



САМАРСКИЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ
SAMARA UNIVERSITY

Navigation in space

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<http://spaceresearch.ssau.ru/>



- 1. Introduction. What is Navigation?
- 2. The theoretical aspects of space navigation
- 3. Nowadays methods of space navigation
- 4. Integrated navigation concept
- 5. GNSS technology for Moon missions
- CONCLUSION





1. What is Navigation?

Ever since primitive man wandered from his cave,
he has asked,

“where am I” (*the positioning problem*),

“which way leads me to my destination”

(*the guidance problem*),

or taken together

“how do I get from here to there”

(*the navigation problem*).





The navigation problem is a particular case of a more general problem of *identification the parameters of a dynamic system*

The problem of **dynamic system identification** includes three tasks:

- - *the determination of vector of parameters characterized present condition of dynamic system (vector of phase parameters),*
- - *the determination of constant parameters of dynamic system (dynamic system parameters),*
- - *the determination of parameters of environment in which dynamic system functions.*



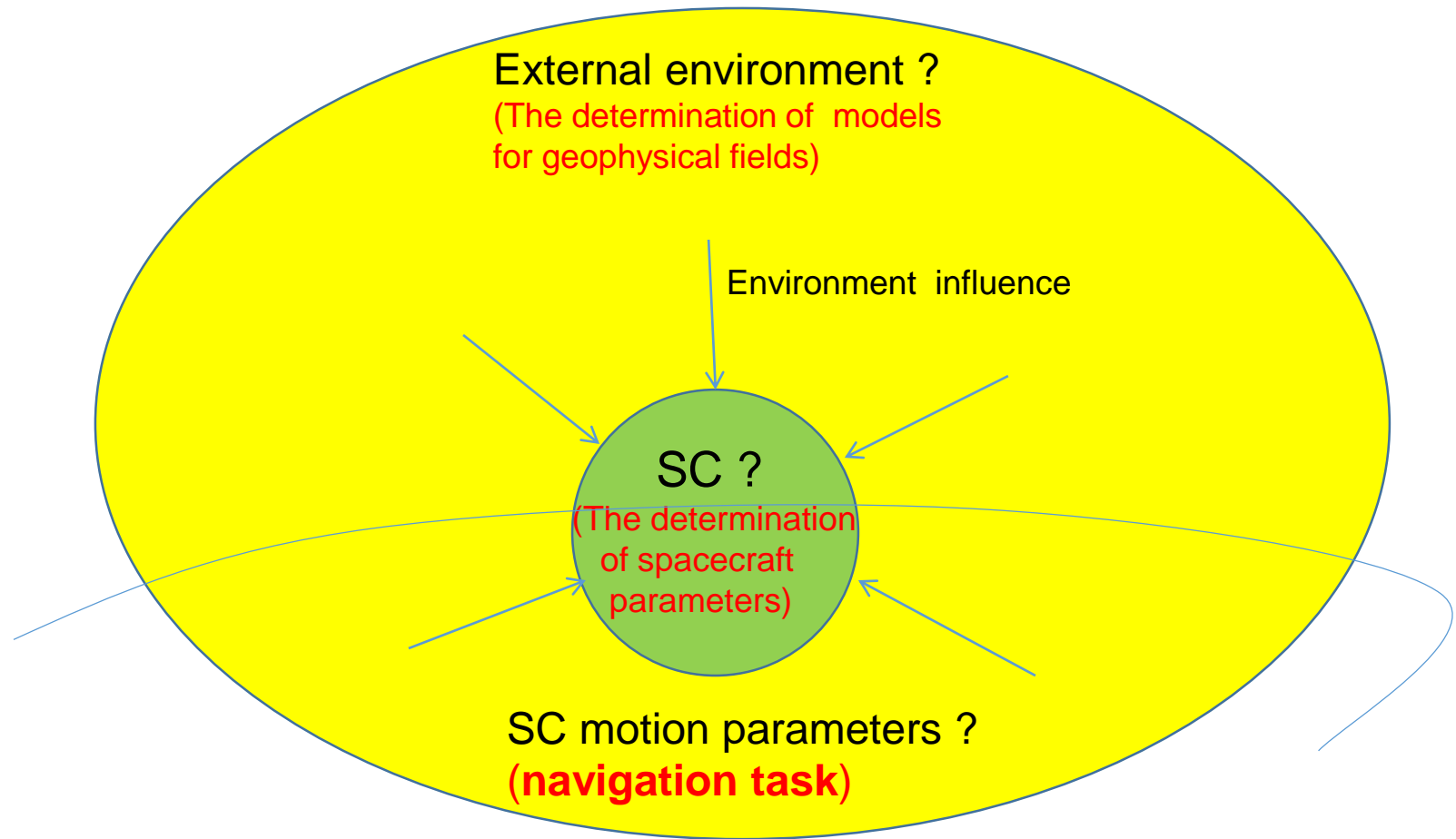


Applied to spacecraft these tasks may be named like:

- **Navigation task** : the determination of mass center motion parameters (for example, the projections of radius vector X, Y, Z and the projections of vector velocity V_x, V_y, V_z on the axis of geocentric coordinate system) and in some cases the motion parameters concerning of mass center (angles of pitch, yaw, roll and angles velocities)(orientation task),
- **The determination of spacecraft parameters** (for example, mass, inertia moments) and onboard systems parameters (for example, adjustment parameters of measurement devices),
- **The determination of the parameters of models of geophysical fields** (gravitational field, magnetic field, ionosphere, atmosphere etc.) in which the spacecraft is moved and which influence on SC motion.



1. What is Navigation?





1. What is Navigation?

In depend on how a navigation device operates to get the knowledge of the dynamic state of a platform (i.e., position, velocity, etc. with respect to a common reference frame), navigation can be categorized into three groups :

- ***Direct positioning systems*** use discrete measurements from external reference points whose locations in the space are well defined to determine the position and (in some cases) the velocity of the platform.

Examples: stars (astronavigation), radio navigation satellite systems.

- ***Dead reckoning systems (autonomous system)*** use a known initial dynamic state of the platform at a known time and then continuously estimate its evolution, based on information provided by sensors of inertial information (for example, accelerometers, gyros).

Examples: inertial systems.

- ***Correlation systems*** sense and recognize some pre-defined and mapped characteristics of the environment and thus extract information related to the dynamic state of the platform.

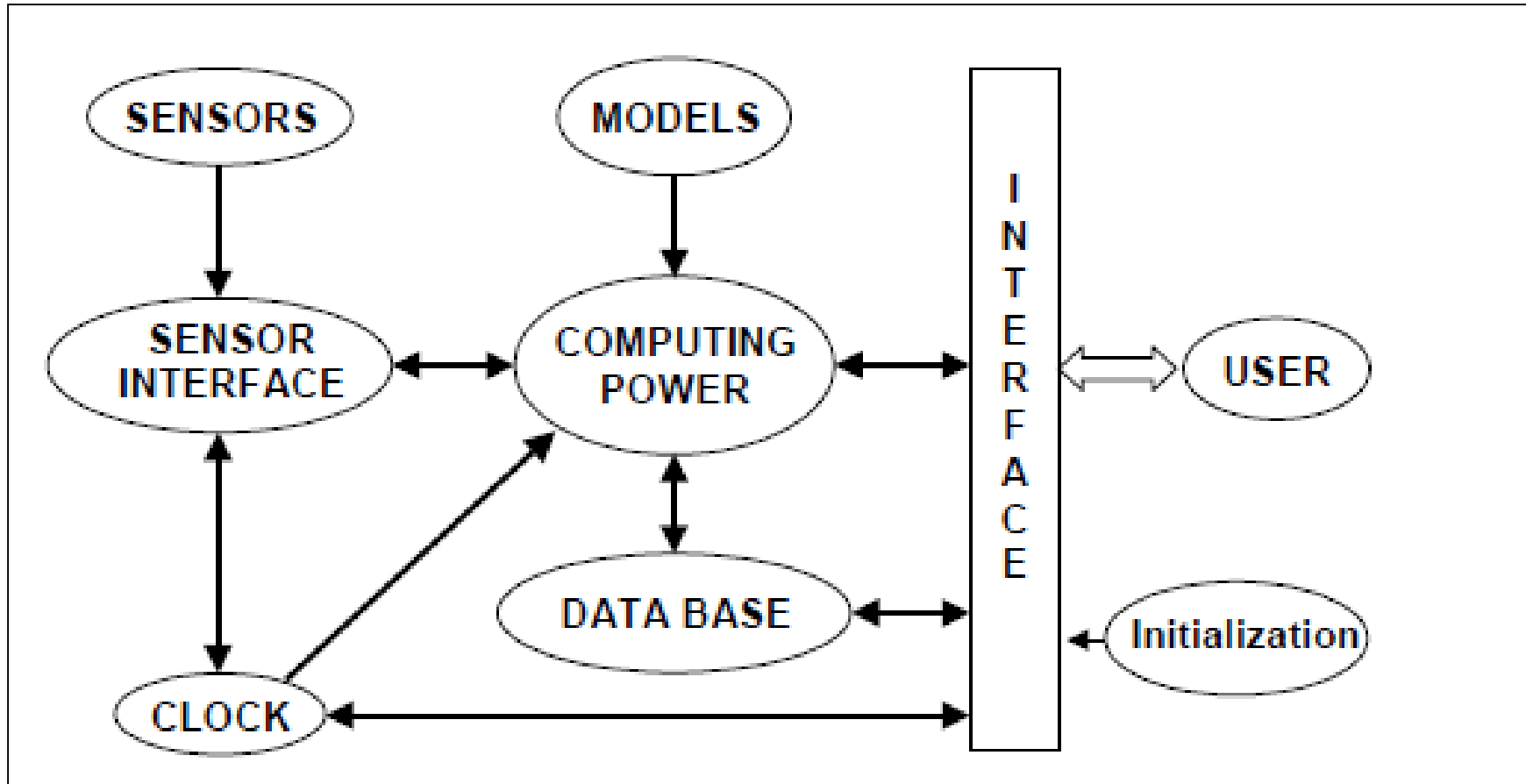
- *Examples: terrain elevation, gravity variations, geomagnetic field*





1. What is Navigation?

Typical structure of any navigation device



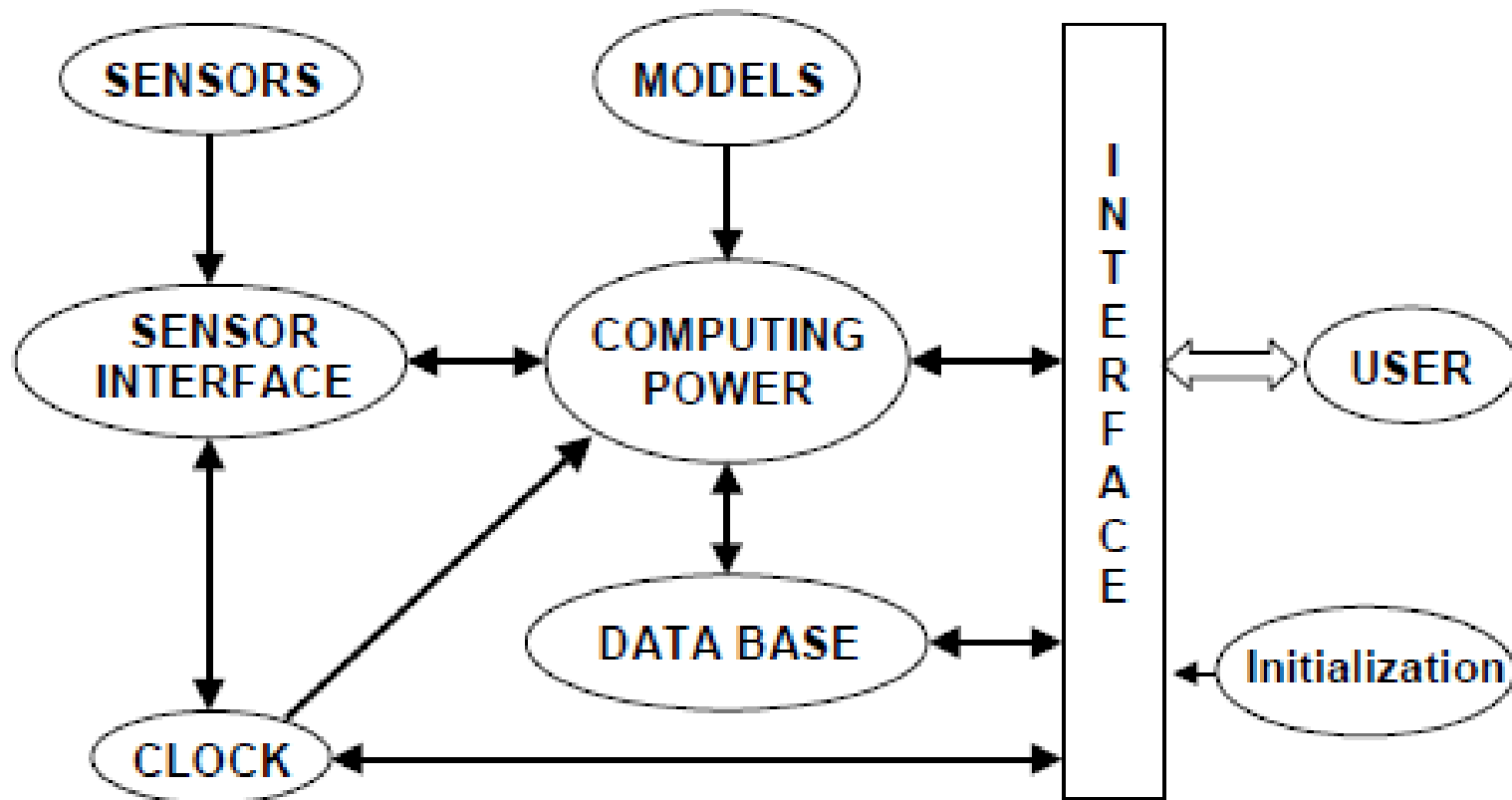
The **sensors** measure position and orientation or their rates of change (velocity and acceleration) or parameters of geophysical field (for example, intensity of strengths of magnetic field)





