PRELIMINARY ORBIT DETERMINATION OF ARTIFICIAL EARTH SATELLITES FROM A SMALL NUMBER OF ANGLE-ONLY OBSERVATIONS

Barry W. Bryant, et al

Massachusetts Institute of Technology

Prepared for:

Advanced Research Projects Agency
Electronic Systems Division

9 January 1973

DISTRIBUTED BY:

NTIS
National Technical Information Service
U. S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
5285 Port Royal Road, Springfield Va. 22151
Technical Note

Preliminary Orbit Determination of Artificial Earth Satellites from a Small Number of Angle-Only Observations

Prepared for the Advanced Research Projects Agency under Electronic Systems Division Contract F19628-73-C-0002 by

Lincoln Laboratory
MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY
LEXINGTON, MASSACHUSETTS

B. W. Bryant
D. M. Edwards

9 January 1973
**Title**: Preliminary Orbit Determination of Artificial Earth Satellites from a Small Number of Angle-Only Observations

**Authors**: Bryant, Barry W. and Edwards, Donna M.

**Date**: 9 January 1973

**Contract or Grant No.**: F19628-73-C-0082

**Project No.**: ARPA Order 600

**Availability/Limitation Notice**: Approved for public release; distribution unlimited.

**Abstract**

The problem of determining the preliminary orbital elements of a previously unobserved earth satellite from a minimum number of angle-only observations has been investigated.

The Planetary Ephemeris Program (PEP) was used to generate exact ephemerides (of selected orbits) which were then used as input to an angle-only tracking algorithm derived from the method of Gauss. This algorithm yields the approximate orbital elements under the assumption of Keplerian motion. Comparison of these elements with the ones assumed in PEP has indicated that the Keplerian approximation improves considerably as the unknown satellite altitude is increased from 1/4 to 3 times synchronous, and that such a tracking algorithm would be useful in many practical situations where one is constrained to a few angle-only observations.

Estimates are given of the accuracy needed in the input data to insure reasonable success in this method of preliminary orbit determination.

**Keywords**

orbit determination  
earth satellite  
PEP (planetary ephemeris program)
PRELIMINARY ORBIT DETERMINATION OF ARTIFICIAL
EARTH SATELLITES FROM A SMALL NUMBER
OF ANGLE-ONLY OBSERVATIONS

B. W. BRYANT
D. M. EDWARDS

Group 53

TECHNICAL NOTE 1973-5

9 JANUARY 1973

Approved for public release. Distribution unlimited.
The work reported in this document was performed at Lincoln Laboratory, a center for research operated by Massachusetts Institute of Technology. This work was sponsored by the Advanced Research Projects Agency of the Department of Defense under Air Force Contract F19628-73-C-0002 (ARPA Order 600).

This report may be reproduced to satisfy needs of U.S. Government agencies.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract iii
Preface v
I. Introduction 1
II. The Method of Gauss 6
III. Calculation of the Elements 17
IV. Discussion of Results and Conclusions 24
Acknowledgment 29
References 29
Appendix 31
PREFACE

This report represents work carried out in the Spring of 1972 to determine whether or not it is possible to track one earth satellite from another, given the spatial coordinates of the observing satellite and the angular coordinates of the observed at specified times. The present study is not intended to be exhaustive, but rather is intended to establish the feasibility of preliminary earth satellite orbit determination from a small number of angle-only observations.

The difficult and important questions of detection and discrimination against the celestial background will not be discussed. It will be assumed that these difficulties can be surmounted and that the necessary observations can be made.

To make the problem tractable, we have chosen a few simple examples of orbit configurations which were studied in some detail. The Planetary Ephemeris Program $^1$ (PEP) has been particularly useful in generating the ephemerides needed in the method of preliminary orbit determination. This extensive computer program integrates the motion, and the partial derivatives of the motion over many orbital periods about a non-spherical Earth; also, it takes into account various other perturbations and with subsequent least squares analyses leads
to a maximum likelihood orbit determination. The object of this study is to determine the osculating orbital elements from limited amounts (less than one period) of angle-only data and to compare these with the values assumed in the general PEP calculations.

