An Adaptive Groundtrack Maintenance Scheme
for Spacecraft with Electric Propulsion

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Abstract

In this paper, the repeat-groundtrack orbit maintenance problem is addressed for spacecraft driven by electric propulsion. An adaptive solution is proposed, which combines an hysteresis controller and a recursive least squares filter. The controller provides a pulse-width modulated command to the thruster, in compliance with the peculiarities of the electric propulsion technology. The filter takes care of estimating a set of environmental disturbance parameters, from inertial position and velocity measurements. The resulting control scheme is able to compensate for the groundtrack drift due to atmospheric drag, in a fully autonomous manner. A numerical study of a low Earth orbit mission confirms the effectiveness of the proposed method.

Keywords: Ground Track Maintenance, Electric Propulsion, Low Earth Orbit

1. Introduction

Recent years have seen a growing trend in the development of Low Earth Orbit (LEO) space missions for commercial, strategic, and scientific purposes. Examples include Earth Observation programs such as DMC, RapidEye and Pléiades-Neo [1, 2], as well as broadband constellations like OneWeb, Starlink.
and Telesat [3]. As opposed to geostationary spacecraft, a LEO satellite cannot stay always pointed towards a fixed spot on Earth. Nevertheless, it can revisit the same location periodically, by using a repeat-groundtrack orbit configuration. Besides its utility in traditional remote sensing applications, such a configuration can be exploited to deploy satellite constellations supporting global, regional and reconnaissance services [4, 5]. Thus, a repeat-groundtrack orbit design is ubiquitous in the above-mentioned type of missions.

Due to environmental perturbations and, in particular, to atmospheric drag, the groundtrack of a LEO satellite tends to drift away from the nominal repeat condition. This undesired effect must be compensated for by means of a suitable groundtrack maintenance program. Depending on the required control accuracy, the program may involve a tight maneuvering schedule, which makes ground-based control inefficient and risky. In order to overcome this issue, a variety of autonomous on-board control strategies have been proposed, see e.g., [6, 7, 8, 9].

Groundtrack maintenance operations require an adequately sized propulsion unit. The unit must produce the delta-v associated to the maintenance program, in addition to the one reserved for orbit acquisition and de-orbiting maneuvers. The latter, in particular, are mandatory within present regulations [10]. For very low altitude orbits, drag compensation can be the dominant factor in the mission delta-v budget, while the contribution due to de-orbiting becomes more pronounced at higher altitudes. In any case, the total delta-v may grow to a level justifying the adoption of a high specific impulse, low-thrust technology such as Electric Propulsion (EP) [11, 12, 13, 14]. Indeed, a number of EP-based LEO missions have been recently launched [15].

The maintenance of repeat-groundtrack orbits is a well-established topic in astrodynamics. The classical open-loop solution to the maintenance problem is described, for instance, in [16]. Several modifications to this method have been proposed in the literature. In [17], a feedback implementation is presented. The effect of a moderate orbital eccentricity is analyzed in [18]. The application to successive-coverage orbits is discussed in [19]. A high-precision design is presented in [20]. In all these works, each engine burn is modeled as an impulsive velocity change. Such an approximation is not well suited for EP engines, whose thrust profile is usually modeled as a rectangular pulse. In light of this consid-
eration, some recent studies [21, 22] have started adopting a piecewise-constant parametrization of the control command.

In this paper, an autonomous groundtrack maintenance strategy is developed for EP-based LEO missions. In compliance with the peculiarities of the EP technology, it is assumed that the thruster is either operated at a constant set-point or switched off, thus requiring a pulse-width modulated control input signal. It is shown that, for small deviations about a circular orbit, the groundtrack error dynamics is that of a perturbed double integrator. The perturbation term is modeled as a periodic signal with non-zero mean, according to what is observed in the literature [16]. Within this setting, an adaptive feedback scheme is derived. The idea underpinning the design is to combine an hysteresis controller with a recursive least squares (RLS) filter. The RLS filter is in charge of estimating a set of parameters of the error system. The controller provides a suitable on/off engine switching signal based on the filter estimates. The control law builds upon recent results on minimum switching control in [23, 24]. Although both RLS estimation and switching control are well established methodologies, the main contribution of this work is to suitably adapt these techniques to the specific application of repeat-groundtrack orbit maintenance.

