) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{NM}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \sum_{n=mN}^{N-1} |\hat{\phi}(n) - A_ne^{j\phi(n)}|^2 \right\}.
\]

By taking the logarithm we arrive at the following log-likelihood function:

\[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \sum_{n=mN}^{N-1} |\hat{\phi}(n) - A_ne^{j\phi(n)}|^2 - \log(2\pi\sigma^2)^{NM}.\]

The Maximum-Likelihood (ML) criterion estimates \( \{A_m\} \) and \( \phi(n) \) by maximizing the above log-likelihood function, which is equivalent to minimizing the following quadratic function:

\[
\min_{\{A_m\}, \phi(n)} \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \sum_{n=mN}^{N-1} |\hat{\phi}(n) - A_ne^{j\phi(n)}|^2. \tag{5}
\]

Differentiating the above cost with respect to \( A_m \), and setting the result to zero, we get the optimal amplitudes

\[ A_{m}^{\text{opt}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=mN}^{N-1} \hat{\phi}(n)e^{-j\phi(n)}. \]

Substituting this result into (5) we obtain that the original Maximum-Likelihood problem is equivalent to the following maximization problem:

\[
\max_{\phi(n)} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \sum_{n=mN}^{N-1} |\hat{\phi}(n) - A_{m}^{\text{opt}}e^{-j\phi(n)}|^2. \tag{6}
\]

The solution to problem (6) will depend on how we model the unknown phase \( \phi(n) \). In general, \( \phi(n) \) will be some function of the Doppler frequency shift \( \Delta f_c(t) \). This shift can be described using a Taylor series expansion, say

\[
\Delta f_c(t) = f_0 + f_1 t + f_2 t^2 / 2 + \cdots. \tag{7}
\]

Thus, by restricting (7) to a few terms, problem (6) becomes a function of a few optimization parameters, as is shown next.

### A. Linear Frequency Model

We assume a linear profile for the Doppler shift, and first ignore data tones. The linear profile assumption is reasonable when the length of the data segment to be analyzed is short compared to the change in Doppler frequency. The Doppler shift is modeled as

\[
\Delta f_c(t) = f_0 + f_1 t \tag{8}
\]

where the Doppler frequency \( f_0 \) and Doppler rate \( f_1 \) are unknown. Since we are ignoring the data tones, we set \( \mu = 0 \) in (3) to obtain

\[
\phi(n) = 2\pi \left( \frac{f_{\mu}}{F_s} + \frac{m^2}{2F_s^2} \right) + \phi_0
\]

where \( \phi_0 \) represents some constant phase which depends on \( t_0 \). Then the maximization problem (6) becomes

\[
\max_{f_0, f_1} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \sum_{n=mN}^{N-1} |\hat{\phi}(n) - e^{-j2\pi (\frac{f_0}{F_s} + \frac{f_1}{2F_s^2})|^2. \tag{9}
\]

This problem is also known as periodogram maximization, and is not convex in general. It is solved typically by searching over a predefined set of possible rates \( f_1 \) and frequencies \( f_0 \), and then finding the combination that maximizes the expression. Thus, it involves a 2-D grid search, and the finer the grid, the larger the complexity of the search. The method can be extended from the linear case to take into account higher order terms in the expansion (7). For instance, [21] suggests a second-order approximation of the Doppler shift, which leads to a search over \( f_0, f_1 \) and \( f_2 \).

It is important to note that \( f_0 \) and \( f_1 \) are continuous parameters, even though the grid search uses a set of discrete search values. The finer the grid, the more likely it will be to find a point close to the actual values.

In what follows we will refer to (9) as the ML method, since it is the one currently used in the MER missions. However, it should be kept in mind that the method that follows is also Maximum Likelihood, but with different modeling assumptions.

### B. Linear Frequency Model With Data Tones

We now take into account the presence of the data tones in the frequency model, and will show how the combined estimation
of the Doppler shift and the data tones leads to performance improvement. The Doppler shift is again assumed to be linear as in (8). When data tones are taken into account in the model for \(\phi(n)\) we obtain from (3)

\[
\phi(n) = 2\pi \left( \frac{f_0 n}{F_s} + \frac{f_d n^2}{2 F_s^2} \right) + \mu \text{Sqr} \left( \frac{2\pi f_d m}{F_s} + \varphi \right) + \phi_0.
\]

(10)

Now the ML procedure (6) becomes

\[
\max_{f_d, \varphi} \sum_{n=m}^{M-1} \sum_{m=n}^{N-1} \tilde{r}(n) \times e^{-j2\pi \left( \frac{f_0 n}{F_s} + \frac{f_d n^2}{2 F_s^2} \right) - j\mu \text{Sqr} \left( \frac{2\pi f_d m}{F_s} + \varphi \right)} \]

(11)

We will refer to (11) as the Maximum Likelihood with Tone Demodulation (MLTD) method. The algorithm typically operates over segments of duration \(T = 1\) second \((M = 10, N = 10000\) and \(F_s = 100\) kHz). Compared to the ML method (9) without considering data tones, MLTD is more complex because we also have to search over the phases \(\varphi\) and the data tone frequencies \(f_d\). However, as will be discussed later in this section, \(f_d\) comes from a discrete set, and in some cases may be known a priori. Also, rough estimates of \(\varphi\) will be sufficient to provide performance improvement.