Historically, the problem of finding the orbit of a satellite from a limited number of angle-only observations is very interesting. The following brief account will serve as an illustration. On January 1, 1801, Piazzi discovered the asteroid, Ceres, after which he soon became ill and had to cease his observations. The asteroid thereafter moved near the sun where all observations became impossible. It was feared that the minor planet would be lost. The methods of Laplace and Lagrange lacked the required precision to locate such an object months after its first observation. It remained for Gauss to work out a method, later completely revised and generalized\(^2\), which allowed the rediscovery of Ceres on the night of December 7, 1801 by DeZach. It is Gauss' revised method which we have used to determine the approximate orbital elements. A detailed discussion of it is given for reference and for completeness. A computer program based on this method was written by one of the authors (DME) in order to carry out the necessary computations.
It has been assumed throughout that it is not practical to follow a given satellite over more than a fraction of its period. This is a basic constraint of the problem; otherwise PEP or some similar procedure could be applied directly without resort to the intermediate step of preliminary orbit determination. It is to be understood that once a preliminary orbit has been determined, refined methods can then be employed on subsequent observations (which are not necessarily contiguous in time but which can be unambiguously associated with that orbit) to arrive at a precise orbit.
I. INTRODUCTION

The problem of accurately predicting the position of a body in its orbit based on a minimum number of observations is, in general, insoluble analytically. In many cases a two-body approximation is unrealistic. For example, to analyze the motions within a star cluster, the theory of General Perturbations (numerical integration) would have to be applied. On the other hand, most Solar System problems like the Earth-satellite problem, can be handled by the techniques of Special Perturbations. Here one assumes that the force function is of the form $U + R$ where $U$ represents the two-body approximation and $R$ the disturbing function. In general, the contributions from $R$ must be small compared to $U$. Unfortunately, to employ either technique one needs either many observations covering at least one period or, equivalently, the elements of the osculating orbit. Assuming that this is not the case, one is forced to neglect all perturbations and assume simple Keplerian motion. Hopefully the two-body approximation will at least yield enough precision to enable future observations to be made.

Six elements uniquely define an orbit and the position of the body describing the orbit. Three of these define the orientation in space, two of them define the size and shape of the orbit and the sixth will give the position of the body within
the orbit. In the classical case of a planet in an elliptical 
orbit about the Sun, the elements are defined with respect to 
the ecliptic and the First Point of Aries. See Figure 1. 
Briefly, the six elements are: the semi-major axis, $a$; the 
eccentricity, $e$; the inclination of the plane of the orbit to 
the plane of the ecliptic, $i$; the angle that the major axis 
makes with the line of nodes (the longitude of perihelion), $\lambda$; 
the angle that the line of nodes makes with the line from the 
Sun to the vernal equinox, (the longitude of the ascending 
node), $\Omega$; and the time of perihelion passage, $\tau$. Six elements 
have to be found; hence, three observations of the body's right 
ascension, and declination at three different times constitute 
the minimum data for orbit determination.

From this preliminary orbit it is possible to compile a 
table of predicted positions, an ephemeris, to be used for 
tracking the body so that future observations may be made. 
Additional observations would then be used presumably, to 
improve the orbit. There are many ways to accomplish this and 
only the basic ideas will be presented here.

Assume the elements of the preliminary orbit, $\alpha_i$, $i = 1, \ldots, 6$ 
have been calculated for a geocentric satellite. Because all 
possible perturbations were neglected, these elements are not 
the elements of the actual orbit. Hence, any observed quantity 
$\beta$ where
Fig. 1. The orientation of an orbit in space. In the earth satellite case, the plane of the earth's equator replaces the ecliptic.
\[ \phi = \phi(q_1, q_i, t) \quad i = 1, \ldots, 6 \]

and the \(q_i\)'s are the six elements of the Earth's orbit, will differ from the predicted quantities \(\phi_p\) at a given time. The \(\phi\)'s may be observations of the right ascension and declination \((\alpha, \delta)\), the geocentric co-ordinates \((x, y, z)\) or the velocity components \((x, y, z)\), etc. Assuming the preliminary orbit was reasonably close to the actual one, the change in the orbital elements \(\Delta q_i\) will be slight. The change in \(\phi\) will be

\[
\Delta \phi = \sum_{i=1}^{6} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial q_i} \Delta q_i.
\]

Then if we let the difference between the observed quantity and the predicted quantity be

\[
\Delta t = t_o - t_p
\]

we have,

\[
\Delta t_j = (t_o - t_p)_j = \left( \sum_{i=1}^{6} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial q_i} \right)_j \Delta q_i \quad j = 1, \ldots, n
\]

where the subscript \(j\) means the quantity was observed or predicted at time \(t_j\).

