







Orbit determination techniques for Resident Space Object catalog maintenance

Training Meeting NG-Croce

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Radiotelescopi di Medicina

IRA - Bologna



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Outline

- RSO Catalogs
- Orbit determination problem
- Typical measurements
- Minimum set of measurements
- Initial Orbit Determination
 - Gauss' method
 - Effect of uncertainties
- Precise Orbit Determination
 - Least-square problem
 - Kalman filter









Resident Space Objects Catalogs

A catalog of resident space objects (RSOs) typically includes detailed information about artificial objects orbiting Earth.

Common elements found in such a catalog:

- **Object Name**: Common name or designation (e.g., Hubble Space Telescope, COSMOS 2251).
- International Designator: A standardized code that includes the launch year, launch number, and piece identifier (e.g., 1998-067A).
- NORAD Catalog Number: Unique number assigned by the North American Aerospace Defense Command.
- **Object Type**: Classification such as satellite, rocket body, debris, or payload.
- Owner/Operator: Country or organization responsible for the object.
- Launch Date: Date the object was placed into orbit.
- Launch Vehicle: The rocket used to deploy the object.
- Orbit Type: General classification (e.g., LEO Low Earth Orbit, MEO Medium Earth Orbit, GEO Geostationary Orbit, HEO Highly Elliptical Orbit).
- Current Status: Active, inactive, decayed, or unknown.
- Radar Cross Section (RCS): Estimate of size or detectability by radar.
- **Decay Date**: If applicable, the date the object re-entered Earth's atmosphere.
- Mission or Function: Intended use or mission purpose (e.g., communications, Earth observation, scientific research).
- Tracking Information: Most recent TLE (Two-Line Element set) or ephemeris data for object tracking.









Resident Space Objects Catalogs

A catalog of resident space objects (RSOs) serves multiple critical functions in space operations, safety, and policy.

- **Collision Avoidance**: Enables satellite operators to predict and prevent potential collisions (conjunctions) between satellites or with debris.
- Orbital Traffic Management: Assists space agencies and private companies in planning satellite launches and maneuvers to avoid overcrowding or unsafe orbital paths.
- Tracking Space Debris: Identifies and monitors debris objects to assess risks and develop mitigation strategies.
- **Re-entry Prediction**: Supports the forecasting of when and where objects will re-enter Earth's atmosphere, important for safety and risk assessment.
- Anomaly Investigation: Helps investigate unexpected satellite behavior, such as loss of contact or damage, by analyzing nearby RSOs.
- **Research and Analysis**: Provides data for scientific studies on orbital mechanics, long-term space sustainability, and debris population growth.
- Historical Recordkeeping: Maintains a database of past and present objects for archival, forensic, and legal purposes.









Resident Space Objects Catalogs Maintenance

RSO Catalogs Are Updated:

- **1.Detection**: Sensors detect new objects or movements (e.g., from launches, breakups, or maneuvers).
- **2.Identification**: Analysts determine whether it's a new object, a known one with updated data, or a fragmentation/debris piece.
- **3.Orbit Determination**: Orbital elements are calculated, often using the **TLE (Two-Line Element)** format for public distribution.
- **4.Tracking**: Multiple observations are used to refine the orbit using radar, optical telescopes, and infrared sensors.
- **5.Catalog Entry or Update**: The catalog is updated with the new object's details, or the trajectory of an existing object is revised.









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- Orbit determination consists in computing the state of an orbiting object at a given epoch starting from a set of measurements
 - Compute the orbit of an newly discovered asteroid observed with a telescope
 - Compute the position and velocity of a spacecraft using measurements obtained by Earth-based systems or on-board sensors









Orbit Determination Problem

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All missions require spacecraft navigation and orbit determination









Orbit Determination Problem

□ Do we actually know exactly where a spacecraft is?









- Do we actually know exactly where a spacecraft is?
- □ No, there are many sources of error
 - Modeling errors
 - Launch errors
 - Spacecraft performance
 - Observation errors











- Do we actually know exactly where a spacecraft is?
- No, there are many sources of error
 - Modeling errors
 - Launch errors
 - Spacecraft performance
 - Observation errors
- The set of possible positions of the spacecraft is usually described by the mean state and the covariance matrix C











- Orbit determination objective: estimating the mean and covariance describing the state of the object
 - Be careful: mean and covariance are not always the best choice













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- What is the accuracy level we need on the knowledge of the spacecraft state?
- □ For most situations in spacecraft navigation:
 - Positions: meter level accuracy
 - Velocities: m/s accuracy









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- □ For most situations in spacecraft navigation:
 - Positions: meter level accuracy
 - Velocities: m/s accuracy
- □ For relative navigation:
 - Positions: cm level accuracy
 - Velocities: cm/s accuracy







Typical Measurements









Typical Measurements

□ What are the possible measurements to estimate spacecraft position?