C. Interpretation of the Tone Demodulation Process

The following interpretation shows why we should expect an improvement of about 3 dB when we take into account the data tones as in (11) over the earlier method (9) where data tones are ignored. The interpretation is included to provide the reader with an intuitive explanation of the process. A more rigorous analysis will be provided in the following section. We will assume, only in this section, that \(M = 1\), the Doppler rate \(f_d = 0\) and that the amplitude \(A(n) = A\) is constant.

From (2) and (10), the received signal is of the form

\[
\tilde{r}(n) = Ae^{-j2\pi \left( \frac{f_0 n}{F_s} + j\mu \text{Sqr} \left( \frac{2\pi f_d m}{F_s} + \varphi \right) \right)} + \tilde{v}(n)
\]

(12)

with \(A = \sqrt{2P}Re^{j\theta}\). Now note the following:

\[
e^{j\mu \text{Sqr} \left( \frac{2\pi f_d m}{F_s} + \varphi \right)} = \cos \mu
\]

\[
+ jsin\mu \cdot \text{Sqr} \left( \frac{2\pi f_d m}{F_s} + \varphi \right),
\]

(13)

Consider the Fourier series expansion of the Sqr function:

\[
\text{Sqr} \left( \frac{2\pi f_d m}{F_s} + \varphi \right) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} c_k e^{jk\varphi} e^{-j2\pi k f_d m / F_s}
\]

(14)

where

\[
c_0 = 0 \text{ and } c_k = \text{sinc} \left( \frac{k\pi}{2} \right) e^{-j k \pi / 2}, k \neq 0.
\]

Since \(c_k = 0\) for \(k\) even, it can be observed that \(\tilde{r}(n)\) contains tones at frequencies \(f_0, f_0 \pm f_d, f_0 \pm 3f_d, \ldots\). The power of the signal without noise at frequency \(f_0\) is \(A^2 \cos^2 \mu\). The combined power of the two primary subcarriers (at frequencies \(f_0 \pm f_d\)) is \((8/\pi^2)\left|A\right|^2 \sin^2 \mu\). Fig. 4(a) shows a typical plot of the N point DFT of \(\tilde{r}(n)\).

The ML procedure (9) estimates \(f_0\) by demodulating the signal to baseband (multiplying by \(e^{-j2\pi f_0 n / F_s}\)), and then calculating the sum of the result, obtaining

\[
\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \tilde{r}(n)e^{-j2\pi f_0 n / F_s} = AN \cos \mu + \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \tilde{v}(n)e^{-j2\pi f_0 n / F_s}.
\]

The SNR of this result is

\[
\cos^2 \mu \times \left|A\right|^2 N / \left(2\sigma_v^2\right).
\]

On the other hand, we can think of the MLTD procedure (11) as a “tone-demodulation” process followed by the same “signal-demodulation” process as in the ML method. This is accomplished by multiplying by \(e^{-j\mu \text{Sqr} \left( 2\pi f_d n / F_s + \varphi \right)}\), demodulating to baseband, and taking the sum of the result, to obtain

\[
AN + \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \tilde{v}(n)e^{-j2\pi f_0 n / F_s - j\mu \text{Sqr} \left( 2\pi f_d n / F_s + \varphi \right)}.
\]

The SNR of this result is

\[
\left|A\right|^2 N / \left(2\sigma_v^2\right).
\]

We observe that if \(f_d\) and \(\varphi\) are appropriately chosen, and using a value of \(\mu = \pi / 4\), the MLTD method has a SNR enhancement of 3 dB compared to the conventional ML method. The result of the MLTD multiplication causes the data tones to demodulate onto the main carrier, and add constructively, therefore enhancing its power and allowing better estimation performance [see Fig. 4(b)]. Since about half of the power is in the carrier and the remainder in the data tones, a 3 dB enhancement of the carrier power is expected.
D. Complexity of the Tone Demodulation Process

The ML method (9) requires a search over \( N_{f_0} \) and \( N_{f_1} \) discrete frequencies \( f_0 \) and \( f_1 \), respectively, whereas the MLTD method (11) requires searching also over \( N_{f_d} \) and \( N_{\varphi} \) discrete values of \( f_d \) and \( \varphi \), respectively. Using typical values of \( N = N_{f_0} = 10000, N_{f_1} = 57, N_{f_d} = 256, N_{\varphi} = 8 \) and \( M = 10 \) (see Section IV), MLTD requires on the order of \( MN_{f_0}N_{f_1}N_{f_d}N_{\varphi}\) floating point operations. Moreover, MLTD is roughly 1000 more complex than ML in its general form. However, when \( f_d \) is known, MLTD is only eight times more complex than ML, and provides significant performance improvement. In general \( f_d \) is unknown, but since this frequency is kept constant for every 10 segments, the value may be known from a previous segment estimate. When \( f_d \) is unknown, the method is still useful, since it can be applied only to those segments of the signal which are extremely noisy, and where the original ML method performs poorly.