If \(n = 6\), the problem is a straightforward one of six equations in six unknowns. If \(n > 6\), then the equations can be
solved by least squares or a similar technique. In either case the $\Delta \sigma_i$ can then be added to the $\sigma_i$ to yield "improved" values of the orbital elements. Theoretically, the process can be carried out for all sets of future observations. If and only if the osculating elements are reasonably accurate can we hope to continually improve the orbital predictions.
II. THE METHOD OF GAUSS

Several methods have been developed to solve the problem of preliminary orbit determination. Needless to say, until the advent of high speed computers the orbits so determined were hardly to be considered preliminary. The basic methods of Laplace, of Lagrange and of Gauss are probably the most useful. The first two methods have been neglected in favor of Gauss' technique since the latter makes no assumptions about the time between observations and readily lends itself to an iterative procedure.

Let (x, y, z) denote a geocentric rectangular equatorial coordinate system as in Figure 2; the x-axis is directed towards the First Point of Aries. Let (ξ, η, ζ) be a parallel coordinate system centered on the Hunter satellite, H, then the unit vector \( \hat{u} \) defining the Hunted satellite in the Hunter satellite reference system is

\[
\hat{u} = (\cos \alpha \cos \delta) \hat{i} + (\sin \alpha \cos \delta) \hat{j} + \sin \delta \hat{k}
\]

where \( \hat{i}, \hat{j}, \) and \( \hat{k} \) are unit vectors along the \( \xi, \eta, \zeta \) axes respectively and \( (\alpha_i, \delta_i) \), \( i = 1, 3 \) are the three observations of the observed satellite, h, from the observing satellite, H. From Figure 2 we see that

\[
\hat{r}_i = \theta_i \hat{u}_i - \hat{R} \quad (1)
\]
Fig. 2. The vector relationships resulting from a hunter satellite centered coordinate system.
where \( R = (X,Y,Z) \) is the position of the Earth as seen from the
Hunter satellite and \( \rho \) is the distance to the observed satellite.
We must assume that the equatorial coordinates of the Earth are
known accurately at each of the three observation times.

Since we are assuming Keplerian motion we know that the
motion takes place in a plane; hence, one of the unknown radius
vectors may be written as a linear combination of the other two.
We have

\[
\mathbf{r}_2 = c_1 \mathbf{r}_1 + c_3 \mathbf{r}_3
\]

(2)

where the coefficients \( c_1, c_3 \) are the so called triangle ratios.
If \( c_1 \) and \( c_3 \) are known, then substitution of equation (1) into
equation (2) furnishes, in component form, three linearly
independent equations in the unknowns \( \rho_1, \rho_2, \) and \( \rho_3, \) the hunter-
hunted satellite distances at the times of the observations.
Since the coefficients are unknown, we approximate then iterate.
First we note that the magnitude of the vector cross product of
any two of these radius vectors is double the area of the tri-
angle formed by the Earth and the two positions of the Hunted
satellite. See Figure 3. Hence, we can write the coefficients
as ratios of triangle areas. Taking \( \mathbf{r}_1 \) crossed with equation
(2), we have

\[
\mathbf{r}_1 \times \mathbf{r}_2 = c_3 \mathbf{r}_1 \times \mathbf{r}_3
\]

\[
c_3 = [\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2] / [\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_3]
\]

(3)
Fig. 3. The geometry of triangle - sector areas.
where the brackets denote triangle areas. Similarly by calculating \( r_2 \times r_3 \) we find for the coefficient \( c_1 \):

\[
c_1 = \frac{[r_2, r_3]}{[r_1, r_3]}. \tag{4}
\]

Let \( (r_i, r_j) \) denote the area of the sector of the ellipse bounded by the radius vectors \( r_i, r_j \) and denote the sector-triangle ratios by

\[
\bar{y}_1 = \frac{(r_2, r_3)}{[r_2, r_3]}, \quad \bar{y}_2 = \frac{(r_1, r_3)}{[r_1, r_3]}, \quad \bar{y}_3 = \frac{(r_1, r_2)}{[r_1, r_2]}.
\tag{5}
\]

Then following Gauss we can rewrite equations (3) and (4) as sector-triangle ratios:

\[
c_1 = \frac{(r_2, r_3)\bar{y}_2}{(r_1, r_3)\bar{y}_1}, \quad c_3 = \frac{(r_1, r_2)\bar{y}_2}{(r_1, r_3)\bar{y}_3}
\]

or, recalling Kepler's second law, namely that the area described by the radius vector is proportional to the time,

\[
c_1 = \frac{(t_3 - t_2)\bar{y}_2}{(t_3 - t_1)\bar{y}_1}, \quad c_3 = \frac{(t_2 - t_1)\bar{y}_2}{(t_3 - t_1)\bar{y}_3}.
\tag{6}
\]