1. What is Navigation?

Typical structure of any navigation device



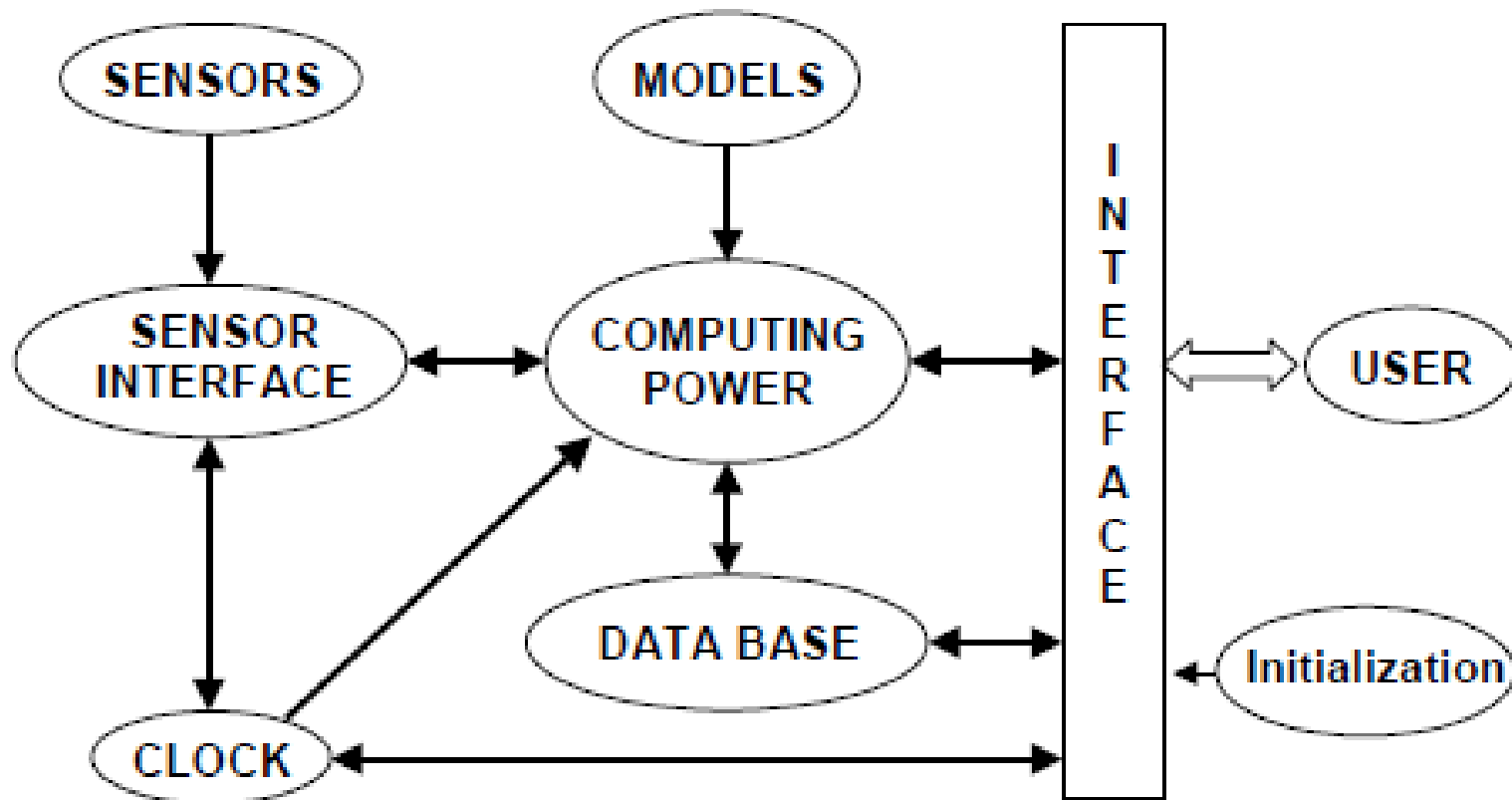
The **clock** provides precise time so the computer can coordinate the data from the sensors





1. What is Navigation?

Typical structure of any navigation device



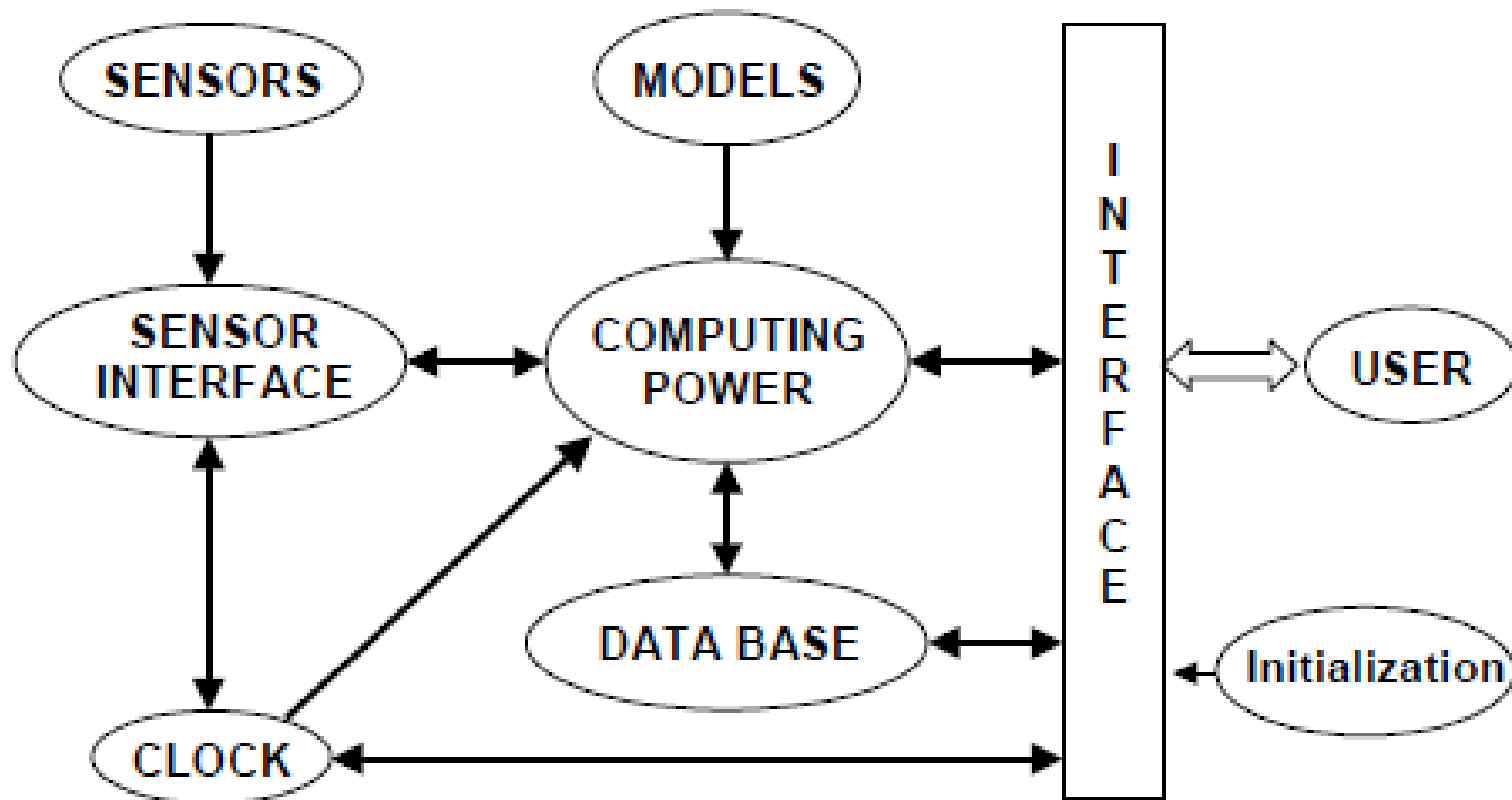
The **sensor interface** provides the measurements from the sensors to the computer





1. What is Navigation?

Typical structure of any navigation device



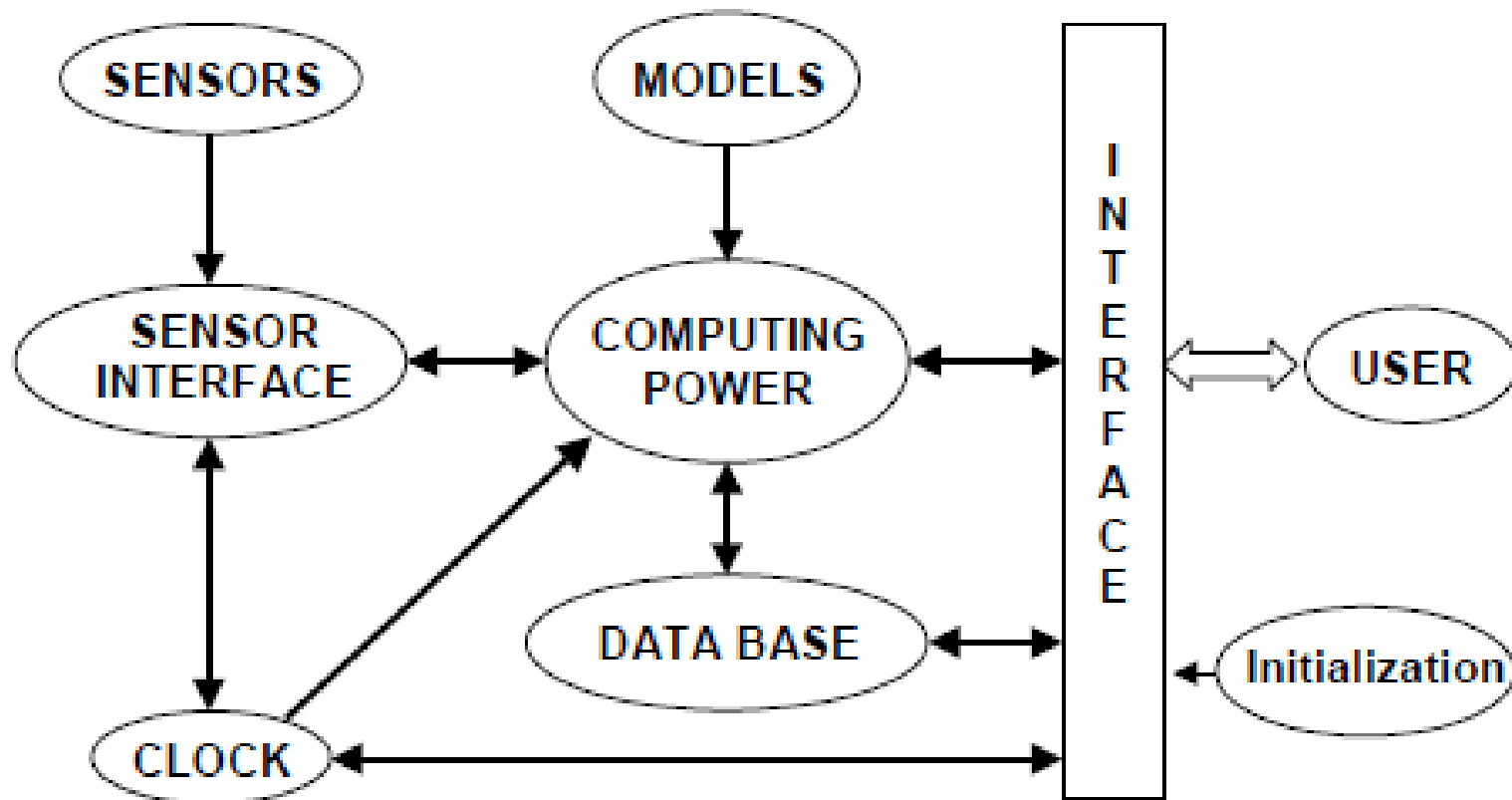
The **models**, which reside in the computer, compensate for environmental and dynamic effects on the sensors





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Typical structure of any navigation device



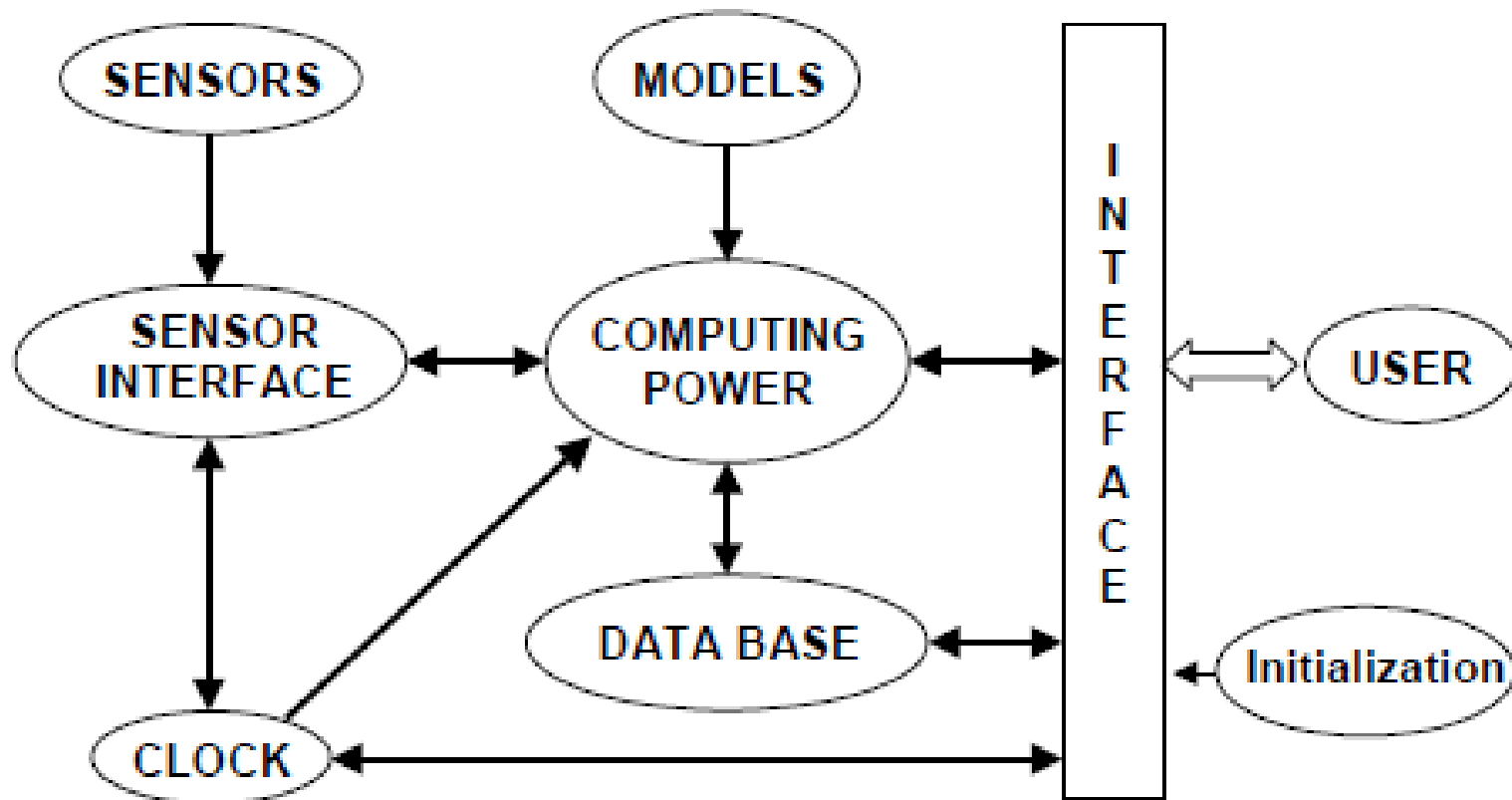
The **database** stores information related to the mission such as waypoints, maps, coordinate systems, jamming conditions, etc.