Also, note that if we approximate (14) by its first harmonic

\[
e^{j\mu \text{Sq}(\frac{2\pi fn_0}{f_0}+\varphi)} \approx \cos \mu + j \sin \mu \left( c_1 e^{j\frac{2\pi fn_0}{f_0}+\varphi} - c_{-1} e^{-j\frac{2\pi fn_0}{f_0}+\varphi} \right)
\]

then we need not take a new DFT for every value of \( f_d \) and \( \varphi \), but rather replace them by shifts and additions of the same spectrum. If we can do shifts and additions efficiently, we can reduce the complexity of MLTD to that of ML, at the expense of some performance hit due to the above approximation.

IV. Performance Analysis

We now analyze the performance of the MLTD estimation method. The analysis can be extended to the case where the Doppler shift is assumed to include higher order terms of the expansion (7). The following analysis extends the results of [5] to the more general case (11) when data tones are taken into account rather than ignored.

A. Signal Model and Performance Metric

It is assumed that the received signal has the form (12), with a piecewise-constant amplitude as discussed in Section III, and that the data tone frequency is fixed at \( f_d \). The signal is analyzed in segments of duration \( T \) seconds, where \( T = MN/F_s \). We use the notation \( f_0, f_1, f_d \) and \( \varphi \) to refer to the true parameters of the received signal. The MLTD method (11) requires multiplying \( \hat{r}(n) \) by

\[
d(n; \theta) \triangleq e^{-j2\pi \left( \frac{f_0 n}{F_s} + \frac{f_1 n^2}{2F_s^2} \right)} - j\mu \text{Sq}(\frac{2\pi fn_0}{f_0}+\varphi)
\]

where we have introduced the notation \( f_0, f_1, f_d \) and \( \varphi \) to refer to the dummy search variables, and where \( \theta \) denotes a vector of search parameters ordered as follows:

\[
\theta = [f'_0, f'_1, f'_d, \varphi]\n\]

The ML estimates of \( f_0, f_1, f_d \) and \( \varphi \) are found by solving

\[
\{f_0, f_1, f_d, \varphi\} = \arg \max_{f'_0, f'_1, f'_d, \varphi} J(\hat{r}(n); \theta)
\]

with

\[
J(\hat{r}(n); \theta) \triangleq \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \hat{r}(n)d(n; \theta)^2.
\]

The cost \( J(\hat{r}(n); \theta) \) is a realization of a real, scalar random variable \( J(\hat{r}(n); \theta) \) whose distribution depends on the parameters \( f_0, f_1, f_d, \varphi \). Once \( \hat{r}(n) \) is received, we compute the deterministic cost \( J \), and the ML method selects the set of parameters that maximize \( J \).

To make the analysis tractable, we introduce some simplifying assumptions. Define the auxiliary function

\[
g_m(x(n)) \triangleq \sum_{n=mN}^{mN+N-1} e^{2\pi i x(n)n}.
\]

When the argument of \( g_m \) is equal to a constant \( k/N \), we get

\[
g_m(k/N) = g_0(k/N) = \begin{cases} N, & k = rN, r \in \mathbb{Z} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
\]

We assume that:

- \( f_0 = kF_s/N \) for some integer \( k \). This assumption is not true in practice, since \( f_0 \) is a continuous variable. The farther \( f_0 \) is from a multiple of \( kF_s/N \), the worse our estimate will be. However, since this problem will affect in the same manner the proposed MLTD method and the original ML method, we will assume in our calculations that this assumption holds. Typically, we will have \( N/F_s = 0.1 \) sec, so \( f_0 \) will be considered a multiple of 10 Hz. Thus, the search will be performed at integer multiples of \( F_s/N \), that is, \( f'_0 = kF_s/N \) for some integer \( k' \). Since we are free to choose the tone frequencies \( f_d \), we will also assume \( f_d = kF_s/N \) for some integer \( k \neq 0 \).

- \( g_m(\Delta f_1 n/(2F_s^2) + k/N) \approx 0 \) if \( \Delta f_1 \neq 0 \), for any integer \( k \). This result is also not true in general, but the approximation is good for values \( \Delta f_1 \) large enough. As we decrease the value of \( \Delta f_1 \), the probability of making an error by selecting a grid point close to the true one increases, but so does the frequency resolution. Moreover, we are mostly interested in estimating the Doppler shift \( f_0 \), since we assume a carrier tracking stage follows, which reduces the search range around the estimated frequency \( f_0 \). Hence small errors in detecting \( f_1 \) are not of major concern as long as \( f_0 \) is acquired correctly.

The metric used to evaluate the performance of the algorithm is the probability of error in carrier acquisition, \( P_e \), defined as the probability that the estimate \( \hat{f}_0 \) is different from the true value \( f_0 \). In terms of \( J \), it can be expressed as follows:

\[
P_e = \text{Prob} \left\{ J(\hat{r}(n); \theta') \geq J(\hat{r}(n); \theta_0) \right\}
\]

for at least one set of values of \( \theta' = [f'_0, f'_1, f'_d, \varphi'] \) such that \( f'_0 \neq f_0 \), and for every value of \( \theta_0 = [f_0, f_1, f_0, \varphi] \).