The proposed control scheme is evaluated on a simulation case study featuring a 460 km altitude orbit. Simulation results show that the desired repeat-groundtrack pattern is acquired successfully and that the tracking error is maintained within prescribed limits, relying only on GPS measurements.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, the repeat-groundtrack control problem is reviewed. Section 3 presents the dynamic model which is employed for control design. The adaptive groundtrack control scheme is described in Section 4. The simulation case study is discussed in Section 5, and conclusions are drawn in Section 6.

2. Problem Formulation

Repeat-groundtrack orbits depend on the commensurability between the satellite nodal period (the time interval it takes a satellite to make two consecutive ascending node crossings), and the nodal period of Greenwich (the
period of the Earth’s rotation with respect to the ascending node). The nodal period is defined as

$$T_\gamma = \frac{2\pi}{\dot{\gamma}}, \quad (1)$$

where $\gamma = M + \omega$ is the satellite mean latitude, i.e., the sum of the mean anomaly $M$ and of the argument of periapsis $\omega$. The nodal period of Greenwich is given by

$$T_G = \frac{2\pi}{\omega_\oplus - \dot{\Omega}}, \quad (2)$$

where $\omega_\oplus$ is the Earth’s rotation rate, and $\Omega$ is the satellite right ascension of the ascending node. Thus, the repeat-groundtrack condition can be formalized as

$$T_\gamma = rT_G, \quad (3)$$

where $r > 0$ is a rational number, representing the ratio between the number of days and the number of satellite revolutions within the repeat cycle. For LEO orbits, $r$ is typically in the order of $1/15$.

The groundtrack spacing $\lambda_S$ between two consecutive ascending node crossings is given by

$$\lambda_S = 2\pi \frac{T_\gamma}{T_G}. \quad (4)$$

Ideally, $\lambda_S = 2\pi r$. However, in the presence of perturbations such as atmospheric drag and third-body gravity, $\lambda_S$ drifts away from the nominal value. In standard repeat-groundtrack control schemes, a sequence of impulsive orbit adjustment maneuvers is commanded to counteract this change [16]. In this paper, a different approach is proposed.

Besides enforcing (3), the control scheme must guarantee that the satellite repeatedly crosses the equator at a desired longitude $\lambda^* \in [0, 2\pi)$, east of Greenwich. Let $\lambda_G(t) = \lambda_G(0) + \omega_\oplus t$ be the instantaneous longitude of Greenwich. Then, the groundtrack error $x(t)$ is defined as

$$x(t) := r \gamma(t) + \Omega(t) - \lambda_G(t) - \lambda^*, \quad (5)$$

where all angular quantities are unwrapped. Notice that when $x(t)$ is constant, i.e. $\dot{x}(t) = 0$, one has

$$r \dot{\gamma} + \dot{\Omega} - \omega_\oplus = 0, \quad (6)$$
which in turn, by using (1) and (2), implies that (3) is satisfied. Moreover, if $x(t) = 0$, then the satellite crosses the equator at the desired east longitude $\lambda^*$. In fact, by definition $\gamma = 2\pi N$, with $N \in \mathbb{N}$, whenever the satellite crosses the ascending node. Being $r$ in (3) a rational number, there exists an ascending node crossing time $t_c$, at which

$$[r \gamma(t_c)] \mod 2\pi = 0. \quad (7)$$

By using (7) and $x(t) = 0$, it follows from (5) that

$$[\Omega(t_c) - \lambda_G(t_c)] \mod 2\pi = \lambda^*, \quad (8)$$

where the expression on the left hand side is indeed the satellite east longitude at the equator crossing time $t_c$.