Encke\(^3\) developed a series solution for the sector-triangle ratios; his expansion to the third order is,

\[
\bar{y} = 1 + \frac{4m}{3} - \frac{88m^2}{45} - \frac{8m^3}{5} + \frac{5312m^3}{945} + \frac{512m^2}{105} + \frac{64m}{35} + \ldots
\]

where,

\[10\]
\[ m = n \sec^3 \gamma \quad \quad i = \frac{(1 - \cos \gamma)}{2 \cos \gamma} \]

\[ n = \frac{\mu k^2 (t_j - t_i)^2}{(r_i + r_j)^3} \quad \quad \cos(f_j - f_i) = \frac{(r_i \cdot r_j)}{(r_i r_j)^{1/2}} \]

\[ \sec \gamma = \frac{r_i + r_j}{2(r_i r_j)^{1/2} \cos((f_j - f_i)/2))} \]

\[ \phi = \frac{r_i}{r_j} \]

\[ k \text{ is Gauss' constant, and } f \text{ is the true anomaly (the angle swept out by } r \text{ since the time of perigee). If we now let} \]

\[ \tau_1 = k (t_3 - t_2) \]
\[ \tau_2 = k (t_3 - t_1) \]
\[ \tau_3 = k (t_2 - t_1) \]

denote the time intervals between observations (in some appropriate units determined by \( k \)), we can express the coefficients in (6) as,

\[ c_1 = \frac{\tau_1}{\tau_2} + \frac{\tau_1}{6 \tau_2} \left[ 1 - \frac{\tau_1}{\tau_2} \right] \frac{\tau_1^2}{r_2^2} = a_1 + \frac{b_1}{r_2^2} \]

\[ c_3 = \frac{\tau_3}{\tau_2} + \frac{\tau_3}{6 \tau_2} \left[ 1 - \frac{\tau_3}{\tau_2} \right] \frac{\tau_3^2}{r_2^2} = a_3 + \frac{b_3}{r_2^2} \]

(7)

to the first order in \( m \). The coefficients \( a_1, b_1, a_3, \text{ and } b_3 \) can be calculated immediately from the input data. Substituting

---

See Appendix A
equation (1) into equation (2) we have

$$\dot{\rho}_2 \ddot{u}_2 = c_1 (\dot{\rho}_2 \ddot{u}_1 - R_1) + \dot{R}_2 + c_3 (\dot{\rho}_3 \ddot{u}_3 - R_3)$$  \hspace{1cm} (8)

then, substituting the expressions in (7) for the coefficients $c_1$, $c_3$,

$$\dot{\rho}_2 \ddot{u}_2 = \left( a_1 + \frac{b_1}{r_2^3} \right) (\dot{\rho}_2 \ddot{u}_1 - R_1) + \dot{R}_2 + \left( a_3 + \frac{b_3}{r_2^3} \right) (\dot{\rho}_3 \ddot{u}_3 - R_3).$$

Operating on this equation with ($\cdot \ddot{u}_1x_3$) yields, after a bit of arithmetic, an equation of the form:

$$\rho_2 = A + \frac{B}{r_2^3}$$  \hspace{1cm} (9)

where,

$$A = \frac{a_1 [R_1 \cdot \ddot{u}_1 x_3] - [\ddot{R}_2 \cdot \ddot{u}_1 x_3] + a_3 [R_3 \cdot \ddot{u}_1 x_3]}{[\ddot{u}_1 \cdot \ddot{u}_2 x_3]}$$  \hspace{1cm} (10)

$$B = \frac{r_1 [R_1 \cdot \ddot{u}_1 x_3] + b_3 [R_3 \cdot \ddot{u}_1 x_3]}{[\ddot{u}_1 \cdot \ddot{u}_2 x_3]}.$$

A second equation relating $\rho_2$ and $r_2$ is evident from Figure 2. By the cosine law

$$r_2^2 = \rho_2^2 + R_2^2 - 2(\rho_2 \cdot R_2).$$  \hspace{1cm} (11)
We now have two equations, (9) and (11), in two unknowns which can, theoretically, be solved for $r_2$ and $r_2'$. Any iterative procedure can be used in the solution provided a reasonable initial guess at $r_2$ can be made. Alternatively, one could form the following eighth order equation and then use Bairstow's Method or an equivalent technique to find the roots. Substituting equation (9) for $r_2$ into equation (11) yields,