To derive expressions for \( P_e \), we will proceed as follows. For every combination of values of the parameters \( f'_0, f'_1, f'_d, \varphi' \), we will derive an expression for the probability distribution of the resulting random variable \( J \). Subsequently, we will compute \( P_e \) from (18).
B. Statistics of the Estimates

Define the differences
\(\Delta f_0 \triangleq f_0 - f_0', \Delta f_1 \triangleq f_1 - f_1', \Delta f_d \triangleq f_d - f'_d, \Delta \varphi \triangleq \varphi - \varphi'.\) It then follows that

\[
\hat{r}(n|d;\theta) = A(n) \exp \left\{ j2\pi \left( \frac{\Delta f_0 n}{F_s} + \frac{\Delta f_1 n^2}{2F_s^2} \right) + j\mu \text{Sqr} \left( 2\pi f_d n + \varphi \right) - j\mu \text{Sqr} \left( 2\pi f'_d n + \varphi' \right) \right\} + \tilde{b}(n|d;\theta).
\]

From (13), we have

\[
e^{j\mu \text{Sqr} \left( \frac{2\pi f_d n}{F_s} + \varphi' \right)} = \cos^2 \mu
\]
\[+ j \sin \mu \cos \mu \left[ \text{Sqr} \left( \frac{2\pi f_d n}{F_s} + \varphi \right) - \text{Sqr} \left( \frac{2\pi f'_d n}{F_s} + \varphi' \right) \right] + \sin^2 \mu \cdot \text{Sqr} \left( \frac{2\pi f_d n}{F_s} + \varphi \right) \text{Sqr} \left( \frac{2\pi f'_d n}{F_s} + \varphi' \right).
\]

We also introduce the following useful notation:

\[
R_m \triangleq \sum_{n=mN}^{mN+N-1} \hat{r}(n|d;\theta)
\]
\[
V_m \triangleq \sum_{n=mN}^{mN+N-1} \tilde{b}(n|d;\theta)
\]
\[
M_m = T_m + V_m.
\]

Using (19), (20), (17), and (14), we arrive at

\[
T_m = A_m \cos^2 \mu \cdot \text{gm} \left( \Delta f_0 \frac{n}{F_s} + \frac{\Delta f_1 n^2}{2F_s^2} \right) + j A_m \sin \mu \cos \mu \sum_k c_k e^{jk\varphi} \text{gm} \times \left( \Delta f_0 + kf_d \right) \frac{n}{F_s} + \frac{\Delta f_1 n^2}{2F_s^2} - j A_m \sin \mu \cos \mu \sum_k c_k e^{jk\varphi} \text{gm} \times \left( \Delta f_0 + kf'_d \right) \frac{n}{F_s} + \frac{\Delta f_1 n^2}{2F_s^2} + A_m \sin^2 \mu \sum_k c_k e^{jk\varphi} \text{gm} \times \left( \Delta f_0 + kf_d + kf'_d \right) \frac{n}{F_s} + \frac{\Delta f_1 n^2}{2F_s^2} + \left( \Delta f_0 + kf_d \right) \frac{n}{F_s} + \frac{\Delta f_1 n^2}{2F_s^2} \right) + A_m \sin^2 \mu \sum_k c_k e^{jk\varphi} \text{gm} \times \left( \Delta f_0 + kf_d + kf'_d \right) \frac{n}{F_s} + \frac{\Delta f_1 n^2}{2F_s^2} \right) \right) \right.
\]

Equation (21) is important for our analysis, since it allows us to find an expression for statistics of \(R_m\) for every value of search parameters \(f_0', f_1', f_d'\) and \(\varphi'\) as a function of the true parameters \(f_0, f_1, f_d\) and \(\varphi\).

Note that \(V_m\) is a zero-mean, complex Gaussian random variable with variance \(2N\sigma_v^2\), independent of \(V_n\) for \(m \neq n\). Therefore, we have that

\[
\frac{1}{2N\sigma_v^2} J(\hat{r}(n|\theta)) = \frac{1}{2N\sigma_v^2} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} |R_m|^2 \sim \chi^2_{2M,M}^2
\]

where \(\chi^2_{2M,M}^2\) represents a noncentral chi-square distribution with \(2M\) degrees of freedom and noncentrality parameter

\[
\lambda = \frac{1}{N\sigma_v^2} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} |T_m|^2.
\]

The pdf of \(X \sim \chi^2_{2M,M}^2\) is (for \(x \geq 0, \lambda \neq 0\))

\[
f_X(x) = \frac{e^{-(x/\lambda)/2}}{2 \Gamma(M)} \left( \frac{x}{\lambda} \right)^{M-1} I_{M-1}(\sqrt{\lambda x})
\]

where \(I_{M-1}(x)\) is the modified Bessel function of the first kind. When \(\lambda = 0, X\) is distributed according to a central chi-square distribution. In this case, the pdf becomes (for \(x \geq 0\))

\[
f_X(x) = \frac{e^{-x/2} x^{M-1}}{2^M (M-1)!}
\]

C. Parameter Classes and Probability of Error

In our search procedure we will search over \(N_f_0, N_f_1, N_f_d\) and \(N_{\nu}\) discrete values of \(f_0', f_1', f_d'\) and \(\varphi'\), respectively. Let \(M_{\theta} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_f_0 \times N_f_1 \times N_f_d \times N_{\nu}}\) denote the space of all possible search vectors \(\theta\). We will partition this space as follows.