1. What is Navigation?

Typical structure of any navigation device



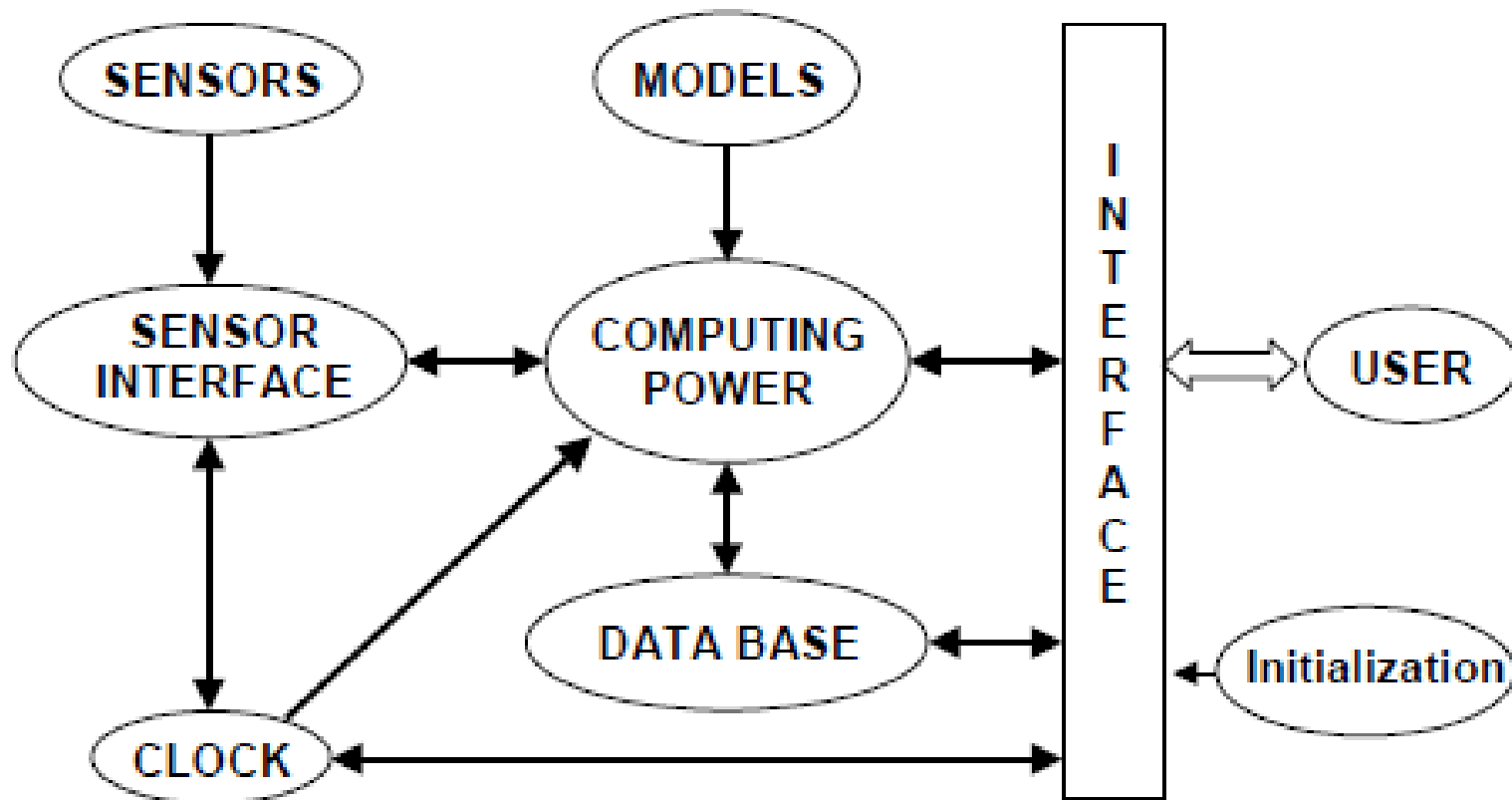
The **computer** performs the navigation computations based on models of the sensors, clock and environment.





1. What is Navigation?

Typical structure of any navigation device



Initialization is any process or data required to define and/or determine the initial position and alignment of the navigation system to a common reference frame.





2. The theoretical aspects of space navigation

1. Any measurement contains an errors (systematic and random types).
2. The aprioristic information about parameters to be determined can be present or absent.
3. Presence of the aprioristic information allows to simplify the decision of a navigation task.
4. The measurements can be received in one time and/or in different times:
if we have one time measurements it is a *kinematic navigation*,
if we have different times measurements it is a *dynamic navigation*.
5. In the algorithms of a kinematic navigation are used only *models (equations) of measurements*.
6. In the algorithms of a dynamic navigation are used *models of motion together with models of measurements*.





7. The necessary conditions must be met to solve the navigation problem.

Necessary condition of navigation:

the number of determined parameters should be no more the numbers of measurements.

If the number of measurements is less than number of determined parameters, presence of the aprioristic information can allow in some cases to solve a navigation task.

Minimally necessary number of measurements have to be equally to number of determined parameters.

If the number of measurements exceeds number of determined parameters (a case of surplus measurements) it is possible to increase accuracy of a navigation task decisions, using statistical methods of measurements processing (for example, method of the minimum least squares, Kalman filtration, etc.)





- **Real motion:** $x^*(t), t \in T$ $x \in E^n$ - vector dimension n
- **Real measurements:** $\{r(t_1), r(t_2), \dots, r(t_N)\} \in E^{m \times N}$ $r \in E^m$ - vector dimension m
- **Subsystem of motion models:** $\dot{x} = f(t, x), x(t_0) = x_0$ $x_0 \subset X_0$
- **Subsystem of measurement models:**
 $r(t) = y(t) + w(t)$ where $w(t)$ - random additive errors of measurements
 $y = \varphi(t, x), y \in E^r$

- **The criteria of quality of navigation solution :**

$$\alpha(\hat{x}_0, r) = \int \dots \int_{X_0} W(x_0, \hat{x}_0) \cdot L(r, x_0) dX_0$$

where \hat{x}_0 - required vector of initial parameters of motion,

$W(x_0, \hat{x}_0)$ - loss function,

which characterizes difference of estimation \hat{x}_0 from real values X_0^*

$L(r, x_0)$ - likelihood function, for example a conditional density function of probability

The result of navigational task

$$\hat{x}_0^{opt} = \arg \min_{\hat{x}_0 \in X_0} \alpha(\hat{x}_0, r);$$





- The motion model should be *adequate* to real motion
- The measurements model should be *adequate* to real measurements
- The motion model and measurements model should satisfy to a condition of an *observability*,
- The criterion of quality of a navigational solution should be well-grounded in relation to measurements, ensure getting a unique solution $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_0^{\text{opt}}$ and have a condition of a strong convergence to true values \mathbf{x}_0^*

$$P \left\{ \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left\| \hat{\mathbf{x}}_0^{\text{opt}} - \mathbf{x}_0^* \right\| \geq \eta \right\} = 0$$





- For linear models of motion and measurements exist only two variants - **observability** and **non-observability**
- For non-linear models of motion and measurements exist concepts of **global observability**, **local observability**, and **global non-observability**

If there is no observability you can not solve navigational task using chosen models of motion and measurements

For check of an observability special criteria of an observability are used, for example for linear models of motion and measurements – Kalman criteria





Kalman criteria of observability for case of non-stationary linear models (motion and measurements):

- **Motion model** $G : \dot{x} = A(t) \cdot x; \quad x(t_0) = x_0;$
 $n \times n$

- **Measurement model** $S : y = C(t)x$
 $m \times n$

$$N_H = \left\| H_1(t) : H_2(t) : \dots : H_n(t) \right\|_{n \times mn} \quad \text{- matrix of observability}$$

where $H_1(t) = C^T(t)$

$$H_2(t) = A^T(t)H_1(t) - \dot{H}_1(t)$$

.....

$$H_n(t) = A^T(t)H_{n-1}(t) - \dot{H}_{n-1}(t)$$

$$\text{Rank } N_H(t) = n$$





Kalman criteria of observability for case of stationary linear models:

- **Motion model**

$$G: \frac{dx}{dt} = A x \quad x(t_0) = x_0$$

- **Measurement model**

$$S: y(t) = C x(t)$$

where

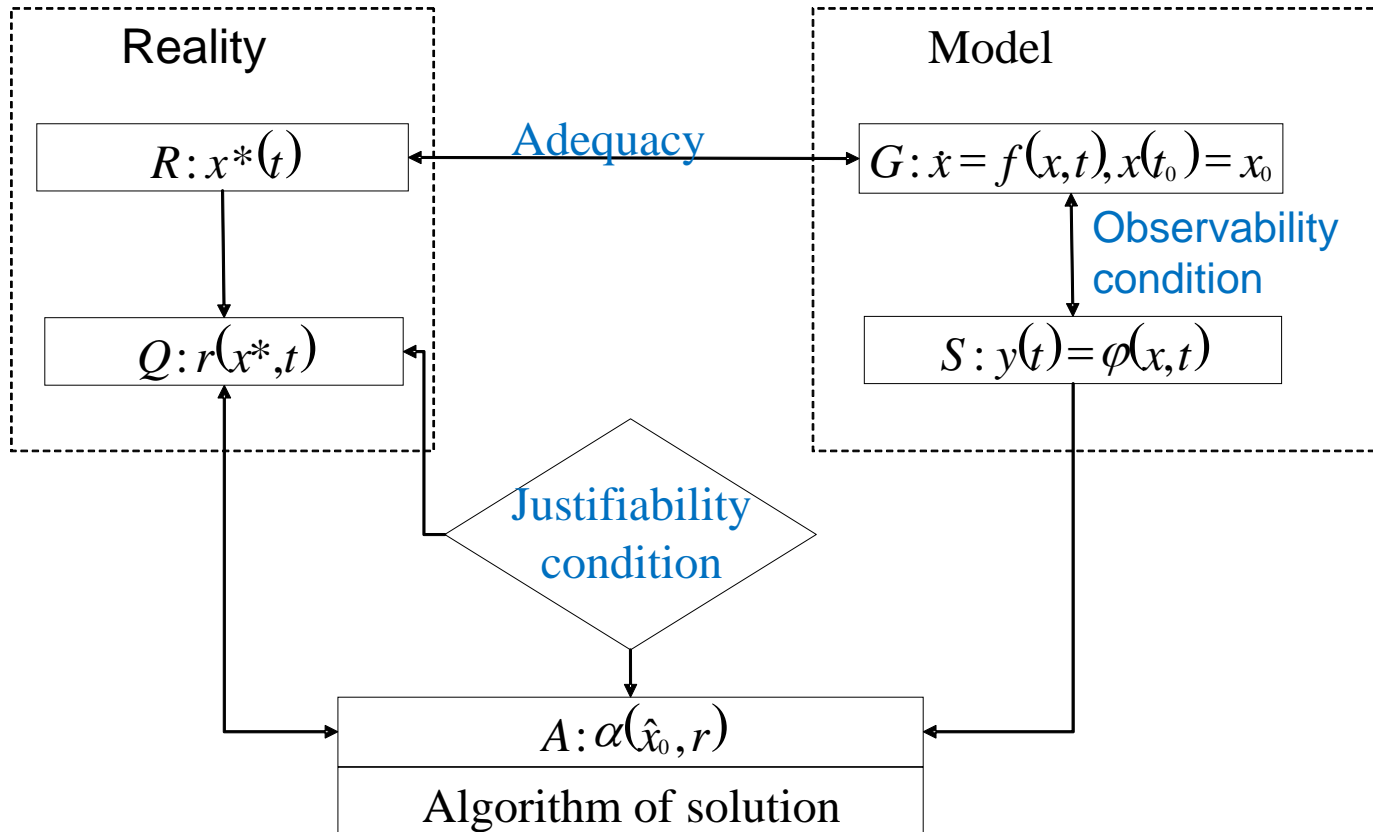
$$N_H = \begin{bmatrix} C^T & A^T C^T & (A^T)^2 C^T & \dots & (A^T)^{(n-1)} C^T \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{- matrix of observability}$$