$$r_2^8 - (C + AD + A^2) r_2^6 - (BD + 2AB) r_2^4 - B^2 = 0$$

where $C = R_2^2$ and $D = -2(u_2 \cdot R_2)$. If the coefficients $c_1$ and $c_3$ are exact, then this equation will have a trivial root $r_2 = R_2$ at $r_2 = 0$. In any event, one of the roots will approximate the trivial solution and either four or six of the roots will be complex. The latter case yields no solution, since the remaining real root will be negative. In the first case, then, five of the roots can be immediately disregarded. It can also be shown by considering the number of variations in sign of the coefficients that of the remaining three real roots we must have either two positive and one negative or all three negative. Again, the case of three negative roots will yield no solution. Hence, there are two 'possible' roots to this equation to be considered. In a well defined case (i.e., when Keplerian motion is a good first approximation) one of these possible roots will
be outside of any reasonable limits to the problem. In the Earth satellite case, for example, obvious limits would be the radius of the Earth and 1 A.U. (astronomical unit). Hence, in a well defined case there is but one solution and one orbit for the satellite being observed.

When a solution has been found, the coefficients $c_1$ and $c_3$ can be evaluated from equations (7). Then operating on equation (8) first with $(\mathbf{u}_2 \times \mathbf{u}_3)$ and then with $(\mathbf{u}_1 \times \mathbf{u}_2)$ we find for the other two Hunter-Hunted distances:

$$c_1 = \frac{c_1 [\mathbf{R}_1 \cdot \mathbf{u}_2 \times \mathbf{u}_3] - [\mathbf{R}_2 \cdot \mathbf{u}_2 \times \mathbf{u}_3] + c_3 [\mathbf{R}_3 \cdot \mathbf{u}_2 \times \mathbf{u}_3]}{c_1 [\mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \mathbf{u}_2 \times \mathbf{u}_3]}$$

$$c_3 = \frac{c_1 [\mathbf{R}_1 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1 \times \mathbf{u}_2] - [\mathbf{R}_2 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1 \times \mathbf{u}_2] + c_3 [\mathbf{R}_3 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1 \times \mathbf{u}_2]}{c_3 [\mathbf{u}_3 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1 \times \mathbf{u}_2]}$$

Equation (1) will then give the two radius vectors $r_1$ and $r_3$.

Because the coefficients $c_1$ and $c_3$ were determined from truncated series expressions, the solution $r_2$, $r_2$ is only approximate. Hence, the solution might be improved by iterating on the coefficients. First the observation times and the time intervals should be corrected for light time by using the relation
\[ t'_i = t_i - 0.577 \times 10^{-2} \rho_i \text{ (days)} \]

where \( \rho_i \) is the distance (A.U.) calculated in the previous iteration. The sector-triangle ratios are calculated again using Encke's series solution including second and perhaps, third order terms and using the previously calculated radius vectors \( \hat{r}_1, \hat{r}_2 \) and \( \hat{r}_3 \). The "improved" coefficients will be:

\[
c'_1 = \frac{\hat{r}'_2}{\hat{r}'_1} \\
c'_3 = \frac{\hat{r}'_2}{\hat{r}'_3}
\]

If these coefficients agree to within the desired accuracy with the previously calculated values, then the iteration may be stopped. If not, then the coefficients in equation (7) should be recalculated according to:

\[
a'_i = \frac{\gamma_i}{\gamma'_2} \\
b'_i = a'_i \left( \frac{\gamma_2}{\gamma_1} - 1 \right) r^3 \\
a'_3 = \frac{\gamma_3}{\gamma'_2} \\
b'_3 = a'_3 \left( \frac{\gamma_2}{\gamma_3} - 1 \right) r^3
\]
Equation (9) is reformed and a second solution with equation (11) is carried out. If the three observations are spread over a relatively small section of arc, then three iterations will probably prove satisfactory. With the final values of \( \rho_1 \) and \( \rho_3 \), the radius vectors \( \hat{r}_1 \) and \( \hat{r}_3 \) are calculated by equation (1) and with these the orbital elements are calculated.
III. CALCULATION OF THE ELEMENTS

Only two radius vectors and the times corresponding to these positions are needed to calculate the six orbital elements. In the heliocentric problem it is generally the ecliptic elements that are required. In that case, the radius vectors \( r_1 = (x_1, y_1, z_1) \) can be transformed by:

\[
\begin{align*}
x' &= x \\
y' &= y \cos \epsilon + z \sin \epsilon \\
z' &= -y \sin \epsilon + z \cos \epsilon
\end{align*}
\]

where \( \epsilon \) is the mean obliquity of the ecliptic. In the geocentric problem the equator is considered the fundamental reference plane; hence no transformation is required.