Ground measurements

- Optical observations with telescopes:
 - **\square** Right ascension α
 - Declination δ













Typical Measurements











Typical Measurements

Typical optical observation of an Earth-orbiting spacecraft



Identify the tracklet









Typical Measurements



- Identify the tracklet
- Matches observed stars with catalogue









Typical Measurements



- Identify the tracklet
- Matches observed stars with catalogue
- Retrieve observables of catalogued stars









Typical Measurements



- Identify the tracklet
- Matches observed stars with catalogue
- Retrieve observables of catalogued stars
- Compute observables of the spacecraft w.r.t. catalogued stars









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Ground measurements

- Radar observations with radar antenna:
 - Range ρ Doppler shift $range rate \dot{\rho}$













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Typical Measurements

Typical radar observation of an Earth-orbiting spacecraft

Range

Doppler











Typical Measurements

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Differential One-Way Ranging (DOR):

deep-space spacecraft













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 Δt







 α



Typical Measurements

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Differential One-Way Ranging (DOR):







Delta-DOR: obtained by correcting DOR with simultaneous tracking of radio signals from a quasar

 Δt









Typical Measurements

□ What are the possible measurements to estimate spacecraft position?

Onboard measurements

Accelerations









Typical Measurements











Typical Measurements











Typical Measurements











Typical Measurements











Typical Measurements

□ What are the possible measurements to estimate spacecraft position?












- Box many measurements do we need to estimate spacecraft state $\vec{x} = {\vec{r}, \vec{v}}$?
- **\Box** Consider one optical observation: α and δ
 - given the position vector of the spacecraft w.r.t. the observer in the inertial reference frame (x, y, z)

$$\begin{cases} \alpha = \mathrm{atan} \frac{y}{x} \\ \delta = \mathrm{atan} \frac{z}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} \end{cases}$$











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2 equations with 6 unknowns cannot be solved











Minimum Set of Measurements

How many measurements do we need to estimate spacecraft state \$\vec{x} = \{\vec{r}, \vec{v}\}\$?
 Idea: consider 3 optical observations at 3 different epochs











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Measurements

- As the unknowns are 6 (position and velocity vectors) the problem could be:
 - 1. underdetermined if the number of linearly independent measurements is < 6
 - 2. well posed if the number of linearly independent measurements is = 6
 - 3. overdetermined if the number of linearly independent measurements is > 6









Measurements

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 - 1. underdetermined if the number of linearly independent measurements is < 6
 - 2. well posed if the number of linearly independent measurements is = 6
 - 3. overdetermined if the number of linearly independent measurements is > 6
- Associated to each case we have:
 - 1. infinite solutions, i.e. the problem cannot be solved
 - 2. one solution (or multiple solutions that can be reduced to one)
 - 3. the solution is the best solution that better fits all the measurements (least square method)









Orbit Determination Sequence

- Orbit determination is split in two phases
 - Initial orbit determination: is the process of determining an initial orbit
 - It is possible when the number of independent measurements is equal to the unknowns (i.e., 6)
 - It requires the solution of a set of nonlinear equations (usually an iterative procedure as Newton's method)
 - It asks for an initial guess or a way to discern from different solutions









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 - It asks for an initial guess or a way to discern from different solutions
 - Orbit determination refinement: it is the process of updating the solution exploiting new measurements
 - An initial orbit is necessary
 - The best estimation is obtained by solving a least square problem
 - The covariance on the measurements are mapped in the state vector space



Orbit Determination









- Basic idea: given three observations and associated observables
 - **□** Find a first guess for the spacecraft state at one observation epoch
 - Propagate the state to the epochs of the remaining observations
 - Compute the predicted observables and the defects w.r.t. the true observables
 - Correct the spacecraft state to cancel the defects











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Dynamical Model

- As the measurements are performed at different epochs a function to compute the evolution of the state vector is necessary
 - Find the solution of a set of ordinary differential equations

$$\ddot{m{r}}=-rac{\mu}{r^3}m{r}+m{a}_d$$









Dynamical Model

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- \square In the case of an Earth-orbiting spacecraft a_d can include
 - Earth's gravitational harmonics
 - atmospheric drag
 - solar radiation pressure
 - third-body effect
- The solution can be found only using numerical integrators
- In initial orbit determination a two-body approximation is considered