$$\text{Rank } N_H = n$$



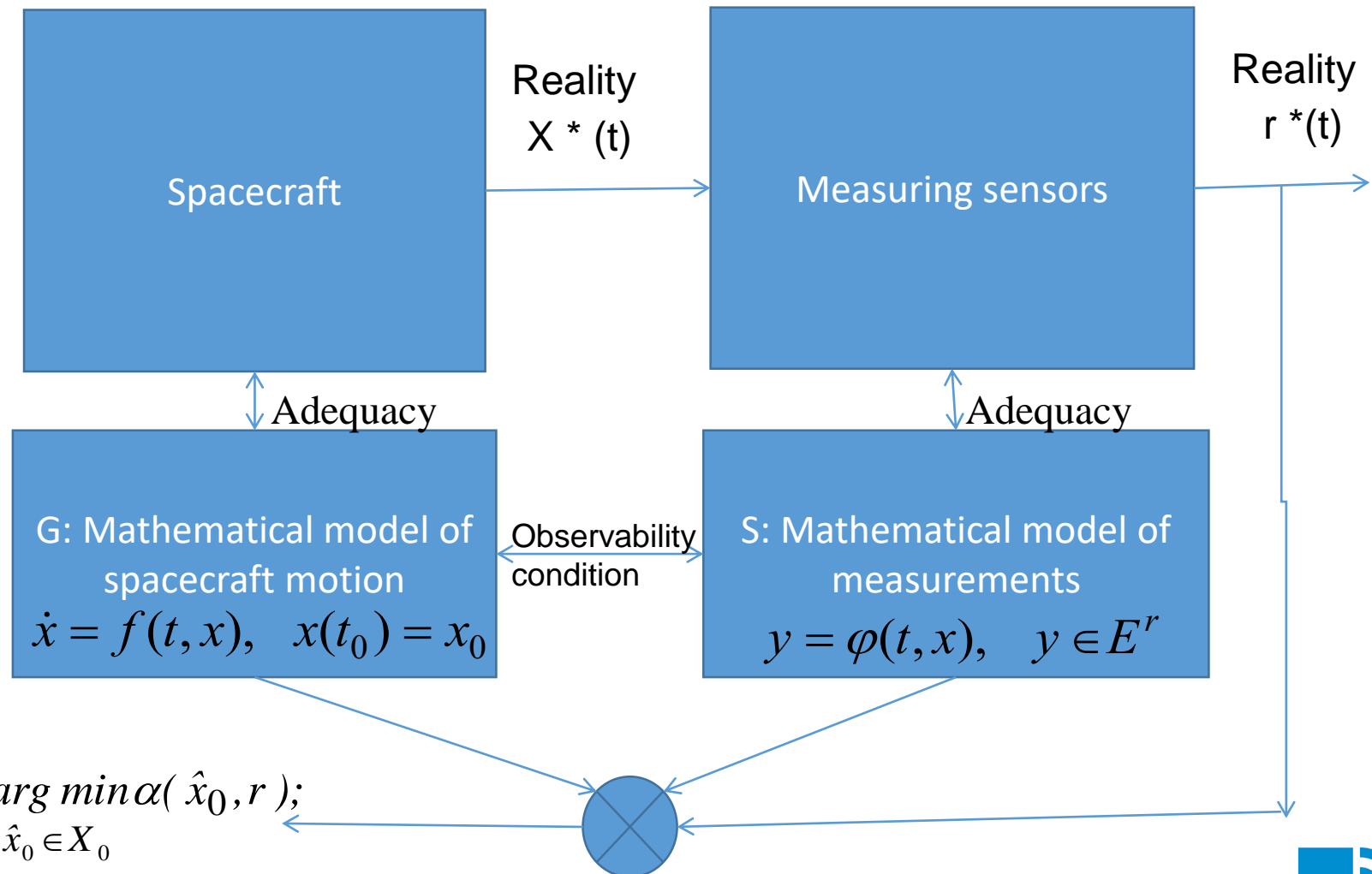


2. The theoretical aspects of space navigation



$$\hat{x}_0^{opt} = \arg \min_{\hat{x}_0 \in X_0} \alpha(\hat{x}_0, r);$$





3. The most popular methods of space navigation

- 3.1 Satellite radio navigation
- 3.2 Inertial navigation





3.1 SATELLITE NAVIGATION SYSTEMS

Four satellite navigation systems have been designed to give three dimensional position, velocity and time data almost anywhere in the world with an accuracy of a few meters:

- The Global Positioning System – GPS (USA),
- The Global Navigation Satellite System – GLONASS (Russia),
- GALILEO (European Union) (under deployment),
- BEIDOW (China).

Exist regional satellite radio navigational systems, for example QZSS (Japan), IRNSS (India)





GALILEO



GLONASS



GPS

1. Each satellite has very accurate atomic clocks.

2. Satellites know their precise positions from data sent to them from the system controllers.

3. Each satellite broadcasts its position and time signal.



4. The signals travel to the receiver delayed by the distance travelled from the satellite to the user receiver.

6. For 3-D position and time data the receiver needs to track a minimum of four satellites.

5. The receiver calculates the range to each satellite (from the time signal) and then calculates its own position.

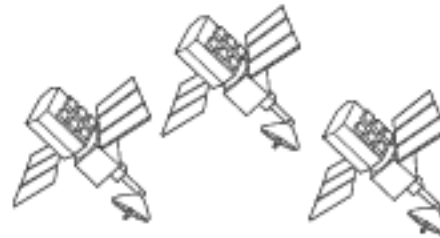


Space Segment:

Constellation of nominal 24 satellites in six orbital planes around the earth (20200km altitude, each plane inclined at 55°). Each satellite is equipped with very precise atomic clocks.

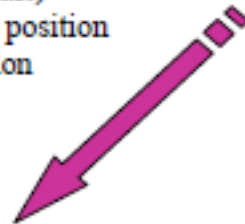
Downlink Data:

- Time tagged coded range signal (there are currently both military and civil signals)
- Satellite position information



Uplink Data:

- Clock corrections
- Satellite position information (ephemeris data)



User Segment:

GPS receivers detect, decode, and process the GPS satellite signals to calculate position.

Control Segment:

The ground control segment consists of antenna stations that track and monitor the GPS satellites. It computes and uploads corrections to the satellite constellation.



SRNS	GLONASS	GPS
The SV number in each plane	8	4
The number of orbit planes	3	6
The orbit inclination	64,8 °	55°
Orbital period	11 h 16 min	11 h 58 min
Orbital altitude	19100 km	20150 km

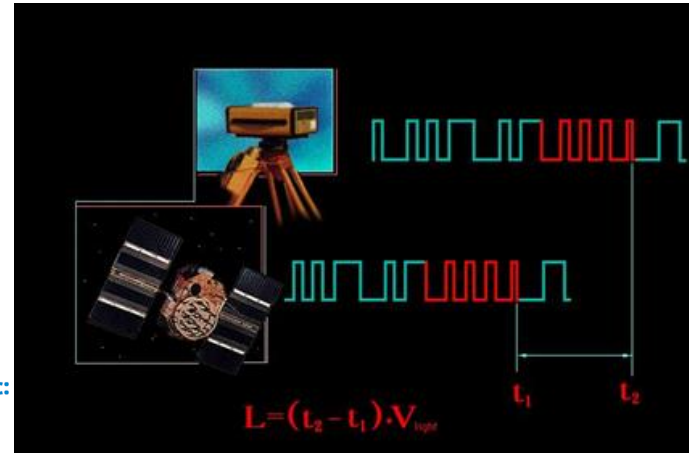
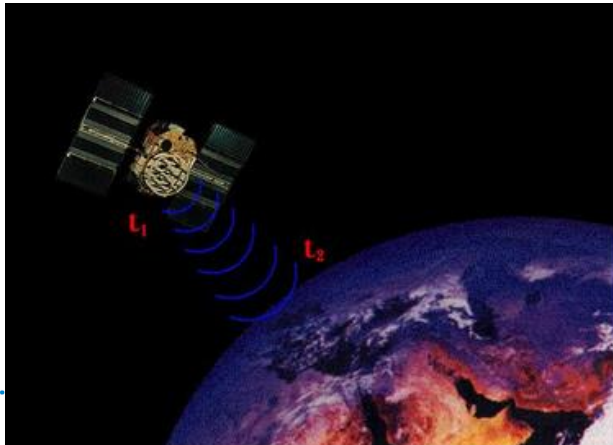


The basic idea: distances and speeds of their change between visible satellites and the receiver of signals are measured

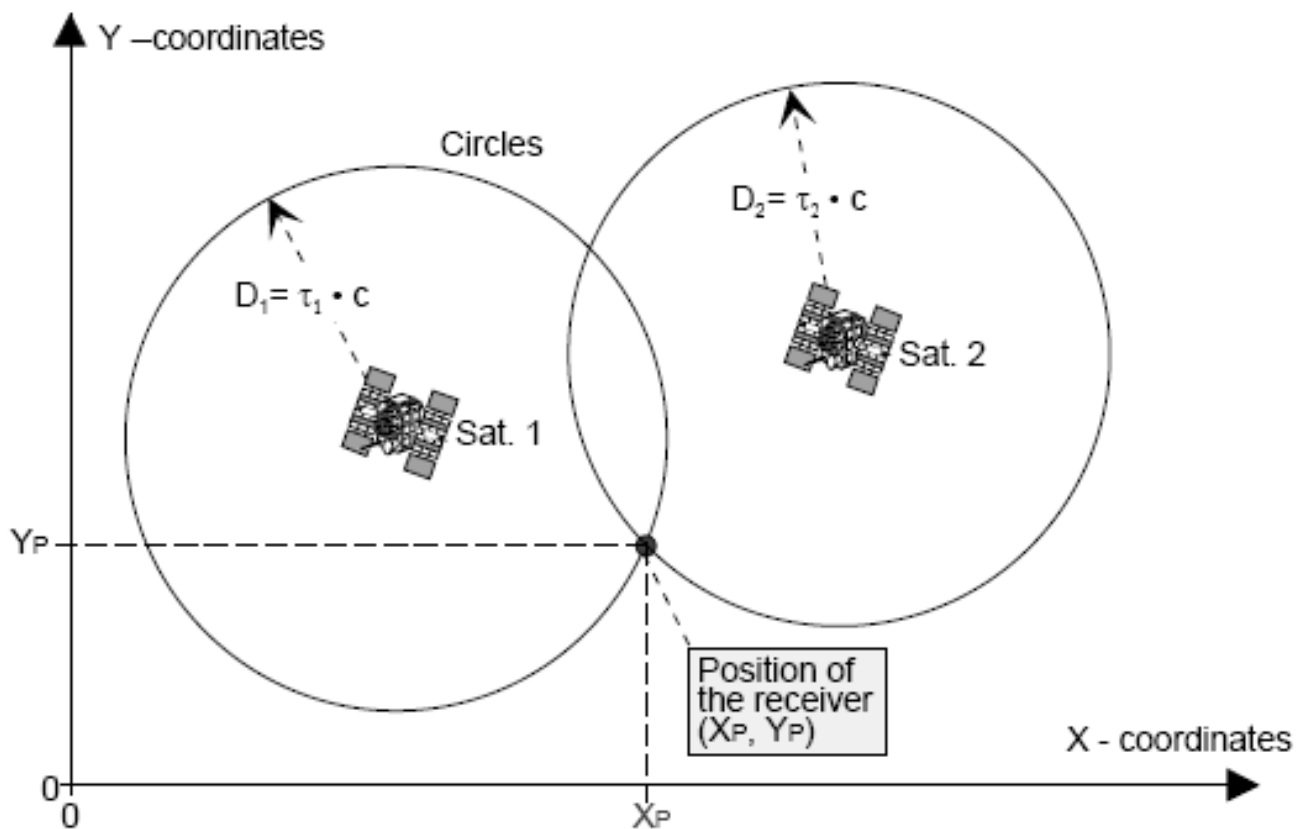
Position is derived by computing the distance, or range, of the receiver from each satellite, by measuring the time taken for a radio signal transmitted from the satellite to travel to the receiver.

In order to make precise distance measurements, the accurate time tagging of the satellite signal is essential – this is achieved with the utilization of atomic clocks on each satellite, which are very expensive.

The clock used in the receiver is of lower cost and accuracy.

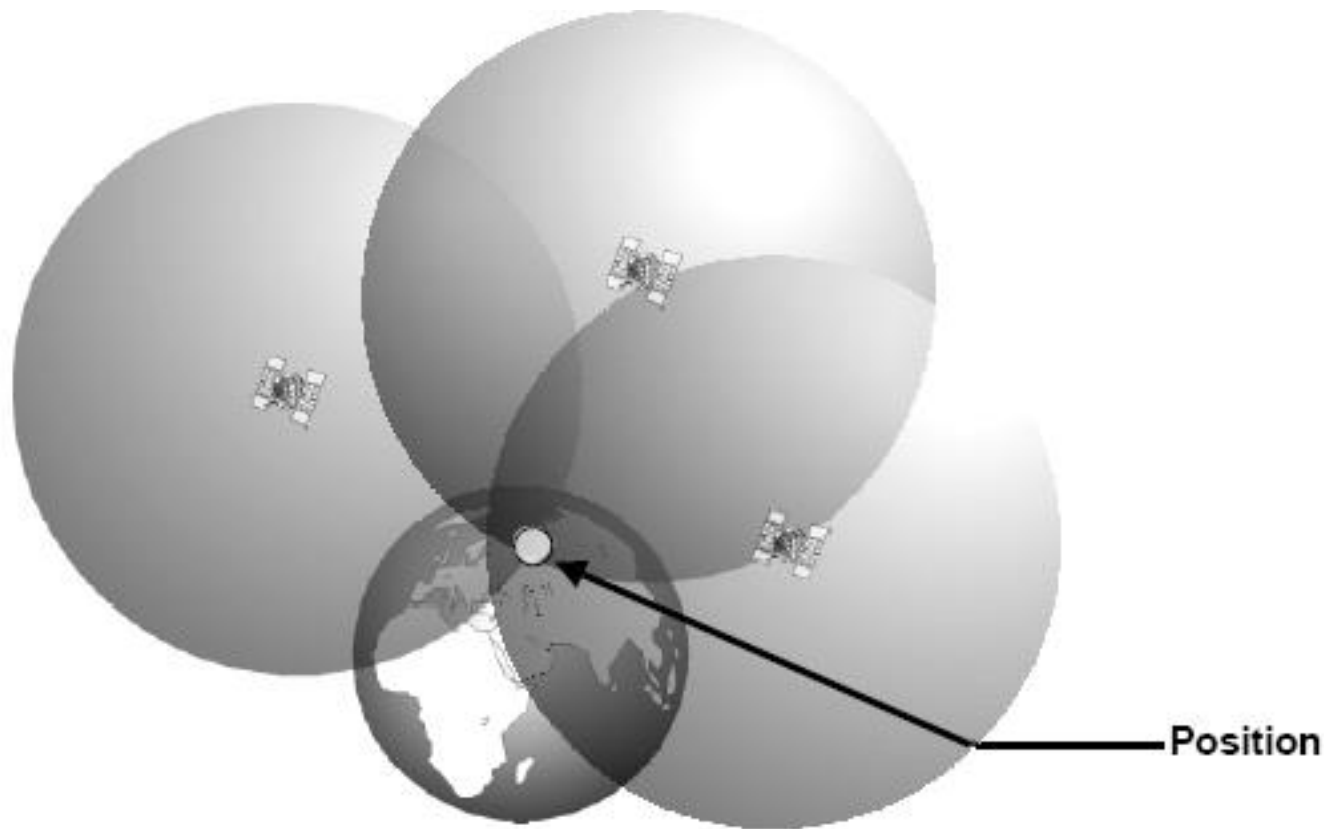


2D - satellite navigation





3D – satellite navigation





Measurement of range to at least four satellites is required to determine four unknowns parameters:

- three spatial co-ordinates (latitude, longitude, altitude),
- time.