Let \( r_1 = (x_1, y_1, z_1) \) and \( r_3 = (x_3, y_3, z_3) \); then the equation of the plane of the orbit will be

\[ ax + by + z = 0 \]

where,

\[
\begin{align*}
a &= \frac{y_1 z_3 - y_3 z_1}{x_1 y_3 - x_3 y_1} \\
b &= \frac{z_1 x_3 - z_3 x_1}{x_1 y_3 - x_3 y_1}
\end{align*}
\]

and the equation of the line of nodes, the intersection of the orbital plane and the plane of the equator will be
ax + by = 0.

But the slope of the line of nodes is just

$$\tan \omega = -\frac{a}{b} = \frac{y_1 z_3 - y_3 z_1}{x_1 z_3 - x_3 z_1}$$

where $\omega$ is the longitude of the ascending node. See Figure 1.

The inclination of the orbital plane to the plane of the equator can be gotten from

$$|\cos i| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + a^2 + b^2}}$$

To determine the quadrants of $\omega$ and $i$, first determine if the points $(x_1, y_1)$ and $(x_3, y_3)$ are in different quadrants. If so, then the direction of motion (direct or retrograde) is apparent. If the points are in the same quadrant, then when $y_3/x_3 > y_1/x_1$ the motion is direct ($i < 90^\circ$); conversely the motion is indirect ($i > 90^\circ$). The slope of the line of nodes will indicate through which quadrants the line passes; a positive slope indicates quadrants 1 and 3, while a negative slope indicates quadrants 2 and 4. To determine which of the two quadrants contains the ascending node, it is necessary to consider the quadrant and slope of the third radius vector with respect to the line of nodes. If the motion is direct and $y_3/x_3 > \tan \omega$, 

18
the satellite will pass through the ascending node next. If the motion is indirect and \( y_3/x_3 \) is greater than \( \tan \alpha \), then the satellite will pass through the descending node before the ascending node. Thus, \( \Omega \) and \( i \) are determined. These two elements orient the orbit in space.

Using Kepler's law of areas, we have that the sector area is,

\[
2(r_1, r_3) = kp^{1/2}(t_3 - t_1)
\]

where \( p \) is the semi-lattice rectum, \( p = a(1 - e^2) \) and \( kp^{1/2}/2 \) is the magnitude of the area velocity. See Figure 4.

For the triangle area we have

\[
2[r_1, r_3] = r_1 r_3 \sin(f_3 - f_1)
\]

where \( f \) is the true anomaly. Then using the sector triangle ratio \( \bar{y}_2 \) previously calculated, we can solve for \( p \):

\[
\bar{y}_2 = \frac{(r_1, r_3)}{[r_1, r_3]}
\]

\[
p^{1/2} = \frac{r_1 r_3 \sin(f_3 - f_1)\bar{y}_2}{k(t_3 - t_1)}.
\]

To find the eccentricity, \( e \), we use the equation of a conic section, namely,
Fig. 4. The relationship between radius vector, \( r \) the semi-lattice rectum \( p \), the true anomaly \( f \), the eccentric anomaly \( E \), the semi-major axis \( a \), and the eccentricity \( e \).

\[
SR = r \cos f \\
r \cos f = a (\cos E - e) \\
e = CS/CA
\]
\[ r = \frac{p}{1 + \cos f}. \]

Setting \( q_1 = p/r_1 - 1 \), we form the first of two equations in two unknowns, \( e \) and \( f_1 \):

\[ \cos f_1 = q_1. \quad (12) \]

Similarly, \[ \cos f_3 = q_3 = p/r_3 - 1. \]

Since we can calculate the difference in anomalies from \( \cos(f_3 - f_1) = (r_1 \cdot r_3)/(r_1 r_3) \), we could rewrite \( f_3 \) as \( f_1 + (f_3 - f_1) \) and calculate \( \sin f_1 \) as follows

\[ q_3 = \cos f_1 \cos(f_3 - f_1) - \sin f_1 \sin(f_3 - f_1) \]

\[ \sin f_1 = \frac{q_1 \cos(f_3 - f_1) - q_3}{\sin(f_3 - f_1)}. \quad (13) \]

Equations (12) and (13) can then be solved simultaneously to yield \( e \) and \( f_1 \).

Having found the semi-lattice rectum and the eccentricity, we readily calculate the semi-major axis, \( a \) from the elliptical relation:

\[ p = a(1 - e^2). \]
The mean motion, \( \bar{n} \) follows directly from,

\[
\frac{3}{a^2} \bar{n}^2 = k^2 u
\]

where \( k u^{1/2} \) is just \( G \), the constant of gravitation times the sum of the mass of the Earth and the satellite.