Gauss's Method: Some History

- Gauss's method was derived for the "recovery" of the dwarf planet Ceres (1801):
 - Ceres orbit is between Mars and Jupiter in the main asteroid belt
 - Ceres was discovered by Father Giuseppe Piazzi 1801
 - Initially classified as a planet and later demoted an asteroid
 - Upgraded a dwarf planet in 2006, along with Pluto (downgraded)











Gauss's Method: Facts

- □ Gauss's method:
 - is a method for initial orbit determination when three observations with telescopes are available (3 sets of right ascensions and declinations)
 - assumes two-body dynamics
 - exploits truncated Lagrangian expansions to determine a first guess solution at the epoch of the second observation
 - iterates using Kepler's dynamics until the three sets of observations are exactly satisfied in the two-body framework

After more than 200 years it is the baseline for initial orbit determination of celestial bodies and spacecraft









Effect of Uncertainties

- When it converges the Gauss method delivers a solution that exactly fits the observations in the two-body approximation
 - The observations are not exact, each measurement is affected by errors usually modeled with normal distributions
 - Dynamical perturbations deviate the object's path from two-body solution



Where is the star?









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Effect of Uncertainties

• Example: Apophis encounter with Earth in April 2029











Effect of Uncertainties

• Example: Apophis encounter with Earth in April 2029





Precise Orbit Determination









Precise Orbit Determination

□ As time goes on, several measurements become available (> 6)











Precise Orbit Determination

□ As time goes on, several measurements become available (> 6)

The spacecraft state is found by fitting the measurements by solving a least-square problem











```
Problem statement: given \mathbf{X} = (\vec{r_0}, \vec{v_0})
```











```
Problem statement: given \mathbf{X} = (\vec{r_0}, \vec{v_0})
```



> Find
$$\mathbf{X}_0$$
 that minimises $J = 1/2 oldsymbol{\epsilon}^T oldsymbol{\epsilon}$, vector of all errors









- **Problem statement:** given $\mathbf{X} = (\vec{r_0}, \vec{v_0})$
 - **Dynamics:** $\dot{\mathbf{X}} = F(\mathbf{X}, t), \quad \mathbf{X}(t_0) = \mathbf{X}_0$
 - Measurements: $\mathbf{Y}_i = G(\mathbf{X}_i, t_i) + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i; \quad i = 1, \dots, \ell$

Example:

- Dynamics: $\ddot{\mathbf{r}} = -\frac{\mu \mathbf{r}}{r^3}$
- Measurements:

$$\rho = \left[(X - X_{\rm S})^2 + (Y - Y_{\rm S})^2 \right]^{1/2} = G(\mathbf{X}_i, t_i)$$











- Linearize the equations
 - **Define the displacements:** $\mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{X}(t) \mathbf{X}^*(t), \quad \mathbf{y}(t) = \mathbf{Y}(t) \mathbf{Y}^*(t)$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \begin{cases} \dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = A(t)\mathbf{x}(t) & \mathbf{x}(t_0) = \mathbf{x}_0 \\ \mathbf{y}_i = \widetilde{H}_i \mathbf{x}_i + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i & (i = 1, \dots, \ell) \end{cases}$$
with $A(t) = \left[\frac{\partial F(t)}{\partial \mathbf{X}(t)}\right]^* \quad \widetilde{H}_i = \left[\frac{\partial G}{\partial \mathbf{X}}\right]_i^*$

D Manipulate the dynamics to relate \mathbf{x}_i equations to \mathbf{x}_0 :

$$\mathbf{x}_i = \Phi(t_i, t_0) \mathbf{x}_0$$









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State Transition Matrix









□ Let's go back to the original problem:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = A(t)\mathbf{x}(t) & \mathbf{x}(t_0) = \mathbf{x}_0 \implies \mathbf{x}_i = \Phi(t_i, t_0)\mathbf{x}_0 \\ \mathbf{y}_i = \widetilde{H}_i\mathbf{x}_i + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_i & (i = 1, \dots, \ell) \end{cases}$$








Least-square Problem

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Measurements equations are now:

$$\mathbf{y}_1 = \widetilde{H}_1 \Phi(t_1, t_0) \mathbf{x}_0 + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_1$$