By using the Doppler shift of the satellite signal, the range rate to each satellite can be computed in the receiver. It can be used to determine the vehicle's velocity.



$$\begin{cases} D = \sqrt{(x - x_{NS})^2 + (y - y_{NS})^2 + (z - z_{NS})^2} \\ \dot{D} = \frac{1}{D} \left[(V_x - V_{xNS})(x - x_{NS}) + (V_y - V_{yNS})(y - y_{NS}) + (V_z - V_{zNS})(z - z_{NS}) \right] \end{cases}$$

Errors budget:

- mistakes in satellites ephemerides,
- atmospheric delays of a signal,
- instability of the onboard standard clock and the standard of frequency generator,
- noise of the receiver



Advantages of satellite radionavigation

- Global coverage.
- Coordinates in Absolute Reference Frame.
- High accuracy (position to several meters, velocity to 0.1 m/s, time to 0.1 millionth of a second).
- No error growth with time.
- Low cost receiver.

Disadvantages

- Not self-contained (dependent on external signals).
- Accuracy of position depend on geometry of visible constellation of navigating satellites
- May be discontinuities when antennas will be blocked by constructions/buildings/terrain
- Received satellite signals are very weak and therefore vulnerable to jamming.
- No real-time integrity





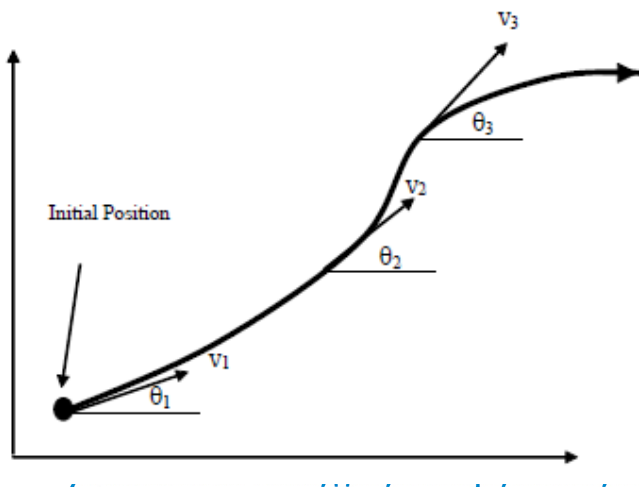
3.2 Inertial navigation

The basic idea: definition of position in space by means of integration measured accelerations

The basic sensors within an inertial navigation system are accelerometers (to measure linear motions) and gyroscopes (to measure rotational motion).

The budget of mistakes:

- mistakes of acceleration measurements,
- mistakes from discrepancy of axes of measurements with axes of the connected system of coordinates,
- mistakes of integration,
- a mistake of the using model of the Earth gravitational field



Among dead-reckoning systems, Inertial Navigation Systems (INS) are the most complex. They continuously measure linear motions (v_i) and rotations (θ_i), using on board accelerometers and gyroscopes respectively. Starting from a known position provided by the user or another system, the computer then computes the path followed, as depicted in the sketch below. In this process the velocity and attitude of the vehicle are also provided continuously.





The basic sensors of an INS are configured in either two ways:

- Isolated from the vehicle rotations on served gimbals (“gimballed”),
- Mounted directly to the vehicle (“strapdown”).

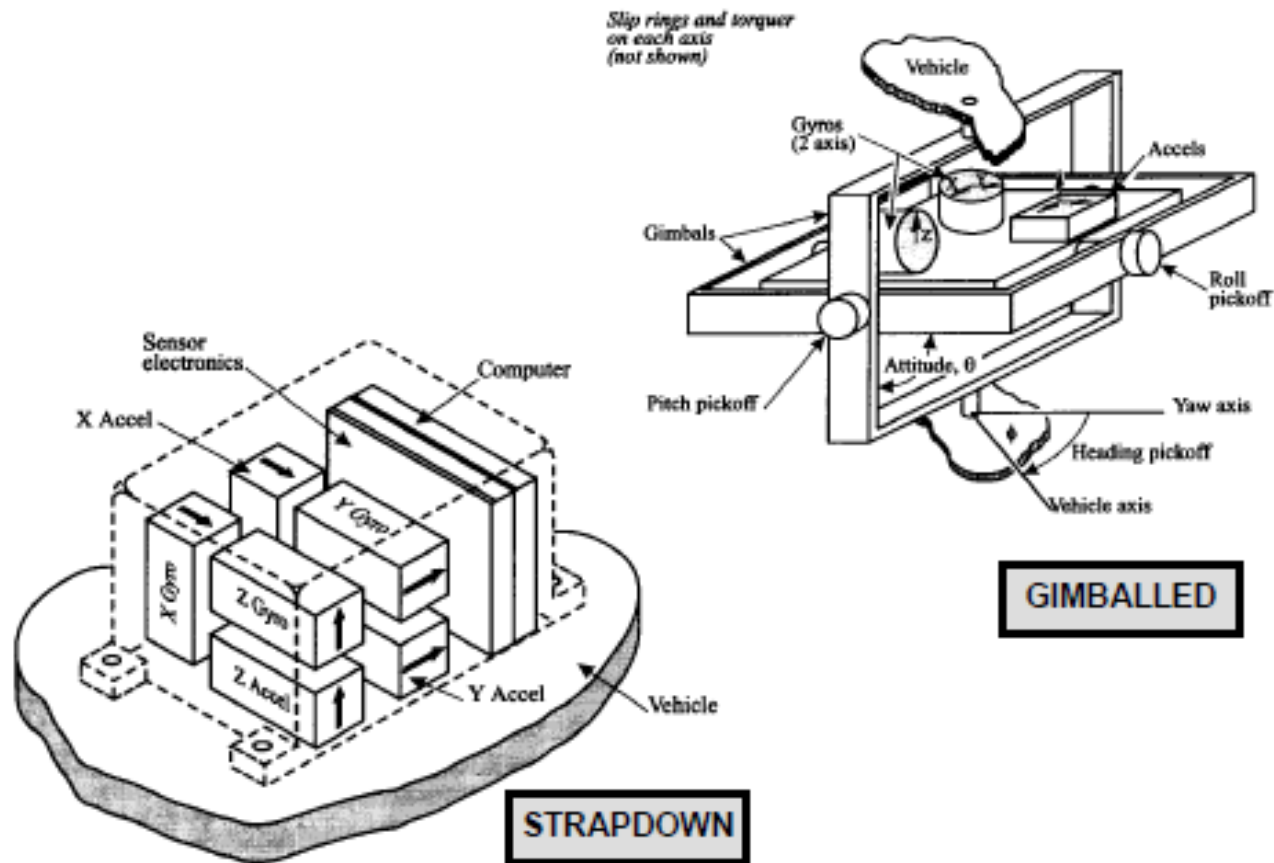
- Gimbaled systems were the first to be developed and the most accurate systems today are still gimbaled systems.

The 3 accelerometers and 3 gyroscopes mechanical assembly is physically stabilized relatively the navigation reference frame. However their mechanical complexity and cost makes their use prohibitive in the large majority of applications.

- Strapdown systems appeared in the mid 70’s when the computation power on board became sufficient to compute a virtual reference frame in real-time.

Strapdown systems are typically more reliable and lower cost than gimbaled systems.







Accelerometers delete into two main categories:

- force feedback or pendulous rebalanced accelerometers,
- vibrating beam accelerometers.

Gyroscopes are more diverse:

- Earlier designs consisted of metal wheels spinning in ball or gas bearings;
- Optical gyros were developed later and have counter-rotating laser beams either in an evacuated cavity (RLG: Ring Laser Gyro) or in an optical fiber (FOG: Fiber Optic Gyro);
- Other designs use resonators of different shapes (bars, cylinders, rings, hemispheres) and are known under the generic name of Coriolis vibrating gyros.

These sensors are generally moving from older construction methods consisting of assembling a great number of mechanical parts, to modern automatic mass production techniques. Currently the most advanced such technique uses Micro-Electro-Mechanical Systems (MEMS) technology, enabling true solid state sensors. MEMS offers the promise of a complete sensor and supporting electronics on a single integrated circuit chip.

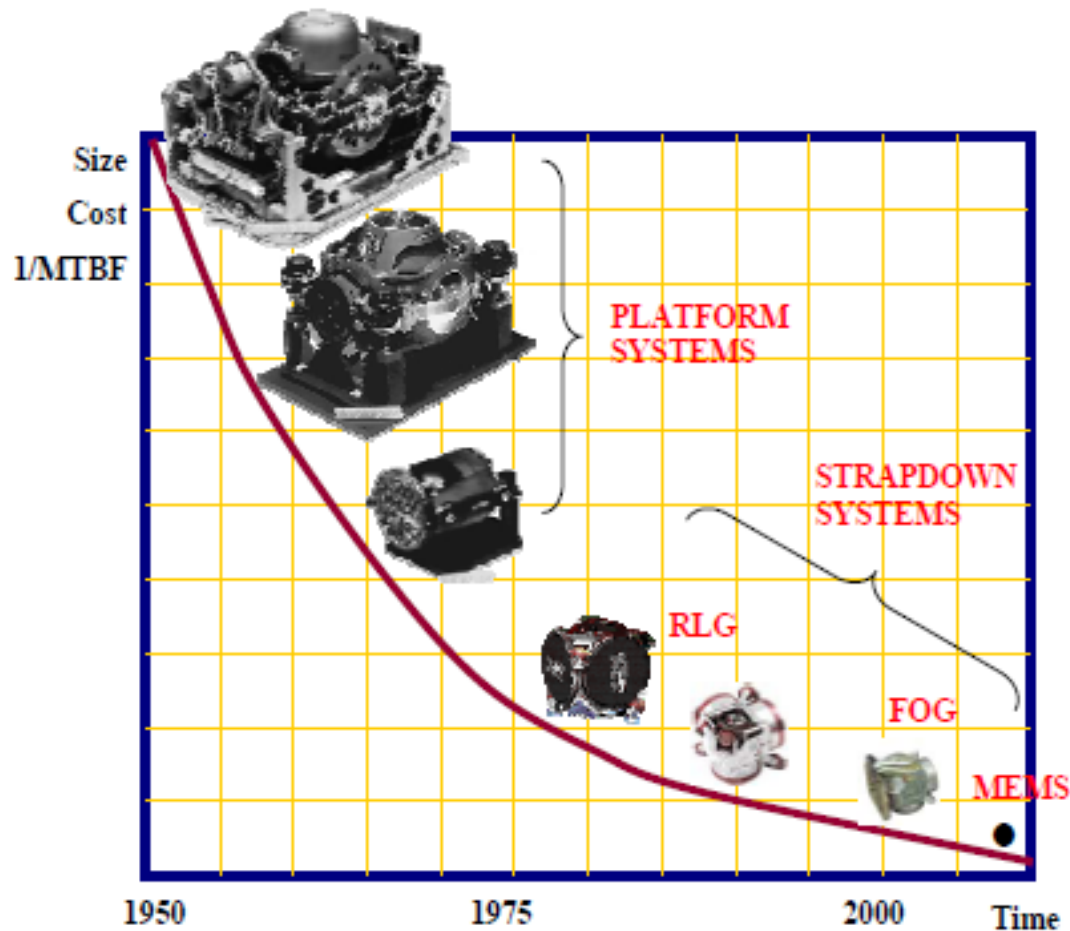
ул. Московское шоссе, д.34, г.Самара, 443086, тел.: +7 (846) 335-18-26, факс: +7 (846) 335-18-36, сайт: www.ssau.ru, e-mail: ssau@ssau.ru

The basic materials often used by this technology are silicon or quartz.





Changes in Inertial Systems



Changes in technology and manufacturing process are the key factors to:

- Reduced cost,
- Improved reliability (higher Mean Time Between Failure),
- Reduced size





Advantages INS

- Self contained – no external infrastructure required.
- Continuous information, including attitude.
- Available anywhere in any environment.
- Robust to jamming.

Disadvantages

- Accuracy degrades with time (unbounded error).
- Need for initial position parameters.
- Accurate systems are expensive.





INTEGRATED NAVIGATION CONCEPT

Not a single navigation system or sensor technology satisfies the whole range of technical, operational and cost requirements.

However, by combining several technologies, an integrated system can be formed that has superior performance and costs characteristics.