Next we can find the argument of latitude \( u_1 = \omega + f_1 \) from the equations

\[
\sin u_1 = z_1/r_1 \sin i
\]

\[
\cos u_1 = (x_1 \cos \Omega + y_1 \sin \Omega)/r_1.
\]

Then the argument of perigee is readily obtained from

\( \omega = (u_1 - f_1) \).

One element, the time of perigee passage remains to be found. If the mean anomaly, the angle swept out by a radius vector with mean angular velocity \( \bar{n} \) in the time interval \( (t - T) \) were known, we could calculate \( T \) from the equation,

\[
M_1 = \bar{n}(t_1 - T).
\]

In order to calculate the mean anomaly, the eccentric anomaly must first be found. The true anomaly, already calculated for time \( t_1 \) and the eccentric anomaly, \( E_1 \) are related by,
\[ \tan(E_1/2) = \tan(f_1/2) \left\{ (1 - e)/(1 + e) \right\}^{1/2}. \]

In addition, from Figure 4 we see that,

\[ r_1 \cos f_1 = \cos E_1 - ae. \]

The second equation can be used to determine the quadrant of \( E_1 \). Finally, Kepler's equation relates the mean and the eccentric anomalies,

\[ M_1 = E_1 - esinE_1. \]
IV. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS & CONCLUSIONS

Two basic positions for the hunter satellite were assumed, one times (42, 164 km) and 1/4 times (10, 541 km) synchronous satellite altitude. The following orbital configurations were investigated:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hunter Satellite</th>
<th>Hunted Satellite</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) 1 sync</td>
<td>1/4 sync</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) 1/4 sync</td>
<td>1 sync</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) 1 sync</td>
<td>3 sync</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The two satellites were placed in various relative positions to each other in their respective orbits. PEP was then employed to compute the earth centered inertial coordinates of each satellite and the right ascension (R. A.) and declination (Decl.) look angles from the hunter to the hunted satellite all as a function of time. The quantities needed as input to the Gauss program are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ephemeris Time</th>
<th>R.A.</th>
<th>Decl.</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>Z</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( t_1 )</td>
<td>( a_1 )</td>
<td>( \delta_1 )</td>
<td>( X_1 )</td>
<td>( Y_1 )</td>
<td>( Z_1 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( t_2 )</td>
<td>( a_2 )</td>
<td>( \delta_2 )</td>
<td>( X_2 )</td>
<td>( Y_2 )</td>
<td>( Z_2 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( t_3 )</td>
<td>( a_3 )</td>
<td>( \delta_3 )</td>
<td>( X_3 )</td>
<td>( Y_3 )</td>
<td>( Z_3 )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The \( X, Y, Z \) are the hunter centered inertial coordinates of the Earth, just the negatives of the values computed by PEP,
which are assumed known for all times. In general, interpolation of the tabular values was necessary.

In the classic problem of Ceres, the planet moved a total of about 3° in 1 1/3 months of observation. In configuration (c) the time between observations was varied from 1 hr. (3°) to 6 hr. (18°). In general, the method failed in cases where the total arc length between \( r_1 \) and \( r_3 \) was greater than about 10°. Furthermore, in many configuration (a) situations there resulted two nearly equal positive roots of the equation in \( r_2 \), of which one leads to approximately correct orbital elements, but the other one does not. It was difficult to provide unambiguous instructions which told the computer which one of the two roots was the "correct" one to use. Many configuration (a) situations either failed outright or were very slow to converge. At first the poor success rate in configuration (a) was thought to be caused by lack of coordinate precision resulting in the use of linear interpolation. However, when a more accurate Hermite interpolation was used, the results were no better. The difficulty appears to be inherent in the physics of the situation, i.e., the lower the satellite orbit the more it deviates from the Keplerian approximation probably because of the non-spherical Earth perturbations.
Variation in the number of significant figures of the input data has shown that 5 place accuracy in ephemeris time and hunter inertial coordinates is sufficient for most preliminary orbit determinations. Angular errors of the order of $\pm 0.01^\circ$ (36 arc seconds)* seem to be acceptable, but hunter satellite wobble might destroy this accuracy unless some way is found to make the necessary corrections. One way would be comparison with the local star field. Errors of the order of $1^\circ$ in either angle result in complete failure of the method.