The requirement $x(t) = 0$, $\forall t$, cannot be achieved with a on/off thrusting strategy. Therefore, the following relaxed control problem is addressed.

**Problem 1.** Find an on/off thrusting scheme, ensuring that

$$|x(t)| \leq x_{lim} \quad \text{for all } t \geq \tilde{t} > 0, \quad (9)$$

where $x_{lim} > 0$ is a predefined longitude error tolerance, and $\tilde{t}$ is a finite settling time.

Following a common practice, we consider tangential thrust only. In fact, radial and out-of-plane maneuvers are often deemed too expensive in terms of fuel consumption [16]. In this regard, it should be noticed that Problem 1 does not account for the groundtrack deviation resulting from inclination errors (which is zero at the equator and increases with the latitude). Such contribution can be compensated for separately, if required, via out-of-plane maneuvers. Moreover, attention is restricted to the case of a near-circular orbit, since most LEO spacecraft are flown in this type of orbit.

### 3. Groundtrack Error Dynamics

The dynamics of the groundtrack error are obtained by taking the second derivative of (5) with respect to time, resulting in

$$\ddot{x}(t) = r \dot{\gamma}(t) + \ddot{\Omega}(t). \quad (10)$$
Let the scalar $u_T(t)$ be a tangential control acceleration and the vector $d(t) = [d_R \ d_T \ d_N]^T$ describe the radial, tangential and normal components of a perturbation due to environmental sources. The effect of $u_T$ and $d$ on system (10) can be modeled through the following variational equations, adapted for nearly circular orbits (see, e.g., [7, 25])

$$\begin{align*}
\frac{d}{dt} \gamma &= n - \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{a}} \left[ 2d_R + \sin(\gamma) \cot(i) d_N \right] \\
\frac{d}{dt} n &= -\frac{3}{a} (d_T + u_T) \\
\frac{d}{dt} \Omega &= \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{a}} \sin(\gamma) d_N \\
\frac{d}{dt} i &= \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{a}} \cos(\gamma) d_N,
\end{align*}$$

(11)

where the dependence on time is left implicit, $n = \sqrt{\mu/a^3}$ denotes the mean motion, $a$ and $i$ indicate the semi-major axis and inclination, respectively, and $\mu$ is the gravitational parameter. By using (11), it can be verified that, for small deviations about an orbit with semi-major axis $a^*$, (10) takes on the form

$$\ddot{x}(t) = p_d(t) - \frac{3}{a^*} u_T(t),$$

(12)

where the time varying quantity $p_d(t)$ describes the cumulative effect of environmental perturbations.

Finding an analytical expression for $p_d(t)$ is in general a formidable task. Moreover, such an expression will unavoidably suffer form inaccuracies in the perturbation model adopted for the term $d(t)$. For the problem at hand, it is known that $p_d(t)$ is approximately constant, on average, over few orbital periods [16]. Hence, within such a time scale, $p_d(t)$ can be modeled as

$$p_d(t) = p + p_\Delta(t),$$

(13)

where $p$ denotes the average contribution of perturbations, and the term $p_\Delta(t)$ accounts for zero-mean periodic effects.

It is worth noticing that the tangential acceleration due to atmospheric drag usually represents the major contribution to the disturbance component $p$ in (13). More specifically, one has that $p \simeq -3r \dot{d}_T/a^* > 0$, where $\dot{d}_T < 0$ denotes the average drag acceleration. Conversely, secular perturbations on $\gamma$ and $\Omega$ have a limited impact on (13). For instance, a secular drift of $\Omega$ due to the
Sun-synchronicity condition $\dot{\Omega} = 2\pi$ rad/year would result in $\ddot{\Omega} = 0$ in (10), which in turn does not provide any contribution to (13).