\[
\mathcal{P}_1 : \{ \theta : f_0 = f_0', f_1 = f_1', f_d = f_d' \}
\]
\[
\mathcal{P}_2 : \{ \theta : f_0 = \pm f_d, f_1 = f_1, f_d' = f_d \}
\]
\[
\mathcal{P}_3 : \{ \theta : f_0 = \pm 2f_d, f_1 = f_1, f_d' = f_d \}
\]
\[
\mathcal{P}_4 : \{ \theta : f_0 = f_0', f_1 = f_1, f_d' \neq f_d \}
\]
\[
\mathcal{P}_5 : \{ \theta : f_0 = \pm f_d, \pm f_d', f_1 = f_1, f_d' \neq f_d \}
\]
\[
\mathcal{P}_6 : \{ \theta : f_0 = f_0', f_1 = f_1, f_d' \neq f_d \}
\]

When \(f_d\) is known, only partitions 0 to 3 exist. Whenever \(\theta\) belongs to \(\mathcal{P}_1\) or \(\mathcal{P}_4\), the value of \(f_0'\) will be equal to the true value \(f_0\). For every partition, we define a set of identically distributed random variables

\[
X_i(\theta) = \frac{1}{2N\sigma_v^2} J(\hat{r}(n|\theta); \theta \in \mathcal{P}_i) \sim \chi^2_{2M,M}^2.
\]

Using (21) and (22), and using the relation \(2\text{SNR} \times T = 2P_{\text{SNR}}^H / \sigma_v^2\), we obtain

\[
\lambda_0 = 0
\]
\[
\lambda_1 = 2\text{SNR} \times T \times \left[ \cos^2 \mu + \sin^2 \mu \times (1 - 2|\Delta \varphi|/\pi) \right]^2
\]
\[
\lambda_2 = 2\text{SNR} \times T \times \frac{8}{\pi^2} \sin^2 \mu \cos^2 \mu (1 - \cos \Delta \varphi)
\]
\[
\lambda_3 = 2\text{SNR} \times T \times \frac{4}{\pi^2} \sin^2 \mu \sin^2 \Delta \varphi
\]
\[
\lambda_4 = 2\text{SNR} \times T \times \cos^4 \mu
\]
\[\lambda_5 = 2SNR \times T \times \frac{4}{\pi^2} \sin^2 \mu \cos^2 \mu\]
\[\lambda_6 = 2SNR \times T \times \frac{16}{\pi^4} \sin^4 \mu.\]  
(25)

A more detailed derivation can be found in the Appendix. We also define

\[Y_i = \max_{\theta \in P_i} X_i(\theta).\]

Thus, the probability of error can now be rewritten as

\[P_e = \Pr \left( \max(Y_0, Y_2, Y_3, Y_5, Y_6) > \max(Y_1, Y_4) \right)
\approx \Pr \left( \max(Y_0, Y_2, Y_3, Y_5, Y_6) > Y_1 \right),\]

where the last approximation follows from the fact that the probability of \(Y_1 > Y_4\) is high. We will evaluate \(P_e\) in three scenarios: when \(f_d\) and \(\varphi\) are known, when only \(f_d\) is known, and when all the parameters are unknown.

1) Known \(f_d\) and \(\varphi\): When \(f_d\) and \(\varphi\) are known, the parameter space \(M_{\theta}\) is partitioned into four classes. Class \(P_1\) has one element, classes \(P_2\) and \(P_3\) have two elements each, and class \(P_0\) has \(N_{f_0} - N_{f_1} - 5\) elements. Moreover, \(V_m(\theta_1)\) and \(V_m(\theta_2)\) are uncorrelated (and therefore also independent) whenever \(\theta_1\) and \(\theta_2\) are in different classes. This means that the \(X_i(\theta_j)\) are independent in \(i\) and \(j\). Let \(f_{X_i}\) and \(f_{X_0}\) denote the probability density function and cumulative density function, respectively, of the random variable \(X_i\). Since all random variables \(Y_i\) are also independent, we have that the probability of correct carrier acquisition \(P_{\text{acq}} = 1 - P_e\) is

\[P_{\text{acq}} = \int_0^{+\infty} f_{X_0}^{N_{f_0}} f_{X_1}^{N_{f_1}} f_{X_2}^{N_{f_2}} f_{X_3}^{N_{f_3}} f_{X_5}^{N_{f_5}} f_{X_6}^{N_{f_6}} f_{X_0} f_{X_1}(x) dx\]
\[\approx \int_0^{+\infty} f_{X_0}^{N_{f_0}} f_{X_1}^{N_{f_1}} f_{X_2}^{N_{f_2}} f_{X_3}^{N_{f_3}} f_{X_5}^{N_{f_5}} f_{X_6}^{N_{f_6}} f_{X_0} f_{X_1}(x) dx.\]  
(26)