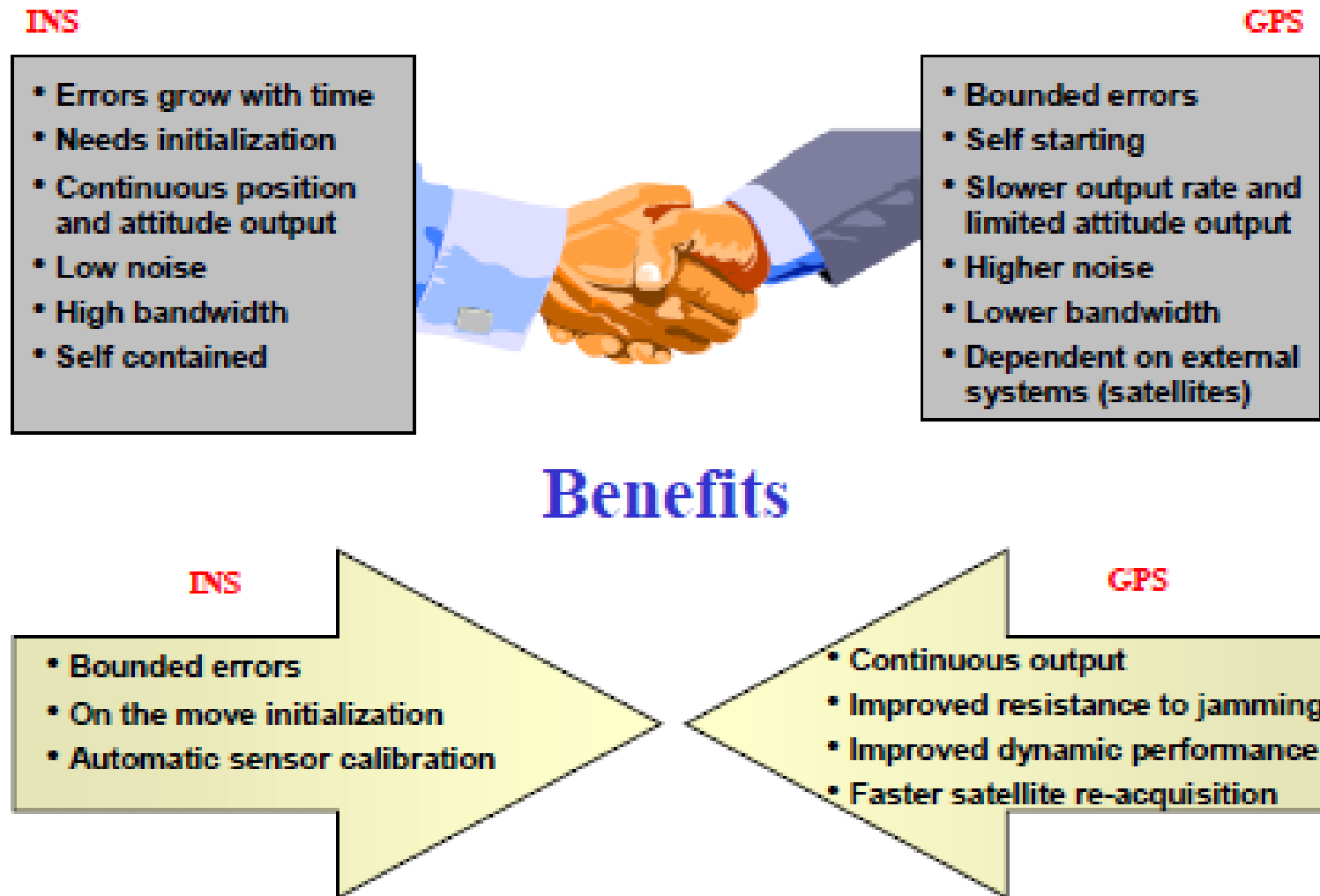
Such systems are called **Integrated Navigation Systems** (e.g., **INS/SRNS system**).

Since GPS and INS outputs and error characteristics are complementary to each other, integration of these sensors benefits both sensor systems resulting in a much better total navigation system





Since GPS and INS outputs and error characteristics are complementary to each other, integration of these sensors benefits both sensor systems resulting in a much better total navigation system.





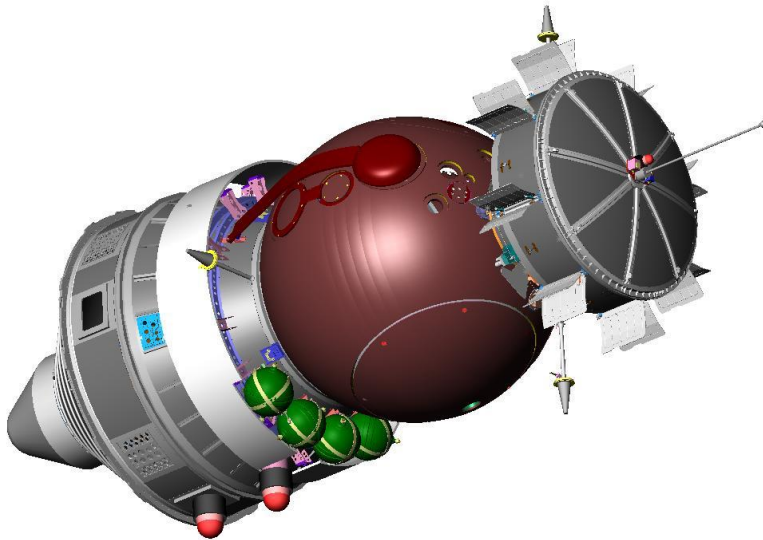
Satellite radio navigational technologies are basic tools for monitoring of geophysical fields (MGF)

- Upper atmosphere field – short-term variation of atmosphere density
- Ionosphere field – electronic concentration of ionosphere
- Earth observation - passive radiolocation via reflecting of GLONASS/GPS signals from Earth surface





SV Foton-M2 mission (2005)



Full mass – 6540 kg

Mass of recoverable payload – 650 kg

Daily average energy consumption –
up to 800 W

Orbital parameters – 262 km x 304 km

Orbital lifetime – 16 days

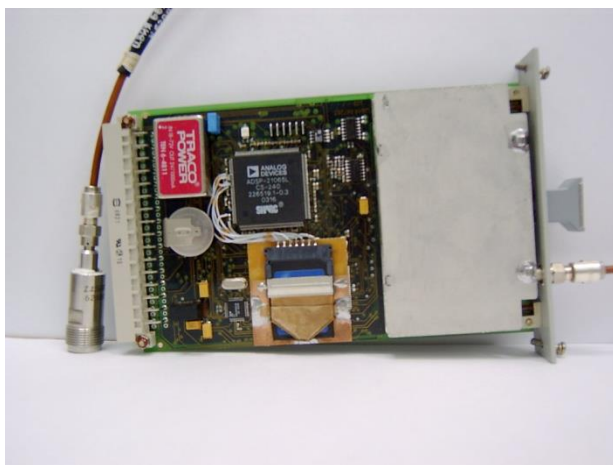
Launch-vehicle – Soyuz

Launch site - Baikonur





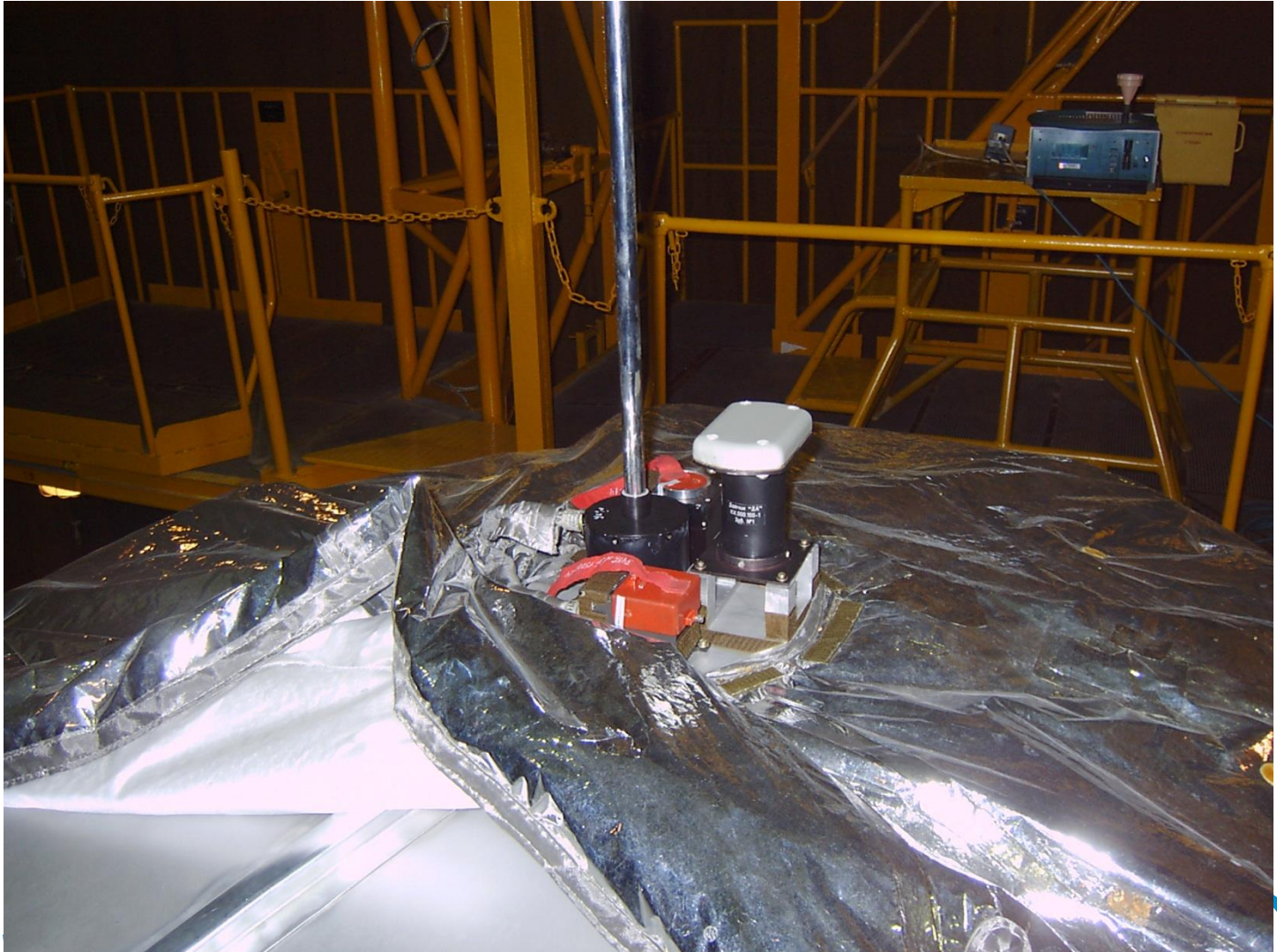
MIRAGE-M equipment: structure and characteristics



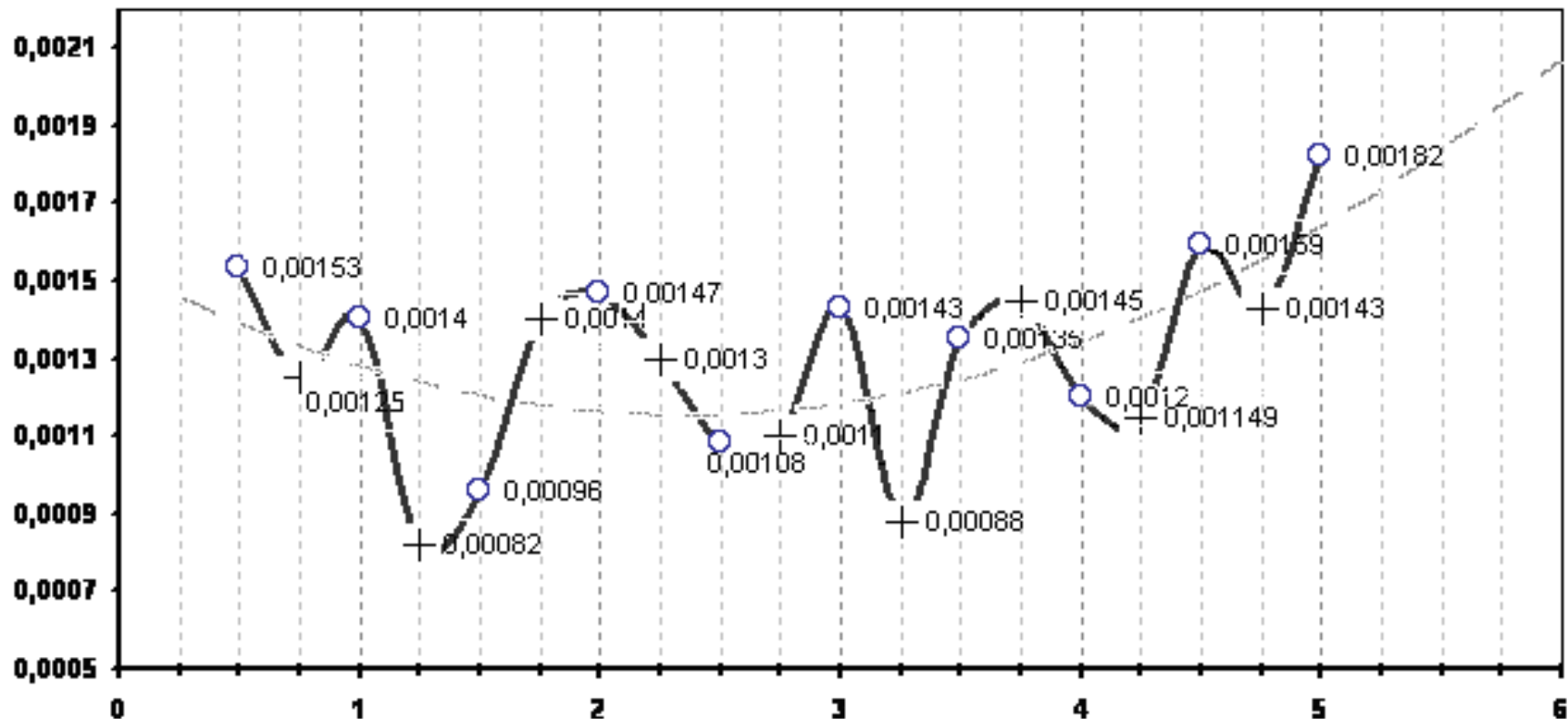
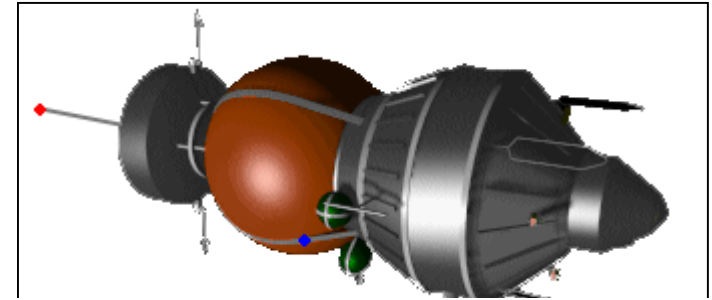


Experiment “NAVIGATOR”