4. Repeat-Groundtrack Control Scheme

In this section, an on/off control law is presented for Problem 1, under the assumption that full state information is available and considering an averaged model of the groundtrack error dynamics. Then, a RLS filter is derived, which estimates both the system state and the average disturbance $p$. Finally, the implementation of an adaptive control scheme based on this modules is discussed, together with a tuning strategy which minimizes the variation of the orbital eccentricity due to thrusting.

4.1. Controller Design

In order to compensate for a constant positive disturbance $p_d(t) = p$ in (12), consider an on/off control input of the form

$$u_T = u_{\text{max}} v(t),$$

where $u_{\text{max}} > 0$ is the maximum acceleration which can be delivered by the propulsion system and $v(t) \in \{0, 1\}$ is the engine activation signal. By enforcing (14) and taking into account that $p_\Delta(t)$ is a zero-mean signal, the following averaged model is obtained from (12)-(13)

$$\ddot{y}(t) = p - k v(t),$$

where

$$k = \frac{3r u_{\text{max}}}{a^*},$$

and $y(t)$ denotes the average groundtrack error.

Let $y(t)$ be the solution to system (15) starting from the initial conditions $y(0) = x(0)$ and $\dot{y}(0) = \dot{x}(0)$. Clearly, the relationship between $y(t)$ and the solution $x(t)$ of system (12) is

$$y(t) = x(t) - \alpha(t),$$

where

$$\alpha(t) = \int_0^t p_\Delta(\tau) \, d\tau$$
\[ s(y, \dot{y}; p) = -y_{\text{lim}} \quad \text{if} \quad \dot{y} < 0 \]

\[ s(y, \dot{y}; p) = y_{\text{lim}} \quad \text{if} \quad \dot{y} \geq 0 \]

Figure 1: Switching curves (solid) and example of a trajectory (dotted) resulting from the application of the control scheme (22).

is a zero-mean periodic signal. By using (15)-(17), Problem 1 can be recast as that of finding a switching signal \( v(t) \), guaranteeing that

\[ |y(t)| \leq y_{\text{lim}} \quad \text{for all} \quad t \geq \bar{t} > 0, \quad (19) \]

where

\[ 0 < y_{\text{lim}} \leq x_{\text{lim}} - \max_{t} |\alpha(t)|. \quad (20) \]

Notice from (15) that the condition \( k > p \) must be met, in order for the problem to be solvable. Moreover, by (20), one must have \( x_{\text{lim}} > \max_{t} |\alpha(t)| \), which is typically the case in real-world applications (since high-frequency disturbances \( p_{\Delta}(t) \) are attenuated by the double integrator system (12)-(13)).

A minimum fuel and minimum switching solution to the above control problem is obtained by exploiting the results in [23]. Consider the switching function

\[ s(y, \dot{y}; p) = \begin{cases} 
\frac{1}{2(p-k)} \dot{y}^2 & \text{if} \quad \dot{y} \geq 0 \\
\frac{1}{2p} \dot{y}^2 & \text{if} \quad \dot{y} < 0.
\end{cases} \quad (21) \]

Let the on/off input \( v(t) \) be specified according to the hysteresis function

\[ v(t) = \begin{cases} 
1 & \text{if} \quad s(y(t), \dot{y}(t); p) \geq y_{\text{lim}} \\
0 & \text{if} \quad s(y(t), \dot{y}(t); p) \leq -y_{\text{lim}} \\
v_{h} & \text{otherwise},
\end{cases} \quad (22) \]
where $v_h = 1$ if $s(y, \dot{y}; p) \geq y_{\text{lim}}$ occurred more recently than $s(y, \dot{y}; p) \leq -y_{\text{lim}}$, $v_h = 0$ otherwise. By applying the control law (22) to system (15), a limit cycle trajectory with amplitude $2y_{\text{lim}}$ is reached in finite time from any initial condition. An example is shown in the phase plane portrait reported in Fig. 1.