Fig. 5 shows the probability of error in carrier acquisition, \(P_e\), versus the SNR for the ML method without tone demodulation (ML) and with tone demodulation (MLTD) using expression (26) where \(\Delta \varphi = 0\) and \(f_d\) is known. We have chosen the values \(N_{f_0} = 10000\) and \(N_{f_1} = 57\) as in [5]. The curve for ML is the same one reported in [5]. Also shown is a 3-dB-improvement curve of ML. We can clearly see that MLTD achieves 3-dB improvement for low values of SNR, and even better improvement for high values of SNR. Though a 3-dB improvement is expected, more than that is surprising. The reason is that in the ML curve, the performance at high values of SNR is limited by the presence of the primary data tones at \(f_c + f_d\) and \(f_c - f_d\). When we apply tone demodulation, not only do we double the power of the carrier at \(f_c\), obtaining a 3-dB improvement, but we also eliminate the data tones at frequencies \(f_c + f_d\) and \(f_c - f_d\) (see Fig. 4). Thus, the improvement is larger than 3 dB for high SNR. This is the most optimistic scenario, where \(\varphi\) and \(f_d\) are known. Though in practice we may have knowledge of \(f_d\), we will never know exactly what \(\varphi\) is. We will consider the effect of these parameters next.

2) Known \(f_d\): The maximization procedure (15) requires searching over \(N_{f_d}\) phases \(\varphi\). We propose searching over a set of phases uniformly distributed between 0 and \(2\pi\). Analyzing exactly the performance of this method is challenging, because we now deal with chi-square random variables that come from highly correlated Gaussians. We tackle the problem by simulating the problem using artificial data, and then making some reasonable assumptions that let us obtain expressions that closely agree with the simulation results. Thus, we propose the following assumptions when \(\Delta f_d = 0\).

Note that if we search over uniformly distributed phases \(\varphi\), the maximum difference \(\Delta \varphi\) between \(\varphi\) and the closest \(\varphi\) will be \(\pi/N_{f_d}\). Since the actual phase \(\varphi\) can be anywhere between 0 and \(2\pi\), the expected value of \(\Delta \varphi\) will be \(\pi/(2N_{f_d})\). We will assume that the random variables \(Y_1, Y_2\) and \(Y_3\) have the same distribution as \(X_1(\theta), X_2(\theta)\) and \(X_3(\theta)\) respectively, using values \(\lambda_i\) obtained using \(\Delta \varphi = \pi/(2N_{f_d})\), and also assume them independent as before. For \(Y_0\), we will assume that all variables \(X_0(\theta), \theta \in P_0\) are independent. Then we can compute \(P_{\text{acq}}\) as follows:

\[P_{\text{acq}} \approx \int_0^{+\infty} f_{X_0}^{N_{f_0}} f_{X_1}^{N_{f_1}} f_{X_2}^{N_{f_2}} f_{X_3}^{N_{f_3}} f_{X_0} f_{X_1}(x) dx\]
\[\approx \int_0^{+\infty} f_{X_0}^{N_{f_0}} f_{X_1}^{N_{f_1}} f_{X_2}^{N_{f_2}} f_{X_3}^{N_{f_3}} f_{X_0} f_{X_1}(x) dx.\]  
(27)

Note that (27) is a generalization of (26) for the case \(N_{f_\varphi} \neq 1\).

Fig. 6 shows the resulting curves obtained using expression (27) for the case when \(f_d\) is known, with \(N_{f_0} = 10000\) and \(N_{f_1} = 57\). We can observe that there is practically no gain increasing the search range from 8 to 16 phases. Hence, we propose the following search procedure for \(\varphi\): search over 8 values of \(\varphi\) uniformly distributed between 0 and \(2\pi\), and choose the phase \(\varphi\) that maximizes (15). In Section V, we compare the predicted curves with the results obtained using artificially generated data.

3) All Parameters Unknown: The performance curve also depends on the number of possible data tone frequencies, \(N_{f_d}\). The best scenario occurs when the tone frequency is known, in which case we have \(N_{f_d} = 1\). When \(f_d\) is unknown, the fact that the random variables \(X_i(\theta)\) are heavily correlated makes the analysis challenging. As we did in Section IV-C.2, we will
approximate the performance curves using heuristics, and illustrate the results using simulations. Again we will approximate $Y_1, Y_2$ and $Y_3$ by $X_1(\theta), X_2(\theta)$ and $X_3(\theta)$, respectively, using $\Delta \varphi = \pi/(2N_\varphi)$. For $Y_0, Y_5$ and $Y_6$, we will assume that $X_0(\theta), X_5(\theta)$ and $X_6(\theta)$ of the form $X_i(\theta_j)$ are independent in $i$ and $j$, but modify the number of independent random variables by replacing $N_{fd}$ by $N'_{fd} = \lceil N_{fd}(1 + \log_2 N_{fd}) \rceil$. Then we can compute $P_{acq}$ as follows:

$$
P_{acq} \approx \int_0^{+\infty} f_{X_3} f_{X_0} N_{fd} f_{X_0}(x)dx
$$

$$
\approx \int_0^{+\infty} f_{X_3} f_{X_0} N'_{fd} f_{X_0}(x)dx
$$

with

$$
N'_{fd} = N_{fd} = (4N_{fd} - 4)N_\varphi
$$

$$
N'_{fd} = N_{fd} N_\varphi N_{fd} - 9N_{fd} N_\varphi + 4N_\varphi
$$

$$
N'_{fd} = \lceil N_{fd}(1 + \log_2 N_{fd}) \rceil
$$

Note that (28) is more general than (27), since for $N_{fd} = 1$ we get $N'_{fd} = 1$.