 $\mathbf{y}_2 = \widetilde{H}_2 \Phi(t_2, t_0) \mathbf{x}_0 + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_2$

$$\mathbf{y}_{\ell} = \widetilde{H}_{\ell} \Phi(t_{\ell}, t_0) \mathbf{x}_0 + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\ell}$$

Define:

$$\mathbf{y} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_\ell \end{bmatrix}; \quad H \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \widetilde{H}_1 \Phi(t_1, t_0) \\ \vdots \\ \widetilde{H}_\ell \Phi(t_\ell, t_0) \end{bmatrix}; \quad \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \vdots \\ \epsilon_\ell \end{bmatrix}$$

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Least-square Problem

Rewrite measurements equations in matrix form:

$$\mathbf{y} = H \mathbf{x}_0 + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$$
 (1)
We can now find \mathbf{x}_0 that minimizes $J(\mathbf{x}_0) = \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^T \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$

c From (1) we have $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} = \mathbf{y} - H \mathbf{x}_0$

0









Least-square Problem

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \mathbf{x}_0} = 0 \quad \Box > -(\mathbf{y} - H \,\mathbf{x}_0)^T \, H = -H^T \, (\mathbf{y} - H \,\mathbf{x}_0) = 0$$

 \Box Thus, the best estimate of \mathbf{x}_0 is: $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_0 = (H^T H)^{-1} H^T \mathbf{y}$

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_0 = (ec{r}_0, ec{v}_0)$$









Least-square Problem

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NOTE 1: An estimate of the uncertainty P_0 associated to $\mathbf{x_0}$ can also be computed











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NOTE 1: An estimate of the uncertainty P_0 associated to \mathbf{x}_0 can also be computed NOTE 2 : The same procedure applies if we want to obtain the estimate at any measurement epocht_k P_k (\vec{r}_k, \vec{v}_k) $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_k = (H^T H)^{-1} H^T \mathbf{y}$

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Least-square Problem

- The previous procedure relies on the linearisation of the dynamics and of the measurements equation
 - What if the system is nonlinear?









Least-square Problem

The previous procedure relies on the linearisation of the dynamics and of the measurements equation

What if the system is nonlinear?

 $\mathbf{X}(t)$

 (t_0)



t









Least-square Problem

The previous procedure relies on the linearisation of the dynamics and of the measurements equation What if the system is nonlinear? iterate ---- $\mathbf{X}(t)$ (t_0) measurements Credits: Brandon A. Jones









Least-square Problem

The previous procedure relies on the linearisation of the dynamics and of the measurements equation What if the system is nonlinear? iterate $\mathbf{X}(t)$ $\mathbf{X}(t_0$ predicted measurements Credits: Brandon A. Jones









Least-square Problem

The previous procedure relies on the linearisation of the dynamics and of the measurements equation What if the system is nonlinear? iterate $\mathbf{X}(t)$ $\mathbf{X}^{*}(t)$ $\hat{\mathbf{X}}^{*}(t_{0}) + \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_{0})^{(1)}$ $\mathbf{X}(t_0)$

Credits: Brandon A. Jones









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The previous procedure relies on the linearisation of the dynamics and of the measurements equation What if the system is nonlinear? iterate $\mathbf{X}(t)$ $\mathbf{X}(t_0)$ tn) Credits: Brandon A. Jones









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Least-square Problem

□ Weighted least-square:

Sometimes we want to give "preference" among measurements











Least-square Problem

□ Weighted least-square:

Sometimes we want to give "preference" among measurements











Least-square Problem

Weighted least-square:

Sometimes we want to give "preference" among measurements

• Minimize: $J(\mathbf{x}_k) = 1/2 \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^T W \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$

Results: the best estimate is

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_k = (H^T W H)^{-1} H^T W \mathbf{y}$$

14/05/2025









- Assume we have an initial estimate of mean and covariance
 - Kalman filter processes the measurements one by one as they arrive
- \square E.g., consider the measurements acquired at t_1
 - > How can we updated the knowledge of the mean and covariance at t_1 ?











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Kalman Filter



 \mathbf{y}_k

























































Conclusions









Conclusions

If no estimates are already available













Conclusions Initial orbit determination □ If no estimates are already available Least-squares method □ If an estimated state is already available ****** $(lpha_1,\delta_1)$ (α_i, δ_i) $(lpha_2,\delta_2)$ $(ec{r_0},ec{v_0})$









Conclusions Initial orbit determination □ If no estimates are already available Least-squares method □ If an estimated state is already available □ If an estimated mean and covariance is Kalman filter already available P_0 ¥..... t_1 $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_0 = (ec{r}_0, ec{v}_0)$



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