The limit cycle period is given by $T_L = 4\sqrt{\frac{k y_{\text{lim}}}{p k - p^2}}$. It is divided into a firing period of length $T_F = DT_L$ and a coasting period of length $T_C = (1 - D)T_L$, where $D = p/k$ denotes the actuator duty cycle. Thus, the firing time turns out to be

$$T_F = \frac{4p}{k} \sqrt{\frac{k y_{\text{lim}}}{p k - p^2}} = 4\sqrt{\frac{p y_{\text{lim}}}{k^2 - k p}}.$$  \quad (23)

4.2. RLS Filter Design

The control law (22) requires the real-time knowledge of $y(t)$, $\dot{y}(t)$ and $p$. Given the parameter $p$ and the initial conditions $y(0)$, $\dot{y}(0)$, one can compute $y(t)$ and $\dot{y}(t)$ just by integrating system (15). However, using this solution would result in an open-loop control strategy. Moreover, the exact value of $y(0)$, $\dot{y}(0)$ and $p$ is, in general, unknown.

An alternative approach consists in estimating $y(t)$, $\dot{y}(t)$ and $p$ by using values of $x(t)$ obtained from inertial measurements. More specifically, the orbital elements $\gamma(t)$ and $\Omega(t)$ in (5) can be computed from absolute position and velocity measurements, by using standard analytical methods [16], while the quantities $\lambda_G(t)$, $r$ and $\lambda^*$ are known.

Let the obtained values of $x(t)$ be denoted as $\tilde{x}(t_j)$, where $\{t_j\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ is the sequence of time samples at which measurements are taken. Now, observe that the solution to (15), with either $v = 0$ or $v = 1$, can be parameterized as

$$y(t) = \varphi^T(t)\theta,$$  \quad (24)

where $\varphi(t) = [t^2 \ t \ 1]^T$ and $\theta = [\theta_1 \ \theta_2 \ \theta_3]^T$ is a vector of unknown parameters to be determined. Hence, a least squares estimation problem can be cast as follows

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg\min_{\theta} \sum_j [\tilde{x}(t_j) - \varphi^T(t_j) \theta]^2.$$  \quad (25)

A recursive solution to (25) is provided by the exponentially weighted RLS
algorithm \[26\]
\[
\dot{\theta}(t_j) = \dot{\theta}(t_{j-1}) + \frac{P(t_{j-1}) \varphi(t_j)}{\eta + \varphi(t_j)^T P(t_{j-1}) \varphi(t_j)} \left[ \hat{x}(t_j) - \varphi^T(t_j) \dot{\theta}(t_{j-1}) \right] \tag{26}
\]
\[
P(t_j) = \frac{1}{\eta} \left[ P(t_{j-1}) - \frac{P(t_{j-1}) \varphi(t_j) \varphi^T(t_j) P(t_{j-1})}{\eta + \varphi^T(t_j) P(t_{j-1}) \varphi(t_j)} \right], \tag{27}
\]
initialized at \( P(t_0) \) and \( \dot{\theta}(t_0) \), where \( \eta \) is the forgetting factor.

The algorithm (26)-(27) is re-initialized each time that the right hand side of (15) changes sign, i.e., whenever the input switches, in order to prevent divergence in the estimates. Let \( \bar{t} \) be an input switching time, such that \( t_{s-1} < \bar{t} \leq t_s \). At time \( \bar{t} \), the parameter vector is reset according to

\[
\hat{\theta}_3(\bar{t}) = \varphi^T(\bar{t}) \dot{\theta}(t_{s-1})
\]
\[
\hat{\theta}_2(\bar{t}) = 2 \hat{\theta}_1(t_{s-1}) \bar{t} + \hat{\theta}_2(t_{s-1})
\]
\[
\hat{\theta}_1(\bar{t}) = \hat{\theta}_1(t_{s-1}) + k \left[ v(t_{s-1}) - v(\bar{t}) \right] / 2. \tag{28}
\]

Then, (26)-(27) is applied by replacing \( \varphi(t_j) \) with \( \varphi(t_j - \bar{t}) \), for \( t_j \geq t_s \), and by setting the initial condition to \( \dot{\theta}(\bar{t}) \) given by (28). This ensures the continuity of \( \varphi^T \dot{\theta} \) and of its first time derivative.