Accommodation of antenna navigational receiver



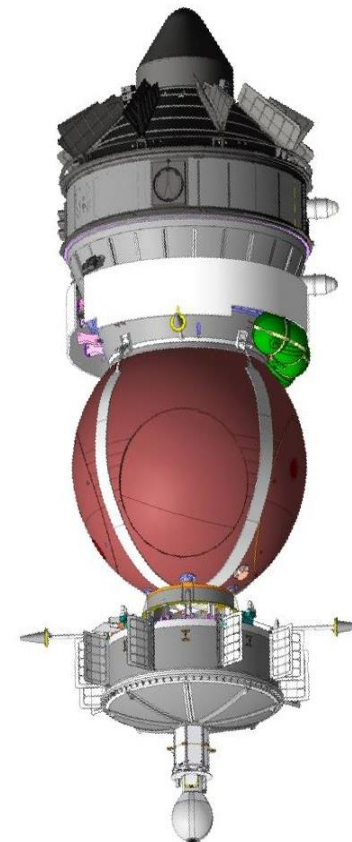
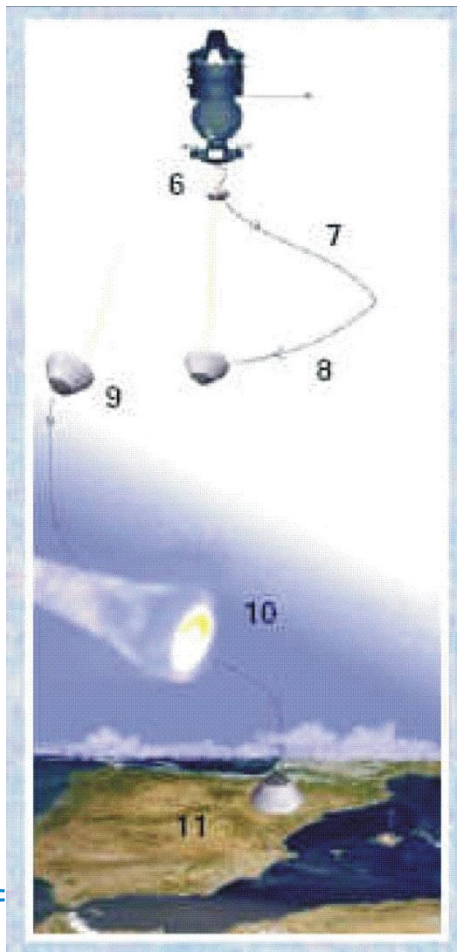
The results of experiment on spacecraft «Foton–M2»





Navigation experiments on SV “Foton-M3”

Problems of navigational tracking of tether system deployment by an example of the experiment YES2





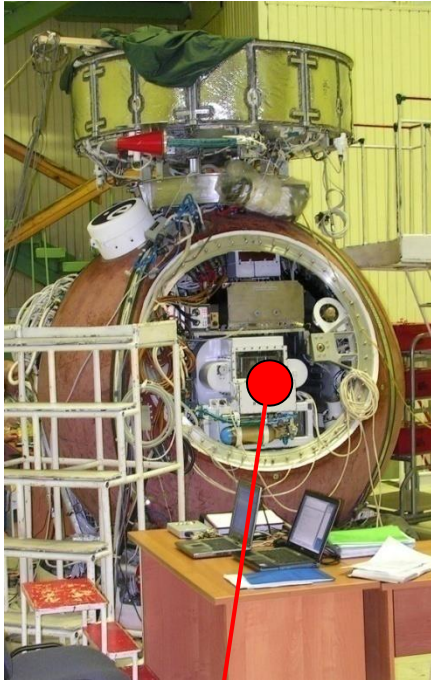
Goals of Samara University navigational experiment

- - testing of navigational tracking instrumentation;
- - improvement of technology of solving of navigational tasks with usage of two antennas;
- - research of influence of tether system on spacecraft Foton-M3 motion;
- - improvement of technology of restore of disturbance forces acting on spacecraft Foton-M3 by means of data processing from navigational receiver.

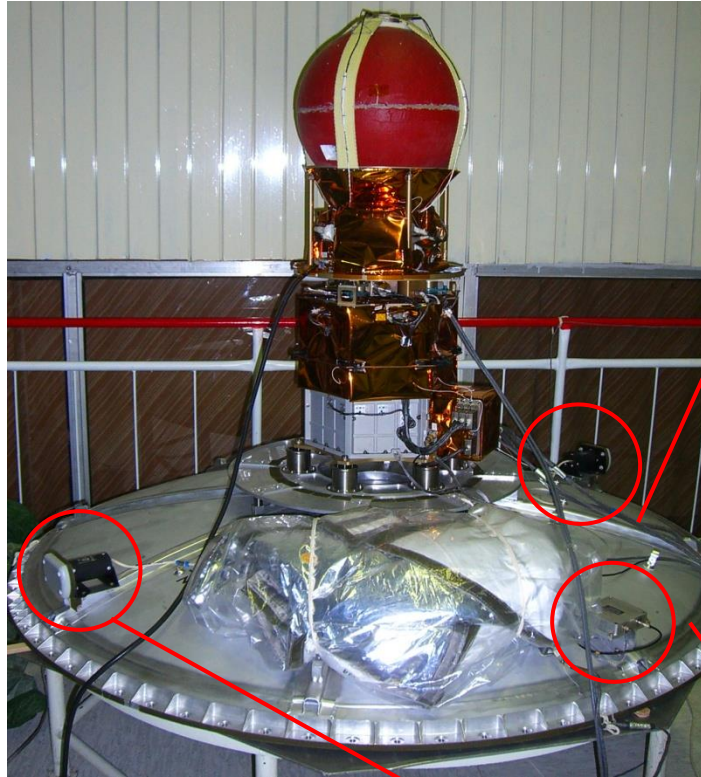




The description of auxiliary instrumentation SSAU-YES2



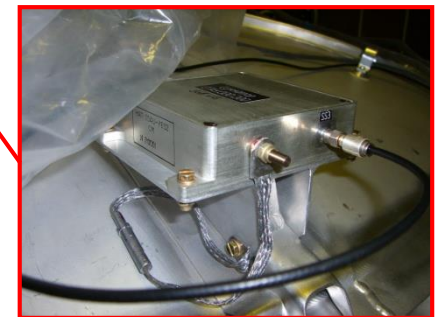
Electronic unit



Navigating antenna



Navigating antenna



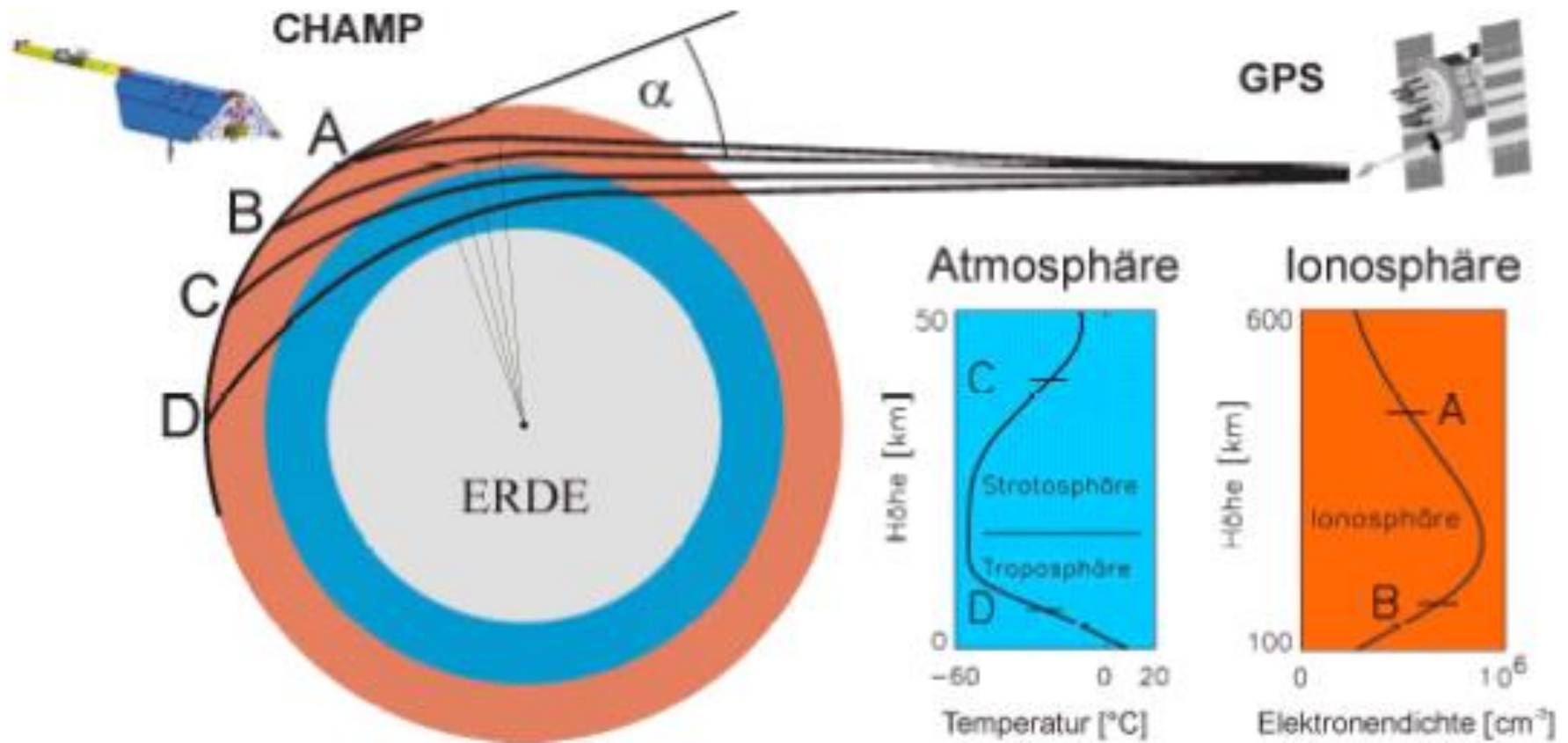
Summator of navigating signals





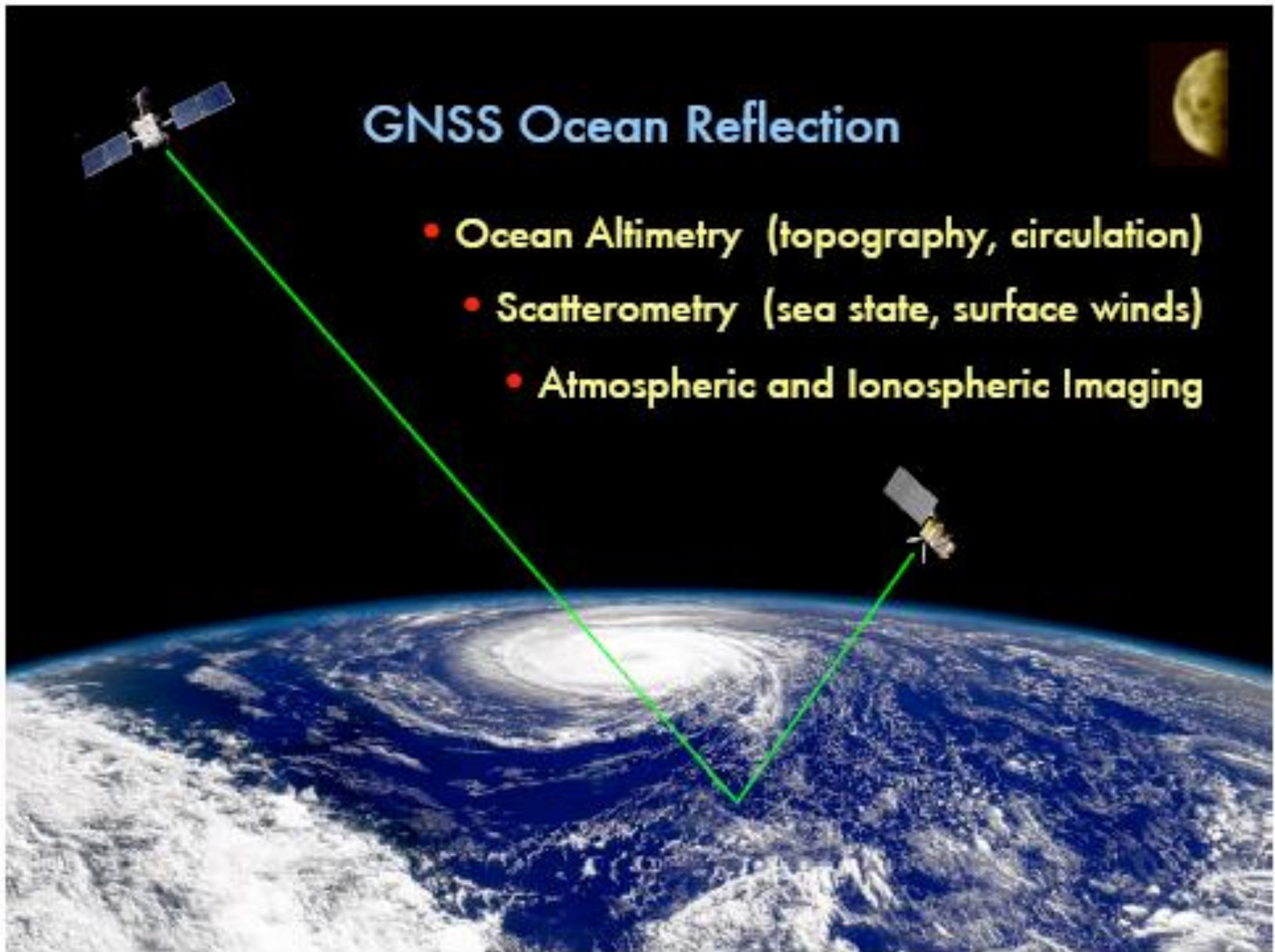
Satellite radio navigation as the method for research of geophysical fields

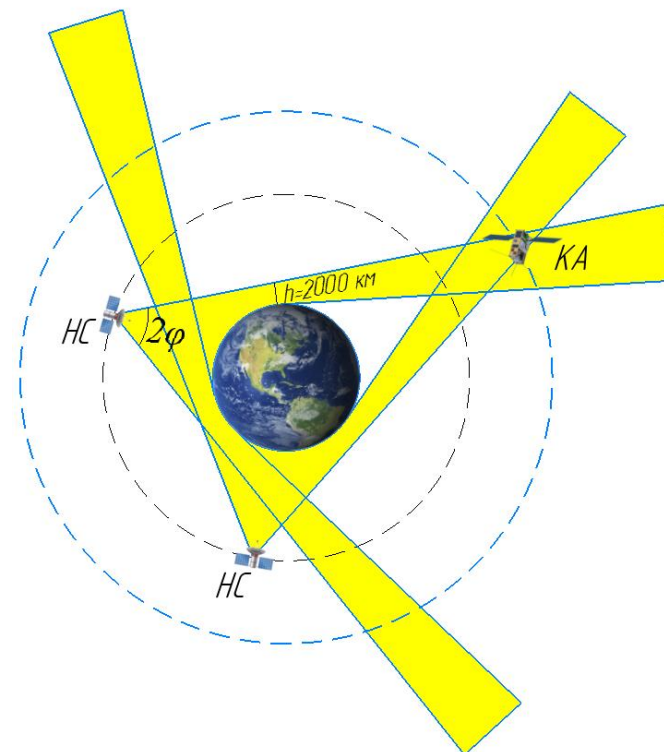
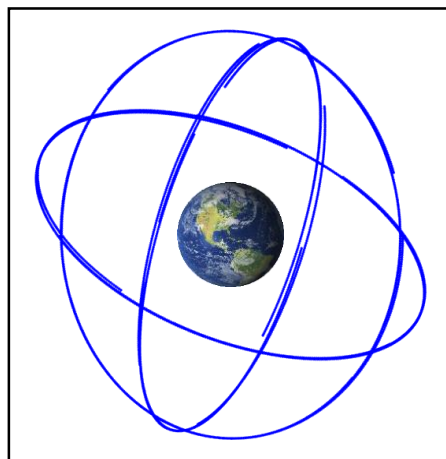
1. Navigational receiver can use as sensor for monitoring of geophysical fields