Fig. 7 shows the effect of $N_{fd}$ on performance. The curves were obtained using (28), with $N_{fd} = 10000, N_{fd} = 57, N_\varphi = 8$ and $\Delta \varphi = \pi/(2N_\varphi)$. As expected, as we increase the possible number of tone frequencies, the performance becomes worse, but even for large $N_{fd}$, we have performance improvement over the case where the tones are ignored.

V. SIMULATIONS

We now show simulation results that illustrate the performance analysis of the previous sections. We simulate the method using both artificial data generated according to model (12) and real data from the 2004 MER mission.

A. Artificial Data

Artificial Data was generated according to model (12), assuming a linear frequency shift. The sampling frequency was chosen as $f_s = 50 \text{ kHz}$, and $N = N_{fd} = 5000$. The Doppler rate, $f_d$, was also assumed to be known, and therefore $N_{fd} = 1$.

1) Known $f_d$: To analyze the performance of the method when $f_d$ is known, artificial data was generated with different values of SNR, and 1000 experiments were performed. Both the traditional ML method (9) and the MLTD method (11) were implemented. The initial phase $\varphi$ of the signal was chosen at random at the beginning of every experiment.

Fig. 8 shows the resulting probability of error in carrier acquisition vs. SNR for the ML and MLTD methods, searching over a different number of phases $\varphi'$. All searches use $N_\varphi$ phases uniformly distributed between 0 and $2\pi$. For every value of SNR, the probability of error was calculated using 1000 experiments. We can clearly see that for $N_\varphi = 16$, the performance is slightly better than the one with the choice $N_\varphi = 8$. Hence, we conclude that it is not worth to search over 16 phases due to its increased computational burden and negligible improvement. We suggest a value of $N_\varphi = 8$ for the phase search. Also shown are the predicted curves for ML from [5] and MLTD using expression (27), which very closely match the simulation results.

2) Unknown $f_d$: We now drop the assumption that $f_d$ is known. We still assume that $f_d$ is known to reduce the number of computations, and expect the performance to be equally degraded for both ML and MLTD when this is not true.

Fig. 9 shows the resulting performance curves when both $f_d$ and $\varphi$ are unknown, with $N_{fd} = 256$ and $N_\varphi = 8$. For every value of SNR, the probability of error was computed using 100 experiments. Also shown are the predicted curves for ML in [5] and MLTD using (28).

B. Real Data

We now present simulation results for the ML-TD method using real data from the 2004 Mars Exploration Rover (MERB)
mission. The simulations were performed by choosing a segment of the real data where the frequency profile does not resemble a linear curve, and second derivatives of the Doppler shift may be important. The original segment was processed using the original ML method to extract $f_0$ and $f_1$, and its SNR was predicted. Subsequently, artificially generated noise was added to take the SNR to the desired levels. As was done previously, $f_1$ was assumed to be known in all cases to reduce computations. Since the sampling frequency of the MERB data is 100 kHz, we decimated by a factor of 2 to obtain data sampled at 50 kHz. As we did for the artificial data, we chose $N_{f_0} = 5000$ and $N_{f_1} = 1$.

1) Known $f_d$: Fig. 10 shows the performance curves obtained with the real data when $f_d$ is known. Also shown for comparison are the curves obtained using the performance analysis of the previous section. For every value of SNR, 1000 experiments were performed for the probability calculations.

The difference between the actual and predicted curves can be attributed to several phenomena. First and foremost, the performance curves were derived for the linear frequency model, and thus are in concordance with the artificially generated data. The real data, however, does not offer a perfectly linear profile. The performance may be improved by also estimating second derivatives of Doppler shift. A second reason for the difference between the curves lies in the estimation of the SNR of the original data before adding noise. This estimate was obtained by finding the peak-power to noise-floor ratio, after applying the original ML method.

Much more interesting and relevant is the fact that the MLTD method preserves a 2- to 3-dB advantage over the original ML method.

2) Unknown $f_d$: Fig. 11 shows the performance curves obtained with the real data when $f_d$ is not known. Also shown for comparison are the curves obtained using the performance analysis of the previous section. For every value of SNR, 100 experiments were performed for the probability calculations.

The reasons for difference between predicted and actual curves from the case when $f_d$ is known still apply. We can clearly observe that MLTD preserves a 1-dB improvement over the original ML method.

VI. DISCUSSION

The proposed method is shown to provide about 3-dB improvement both for artificially generated data and real data, when the tone frequency $f_d$ is known. Though this is not true in general, the case where $f_d$ is known is relevant in practice. For the MER communications system, as discussed previously, $f_d$ is kept constant for 10 s, and the carrier is estimated for every 1 s. Therefore, we could use the value of $f_d$ obtained on a previous segment to estimate the carrier in the current segment. Moreover, during EDL there exists a most-likely sequence of tones which may be used for detection.