The continuous-time estimates of \( y(t) \), \( \dot{y}(t) \) and \( p \) returned by the filter are obtained by interpolation, as follows

\[
\hat{y}(t) = \varphi^T(t - \bar{t}) \dot{\theta}(t_j)
\]
\[
\hat{\dot{y}}(t) = 2(t - \bar{t}) \hat{\theta}_1(t_j) + \hat{\theta}_2(t_j)
\]
\[
\hat{p}(t) = 2 \hat{\theta}_1(t_j) + k v(t), \tag{29}
\]

where \( t_j \) and \( \bar{t} \) denotes the most recent measurement time and the most recent input switching time, respectively.

### 4.3. Adaptive Control Scheme Implementation

A real-time feedback control scheme is obtained by replacing \( y(t) \), \( \dot{y}(t) \) and \( p \) in (22), with the corresponding estimates \( \hat{y}(t) \), \( \hat{\dot{y}}(t) \) and \( \hat{p}(t) \) provided by (29). The resulting adaptive control system is shown in Fig. 2.

It should now be remarked that the relationship (20) leaves some freedom in the choice of the control specification \( \gamma_{\text{lim}} \). Such degree of freedom can be exploited to optimize other relevant performance criteria. Specifically, some applications require the satellite altitude to vary as little as possible, which
corresponds to maintaining a near-zero orbital eccentricity. In this regard, atmospheric drag is known to have a stabilizing effect, as it tends to circularize the orbit. However, repeated groundtrack adjustment maneuvers can lead to a secular eccentricity growth. For nearly circular orbits, the variation in the orbital eccentricity due to the control acceleration \( u_T \) can be modeled as [19]

\[
\dot{e} = 2 \sqrt{\frac{a}{\mu}} \cos(f) u_T, \tag{30}
\]

where \( e \) indicates the orbital eccentricity and \( f \) denotes the true anomaly. For small deviations about \( a = a^* \), equation (30) can be approximated as

\[
\dot{e} \approx 2 \sqrt{\frac{a^*}{\mu}} \cos(n^* t + f_0) u_T, \tag{31}
\]

where \( n^* = \sqrt{\mu/(a^*)^3} \) is the reference mean motion.

The net change in \( e \), \( \Delta e = e(T) - e(0) \), obtained by applying a constant input \( u_T = u_{\text{max}} \) over a time interval of length \( T \), can be computed from (31) according to

\[
\Delta e = 2 u_{\text{max}} \sqrt{\frac{a^*}{\mu}} \int_0^T \cos(n^* t + f_0) \, dt = \frac{2(a^*)^2 u_{\text{max}}}{\mu} \left[ \sin(n^* T + f_0) - \sin(f_0) \right]. \tag{32}
\]

From (32) it follows that one possibility to enforce a zero secular growth \( \Delta e = 0 \) of the eccentricity is to set \( T = T(m) = m \frac{2\pi}{n^*} \), i.e. to fire the engine for an integer multiple \( m \) of the orbital period. Another possibility is to initiate the maneuver at \( f_0 = 0 \) or \( f_0 = \pi \) (assuming the periapsis exists) and set \( T(m) = m \frac{\pi}{n^*} \), which amounts to firing for a multiple of half the orbital period (in particular, \( T = \pi/n^* \) may be adopted to avoid firing the engine during eclipses). The corresponding \( y_{\text{lim}} \) can be found by equating \( T(m) \) to the firing time \( T_F \) in (23),
thus resulting in

\[ y_{\text{lim}} = \frac{k(k - p)}{16\,p} T^2(m). \]  

(33)

In order for the above strategy to be feasible, \( y_{\text{lim}} \) must satisfy condition (20). For typical values of \( x_{\text{lim}}, k \) and \( p \), this requirement can be met by adopting a sufficiently small value of \( m \) in (33). In this work, (33) is evaluated on-line, by using the disturbance estimate \( \hat{p} \) returned by the RLS filter.