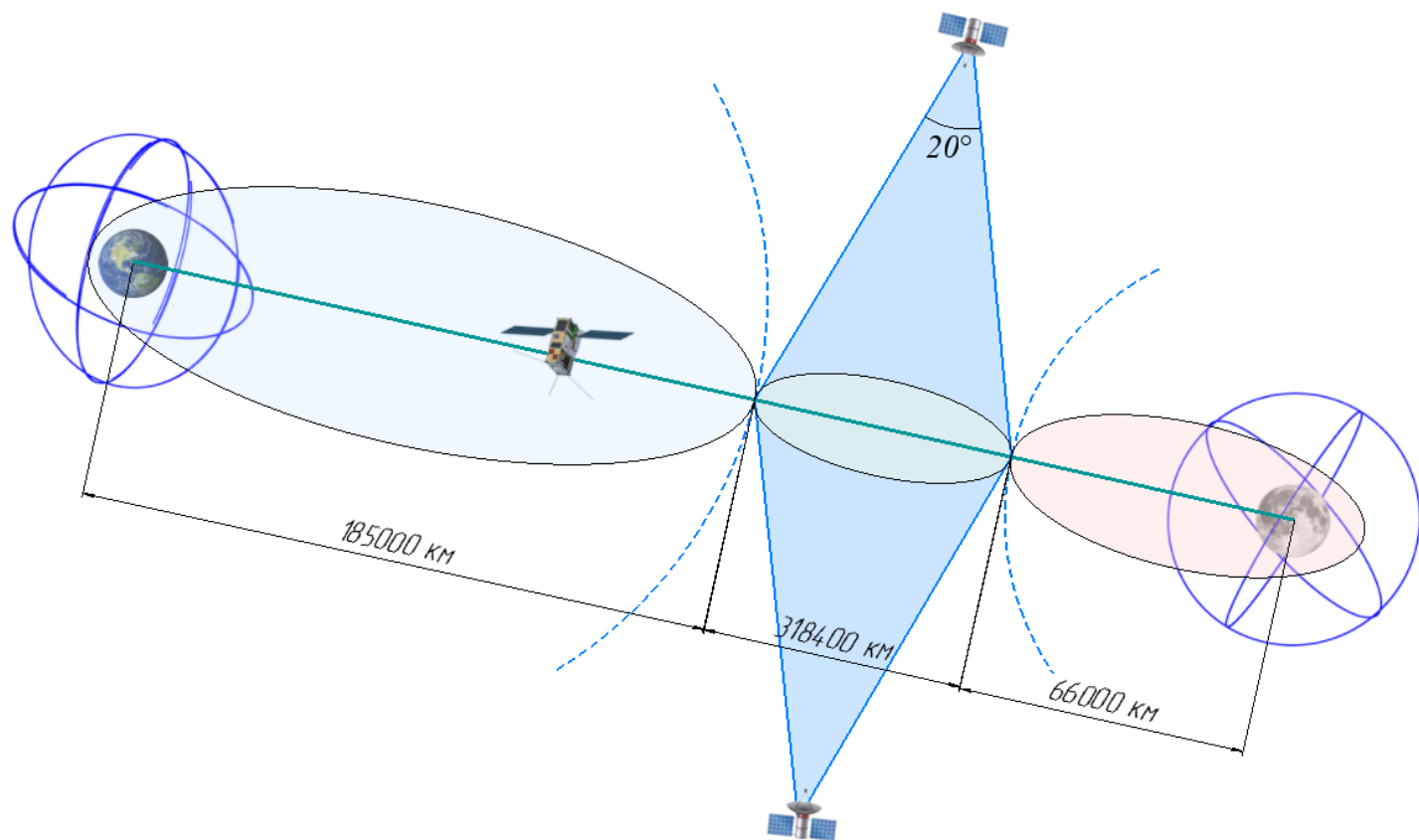




2. Navigational receiver can use for Earth radiolocation

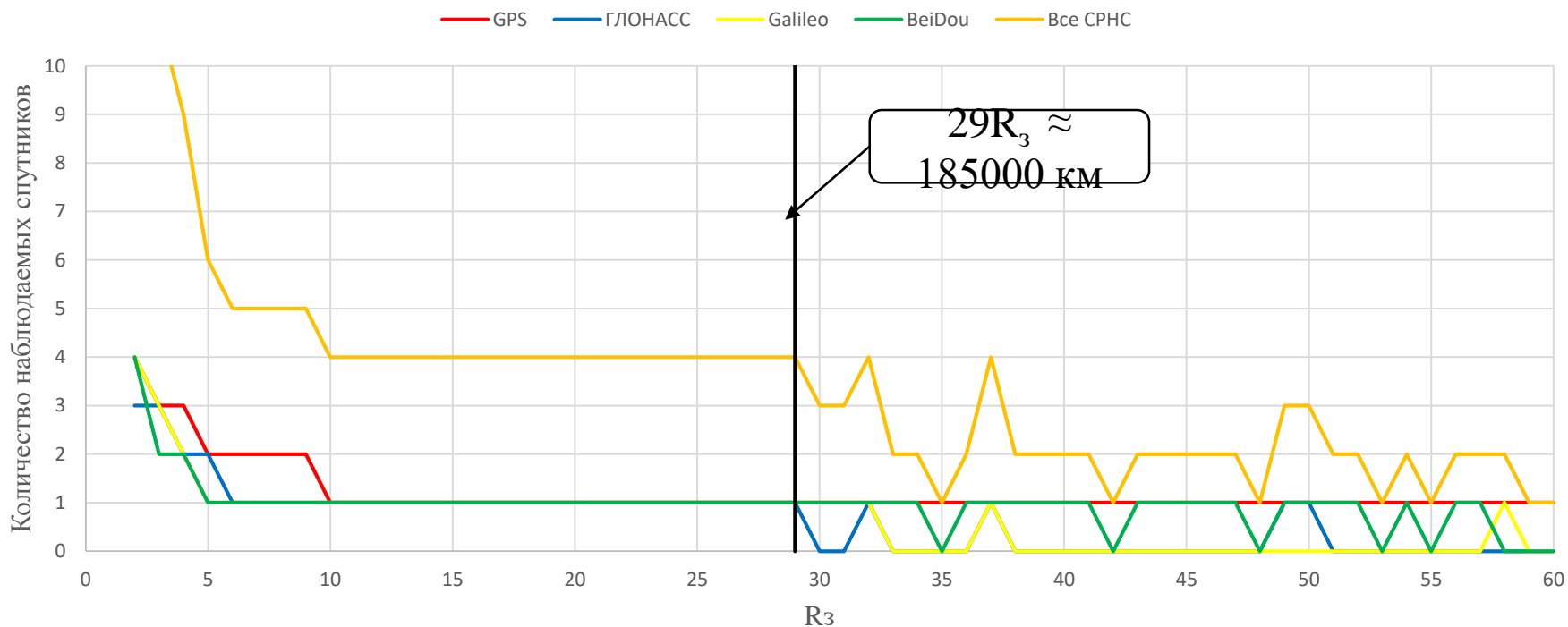








Number of visible navigating satellites in dependence on distance between Earth and spacecraft





GDOP – this is the coefficient of deterioration of the accuracy of determining the spatial coordinates and velocity in comparison with the accuracy of measuring the range and its first derivative

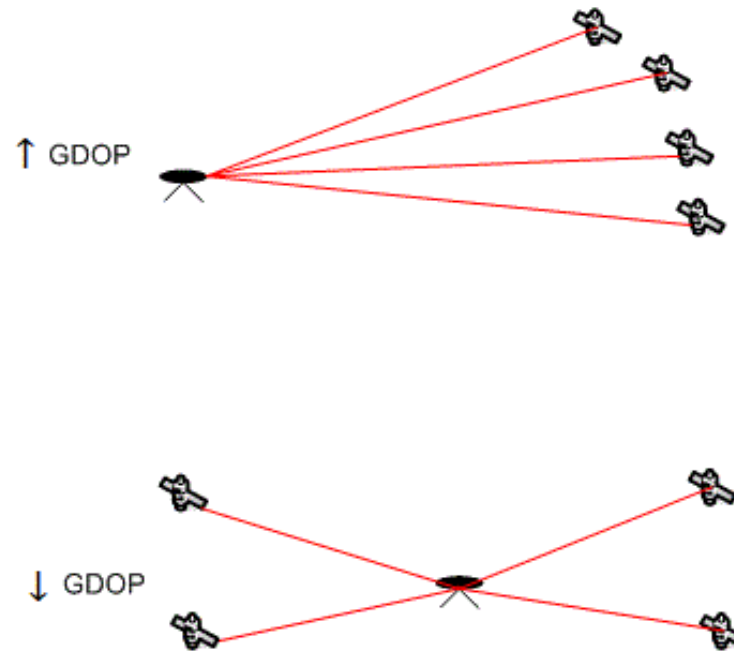
$$D_1 = \sqrt{(x - x_1)^2 + (y - y_1)^2 + (z - z_1)^2}$$

$$D_2 = \sqrt{(x - x_2)^2 + (y - y_2)^2 + (z - z_2)^2}$$

$$D_3 = \sqrt{(x - x_3)^2 + (y - y_3)^2 + (z - z_3)^2}$$

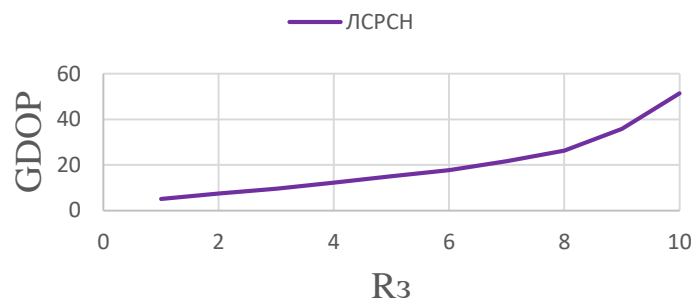
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial D_1}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial D_1}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial D_1}{\partial z} \\ \frac{\partial D_2}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial D_2}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial D_2}{\partial z} \\ \frac{\partial D_3}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial D_3}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial D_3}{\partial z} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots \end{bmatrix}$$

$$GDOP = \sqrt{Sp[(A^T \times A)^{-1}]}$$

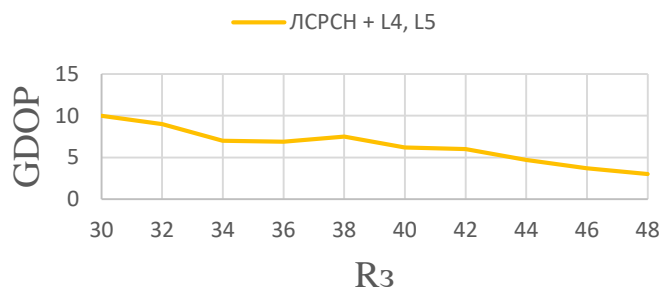




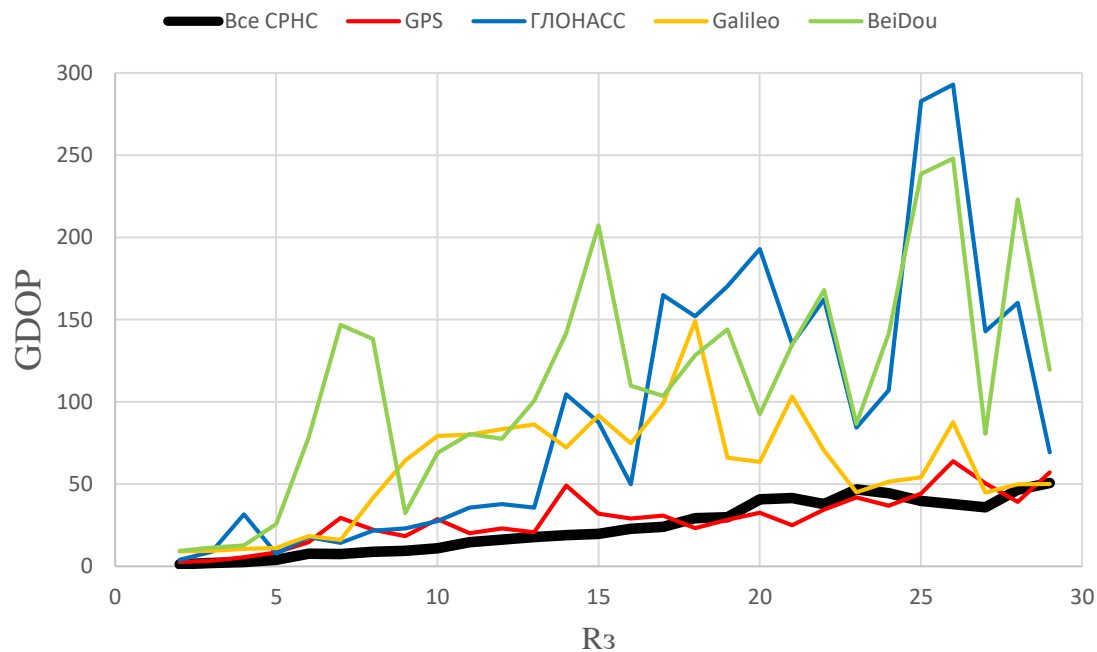
Геометрический фактор окололунной СРНС



Геометрический фактор ЛСРЧН + L4, L5



Геометрический фактор околоземных СРНС





Thank you for attention