When $f_d$ is unknown, we have to resort to extensive search methods, which are computationally intensive. However, it is not necessary to apply them at every point of the signal. That is,
the original ML method could be applied on a first pass over the entire signal, and then MLTD could be applied over the segments with low predicted SNR. Another alternative is the shifting approach of Section III-D. We have also shown that a search over eight different values of $\phi'$ is sufficient to obtain good results.

Finally, one could consider modifying the communications signal for the method to have better performance when $f_d$ is unknown. For instance, instead of sending one out of 256 tones every 10 s, we could send one out of 16 tones every 5 s. We would be decreasing redundancy, but this would considerably aid the search process, providing much lower computational burden, and better performance.

VII. CONCLUSION

We presented a ML estimation algorithm to perform carrier frequency estimation for the communications system of the Mars Exploration missions. The method utilizes the power in the data tones to enhance the carrier, enabling in theory more than 3-dB improvement. We analyzed the performance of the method and simulated it using artificially generated data. Finally, we tested the algorithm on the signal obtained during the MERB mission, showing that a 2- to 3-dB improvement may be possible when the data tone frequency is known, and a 1-dB improvement when it is unknown.

APPENDIX

DERIVATION OF (25)

Whenever $f_f' \neq f_1$, or equivalently $\Delta f_1 \neq 0$, we have $R_m = V_m$ and therefore $\lambda_0 = 0$. When $\Delta f_1 = 0$, we have from (21)

$$T_m = A_m \cos^2 \theta \cdot g_0 \left( \frac{\Delta f_0}{F_s} \right)$$

$$+ j A_m \sin \theta \cdot \cos \sum_k c_k e^{j k \phi_0} \left( \frac{\Delta f_0}{F_s} + \frac{k f_d}{F_s} \right)$$

$$- j A_m \sin \theta \cdot \cos \sum_k c_k e^{j k \phi_0} \left( \frac{\Delta f_0}{F_s} + \frac{k f_d}{F_s} \right)$$

$$+ A_m \sin^2 \theta \sum_k c_k c_k^* e^{j (k \phi + k \phi')} g_0 \times \left( \frac{\Delta f_0}{F_s} + \frac{k f_d + f_d'}{F_s} \right).$$

Without loss of generality, we will consider values of $\phi$ in the interval $[-\pi, \pi]$. When $\Delta f_d = 0$ and $\Delta f_0 = f_d$, the fifth term in (29) is equal to

$$A_m N \sin^2 \theta \left[ \frac{\delta(l)}{2 \pi} e^{j (\phi + \phi')} \cos \left( \frac{l \pi}{2} \right) \sin \left( \frac{l |\Delta f|}{2} \right) \right]$$

$$= \begin{cases} 0, & l \text{ odd} \\ A_m N \sin^2 \theta \left( 1 - \frac{2}{\pi} |\Delta f| \right), & l = \pm 2 \\ -A_m N \sin^2 \theta \frac{e^{j (\phi + \phi')}}{\pi} \sin |\Delta f|, & l = \pm 2 \\ \end{cases}.$$

We are now in a position to find the values of $T_m$ for different scenarios. We will distinguish between two cases: When $\Delta f_d = 0$, we obtain

$$T_m = A_m \times N$$

$$\times \begin{cases} \cos^2 \theta + \frac{1}{2} \sin^2 \theta \left( 1 - \frac{2}{\pi} |\Delta f| \right), & \Delta f_0 = 0 \\ ±\sin \theta \cos \theta \frac{e^{j (\phi + \phi')}}{\pi} \sin |\Delta f|, & \Delta f_0 = ±f_d \end{cases}$$

In (30), we are ignoring the terms corresponding to $|\Delta f_0| > 2f_d$ since they will be negligible in the probability calculations. When the actual and assumed tone frequencies are not the same, i.e., $\Delta f_d \neq 0$, and assuming $f_d$ is not a multiple of $f_d'$ and vice versa, we get

$$T_m = A_m \times N$$

$$\times \begin{cases} \cos^2 \theta, & \Delta f_0 = 0 \\ ±\sin \theta \cos \theta \frac{e^{j (\phi + \phi')}}{\pi} \sin |\Delta f|, & \Delta f_0 = ±f_d \\ \frac{1}{2} \sin^2 \theta \frac{e^{j (\phi + \phi')}}{\pi} \sin |\Delta f|, & \Delta f_0 = ±f_d \end{cases}$$

where for simplicity we are ignoring terms that include factors $c_k$ for $|k| \geq 3$. If $\Delta f_1 = 0$ and $\Delta f_d = 0$, from (30) and (25), we obtain

$$\begin{cases} \lambda_1, & \text{if } \Delta f_0 = 0 \\ \lambda_2, & \text{if } \Delta f_0 = ±f_d \\ \lambda_3, & \text{if } \Delta f_0 = ±f_d \\ \lambda_0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and if $\Delta f_1 = 0$ and $\Delta f_d \neq 0$, using (31) and (25), we arrive at

$$\lambda = \begin{cases} \lambda_1, & \text{if } \Delta f_0 = 0 \\ \lambda_2, & \text{if } \Delta f_0 = ±f_d \pm f_d' \\ \lambda_3, & \text{if } \Delta f_0 = ±(f_d + f_d') \pm \Delta f_d \\ \lambda_0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where the $\lambda_i$ are given in (25).
REFERENCES


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