Finally, notice that the control law (21)-(22) by itself does not guarantee the firing sequence to be initiated at a specific true anomaly location \( f_0 \). In order to do so, once the condition \( s(y, \dot{y}; p) \geq y_{\text{lim}} \) is met, one has to postpone the engine activation \( v = 1 \) until \( f \) reaches \( f_0 \). The groundtrack error will grow only slightly during this time interval, since the true longitude dynamics are usually much faster than the error ones.

5. Simulation Case Study

An Earth observation mission performed by a 200 kg minisatellite equipped with EP has been simulated numerically, in order to validate the proposed approach. The spacecraft bus layout is modeled as a cube with side-length equal to 1 m. The truth model for the simulation consists of a numerical propagation routine based on Cowell’s method, which accounts for the most relevant environmental perturbations affecting LEO satellites. Table 1 describes the main features of the simulation environment.

| Contribution          | Model                                      |
|-----------------------|--------------------------------------------|
| Earth’s Gravity       | EGM96 9 \times 9                           |
| Atmospheric Drag      | NRLMSISE-00, \( F_{10.7} = 220, A_p = 15 \) |
| Third Body            | Luni-solar point mass gravity              |
| Solar Pressure        | Cannonball model with eclipses             |

The satellite is released in a near-circular sun-synchronous orbit with an altitude of about 460 km. The initial orbital elements, reported in Table 2, are chosen so as to achieve a repeat-groundtrack period of 3 days (\( r = 3/46 \) days/revs). Hence, the reference semi-major axis in (12) is \( a^* = a(0) \). It is
Table 2: Initial conditions for the simulation

| Orbital element          | Initial value |
|--------------------------|---------------|
| Semi-major axis          | $a(0) = 6838$ km |
| Eccentricity             | $e(0) = 0.001$ |
| Inclination              | $i(0) = 97.28$ deg |
| RAAN                     | $\Omega(0) = 0$ deg |
| Argument of periapsis    | $\omega(0) = 90$ deg |
| True anomaly             | $f(0) = 270$ deg |

required to keep groundtrack within a maximum deviation of 2 km from the nominal one at the equator, which corresponds to the error tolerance $x_{\text{lim}} = 2/R_\oplus = 3.136 \cdot 10^{-4}$ rad, where $R_\oplus$ denotes the Earth’s equatorial radius. This level of accuracy is compatible with advanced scientific missions such as ICEsat [27].

The groundtrack control system relies on a GPS receiver providing position and velocity measurements, and on a low-power Hall Effect Thruster (HET). Table 3 reports the characteristics of the model used for the GPS and the HET. It is assumed that the thruster is aligned with the direction tangential to the orbit. The nominal acceleration provided by the HET amounts to $u_{\text{max}} = F_{\text{max}}/m_{\text{sat}} = 5 \cdot 10^{-5}$ m/s$^2$, where $F_{\text{max}} = 0.01$ N and $m_{\text{sat}} = 200$ kg.

The measured values $\tilde{x}(t_j)$ of $x(t)$ are computed by first expressing GPS position and velocity measurements in terms of osculating orbital elements, and then transforming osculating elements into mean ones according to [28]. The forgetting factor of the RLS algorithm (26)-(27) is set to $\eta = 0.9999$. This provides a good trade-off between the sensitivity of the filter to high-frequency

Table 3: Characteristics of the control system

| Device | Output                  | Std dev | Update time |
|--------|-------------------------|---------|-------------|
| GPS    | Inertial position       | 20 m    | 30 sec      |
|        | Inertial velocity       | 0.1 m/s |             |
| HET    | ON: 10 mN thrust        | 0.5 mN  | 30 sec      |
|        | OFF: no thrust          | -       |             |
oscillations in $x(t)$ and its responsiveness to long-period drifts in $p_d(t)$ (e.g., due to seasonal changes in the atmospheric density), which are not modeled by (13). The error tolerance $y_{\text{lim}}$ in (19) is set according to (33), with $T = T(m) = 2\pi/n^*$ and $p = \hat{p}$, resulting in $y_{\text{lim}} \simeq 2 \cdot 10^{-4}$ rad. This ensures that condition (20) is met with a good safety margin; at the same time, it allows one to successfully counteract the eccentricity variation in (32), according to the discussion in Section 4.3.