The following table summarizes the results in each of the orbital configurations. About 6 sets of observations apply in each of the cases averaged.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Given Orbital Element for Hunted Satellite</th>
<th>a</th>
<th>e</th>
<th>i</th>
<th>$\Omega$</th>
<th>$\omega$</th>
<th>M</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a)</td>
<td>10,541</td>
<td>$10^{-3}$</td>
<td>10°</td>
<td>0°</td>
<td>90°</td>
<td>135°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b)</td>
<td>42,164</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0°</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>0°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c)</td>
<td>126,500</td>
<td>$10^{-3}$</td>
<td>10°</td>
<td>0°</td>
<td>90°</td>
<td>0°</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Average Errors in Calculations</th>
<th>$\Delta a$</th>
<th>$\Delta e$</th>
<th>$\Delta i$</th>
<th>$\Delta \Omega$</th>
<th>$\Delta \omega$</th>
<th>$\Delta M$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a)</td>
<td>3220</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.33°</td>
<td>181°</td>
<td>95°</td>
<td>127°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b)</td>
<td>3300</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.39°</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-20°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c)</td>
<td>6870</td>
<td>0.086</td>
<td>0.044°</td>
<td>0.91°</td>
<td>19.1°</td>
<td>-0.42°</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*This accuracy could come from smoothing several observations. Indeterminate
As suggested above, the errors in the computed elements decrease with altitude, configuration (a) to (c), as the assumption of Keplerian motion becomes more accurate (at least out to 3 times synchronous altitude).

There is a so called neutral point on a line connecting the Earth-Moon centers where the two gravitational forces are equal and opposite. This distance is approximately 345,000 km from the Earth; as one approaches this distance, the lunar perturbations become dominant and the satellite motion again tends to become non-Keplerian.

In configuration (a) the errors in the last three elements are very large. The error in $i$ is not bad but is still large enough to indicate difficulty. One would have great difficulty in locating such a satellite at some later time because of the large mean anomaly error. We find configuration (b) to yield more accurate results even though some of the numbers don't look much better than in (a). Actually this is a good test because $e$ and $i$ are both zero; therefore $\Omega$ and $\omega$ are not defined. The computed $e$ and $i$, however, are not zero (hence the computed $\Omega$ and $\omega$ will not be zero). But with the computed inclination less than $1/2^\circ$ from the celestial equator one should have little difficulty in locating the object again with a $6^\circ$ field-of-view instrument (a reasonably conservative value) at a later time.
even with a mean anomaly error of 20°. In configuration (c) all the errors are very much smaller than in either of the other configurations and very good preliminary orbit determination is realized in this case.

One example which has not been successfully evaluated is the highly eccentric orbit. It is not likely that one will encounter surreptitious satellites in such orbits because of the high risk of detection at perigee. Nevertheless, it is a possibility. We attempted to test the method on such an orbit but were unable to compute the necessary ephemerides because of the excessive computer time needed for the integrations. We did not investigate other possibly interesting orbit configurations because of the limited time allotted to this study.

We conclude that "reasonably accurate" determination of the orbit of one satellite from another by Gauss' method is feasible and practicable in most cases of interest with 5 place accuracy in the inertial coordinates and ephemeris time and ±0.01° accuracy in the look angles. Gauss' method is progressively more successful as the hunted satellite altitude is increased from 1/4 to 3 times synchronous. The problem, however, is a very complex one, and it is difficult to extrapolate these results to all cases of interest.
Acknowledgment

We wish to thank Dr. M. E. Ash for many helpful discussions throughout this investigation and for his computation of the satellite ephemerides.

REFERENCES


3. Ibid., K. P. Williams, p. 76.

APPENDIX

Gauss' Constant

Kepler's third law for a planet of mass $m$ revolving about the sun of mass $M$ may be stated as follows:

$$k^2 (m + M)T^2 = 4\pi^2 a^3$$

where $T$ is the period and $a$ the semi-major axis. The value of $k$ depends upon the units of time, distance and mass. Following Gauss, the units are taken to be the solar mass, the mean solar day and the Earth's mean distance from the Sun (the astronomical unit) in heliocentric problems. Kepler's third law becomes

$$k^2 (1 + m)T^2 = 4\pi^2 a^3$$

The quantity $k$ is called the Gaussian constant of gravitation and in the units defined above we have $k = 0.01720209895$.

For satellite motion about the Earth we can choose any convenient units: the ephemeris minute, the mass and radius of the Earth or the ephemeris day, the mass of the Earth and km, etc. To determine the value of $k$ in this latter case we use Kepler's third law and take $m$ to be the mass of the Moon in units of Earth masses, $\frac{1}{51.31}$, $T$ to be 27.321661 days and $a$ to be 377,028 km, the semi-major axis of the lunar orbit. Then the quantity $k$ has a value $5.2915 \times 10^7$. If we use the astronomical unit instead of km, then $k$ has a value $2.89125 \times 10^{-5}$. 

30