The mission is simulated for 30 days. The tracking error $x(t)$ resulting from the simulation is reported in Fig. 3. The corresponding switching command $v(t)$ is reported in Fig. 4. The controller is activated at $t \simeq 1$ day (after the RLS...
filter transient has elapsed), in correspondence of the first peak in Fig 3. It can be seen that a limit cycle with amplitude $2\hat{y}_{\text{lim}}$ is established from the second input transition onwards, and that the error is kept well within the maximum allowed deviation $x_{\text{lim}}$ (represented by the dashed lines in Fig. 3). The HET engine is fired once about every 4 days, for a time interval of approximately 94 minutes. The duty cycle is equal to $D = 0.0156$: such a small value is due to the fact that the atmospheric drag force is much smaller than the 10 mN thrust force produced by the engine.

The signals $\hat{y}(t)$, $\hat{\dot{y}}(t)$ and $\hat{p}(t)$ estimated by the RLS filter are shown in Fig. 5. A zoom of the initial transient is depicted in Fig. 6, which reports also the average disturbance value $\bar{p}$ and the error signals $\hat{y}(t)$, $\hat{\dot{y}}(t)$ resulting from the solution of (15). It can be seen that the estimates converge in approximately one day. In particular, $\hat{p}(t)$ settles to a value which is very close to the average acceleration due to drag, as explained in Section 3. To better illustrate this fact, Figure 7 compares the estimated disturbance force $\hat{F} = m_{\text{sat}} a^* \hat{p}(t)/(3r)$ with the absolute value $F_{\text{drag}}$ of the drag force returned by the NRLMSISE-00 model, on the time interval $t \in [0, 36]$ hours. The oscillations in $F_{\text{drag}}$ are due to changes in the atmospheric density induced by diurnal, latitudinal, and altitude variations. It is confirmed that the RLS filter is able to average out
these effects, at steady-state. This is a key requirement for the implementation of the proposed control scheme.

The evolution of the orbital eccentricity is reported in Fig. 8. As expected, the proposed thrusting strategy has a negligible impact on this element, which shows a slow decrease due to environmental perturbations. Hence, the orbit of the spacecraft remains approximately circular during the entire simulation interval.
Finally, the groundtrack profile resulting from the simulation has been compared to the uncontrolled one. As seen from Figs 9-10, the proposed method is able to compensate for the groundtrack drift due to perturbation effects, thus ensuring precise repeatability. It is worth stressing that the method requires neither a gravitational nor an atmospheric drag model: the controlled groundtrack automatically settles to the desired repeat condition, given only the parameter $r$ in (5) and the measurements provided by the GPS. Moreover, notice that one may consider updating the parameter $k$ in (16) on a periodic basis, should the engine acceleration deviate significantly from the nominal design value $u_{\text{max}}$.

6. Conclusions

A simple and effective groundtrack maintenance strategy has been presented for low Earth orbiting satellites driven by low-thrust propulsion. The proposed adaptive control scheme consists of an hysteresis controller paired with a recursive least squares filter. It can be readily implemented within an autonomous guidance, navigation and control system. The results of a simulation case study show that the desired repeat-groundtrack pattern is acquired successfully and then maintained consistently by the control system. Such type of technology may play a key role in a number of future scientific and commercial space missions equipped with electric propulsion.
Figure 9: Controlled groundtrack.

Figure 10: Uncontrolled groundtrack.

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