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Earth orbiting objects observed by the infrared astronomical satellite

Dow, Kimberly Lynn, M.S. The University of Arizona, 1992



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EARTH ORBITING OBJECTS OBSERVED BY THE INFRARED ASTRONOMICAL SATELLITE

by

Kimberly Lynn Dow

A Thesis Submitted to the Faculty of the

DEPARTMENT OF ASTRONOMY

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
For the Degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

In the Graduate College

THE UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA

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SIGNED: Kimberly And

APPROVAL BY THESIS DIRECTOR

This thesis has been approved on the date shown below:

F. J. Low Professor of Astronomy

Date

DEDICATION

to my family

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ABSTRACT

A systematic search (Dow and Sykes 1988) for cometary dust trails (Fig. 1) in the Infrared Astronomical Satellite (IRAS) Sky Brightness Images (IRAS Sky Brightness Images 1988) resulted in the discovery of 466 sources (Dow *et al.* 1990) that are not in the IRAS Point Source Catalog (IRAS Point Source Catalog, Version 2 1988) or in the Small Scale Structure Catalog (IRAS Small Scale Structure Catalog 1988). Nearly all of the sources that were found are best explained as artificial satellites or pieces of Earth orbiting debris. In this paper the term "artificial satellite" refers to an active payload. Orbital debris, or equivalently space debris, is defined as any non-operational object in space.

This study addresses two questions. To what degrees have the Sky Brightness Images (hereafter, also referred to as Images) been contaminated by orbital debris, given that the IRAS detectors were well suited and that the satellite was well positioned to observe these sources? Second, can valuable information concerning the thermal characteristics of these sources be obtained by suitably analyzing IRAS data?

Fifty-four sources, covering a range of positions and observed fluxes, were selected from the main sample to determine their angular motion, flux density and color temperature distributions. Four of these objects were correlated with known artificial satellites.

INTRODUCTION

IRAS was launched on 26 January 1983, as a joint mission by the United States, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. The main purpose of the mission was to perform an unbiased, highly sensitive and reliable survey of the sky in four broad wavelength bands, centered roughly at 12, 25, 60 and 100 μ m (band 1, 2, 3 and 4), and to generate a catalog of infrared point sources.

The mission was designed to perform three complete surveys of the sky during the satellite's anticipated one-year lifetime. The intent of this strategy was not to improve the sensitivity of the survey but rather to increase the reliability of astrophysical point sources in the presence of moving sources such as space debris, energetic particles and asteroids.

In spite of telescope design and data processing efforts, non-astronomical sources of infrared radiation (material emitted by IRAS, Earth orbiting satellites and space debris) were detected. Moving astronomical objects, including natural meteoroids, comets, asteroids and energetic particles, were also observed by IRAS. Evidence for the presence of these sources was found in the IRAS Sky Brightness Images and in the Calibrated Reconstructed Detector Data (CRDD). The Sky Brightness Images collectively comprise an atlas, available as photographs or on magnetic tape in digital form, of the entire infrared sky at wavelengths corresponding to the IRAS passbands. The CRDD is a data base that lists, by detector, ADUs as a function of the sampling rate. It can also be viewed graphically as strip charts. The flux density, inclination and angular motion of an object as well as the date and time of the observation can be determined from the CRDD.

Several studies have demonstrated the ability of IRAS data to characterize infrared emission from orbital debris. DeJong and Wesselius (1990), Anz-Meador *et al.* (1986) and Walsh *et al.* (1989) have used search procedures, primarily using unprocessed IRAS detector data, to search for debris. While their studies have found a few moving sources, some of which are below the flux limit of the Sky Brightness Images, they are essentially blind searches intrough many hours of the detector data that covered only a few days of the mission.

In this study, however, objects were found on the Sky Brightness Images over the entire duration of the IRAS mission. The signature of an Earth orbiting object (Fig. 2) was distinct and easily identified when Images corresponding to bands 1, 2 and 3 were overlaid. While potentially thousands of much fainter sources may be found in the IRAS data bases by other investigators, the objects found using the Sky Brightness Images and the CRDD will be the brightest moving sources detected by IRAS and will provide a large sample of sources to examine.

The IRAS mission offered a unique opportunity to observe, with a large space-based telescope, the small-sized debris population and to learn something about the thermal properties of debris in several size regimes. Analysis of the IRAS detection capabilities indicated that the satellite's 12 µm detectors could observe an object with a diameter of one centimeter at a range of 400 kilometers, and an object with a diameter of 10 centimeters at a range of 4000 kilometers. Comparatively, ground-based observations at visible wavelengths are currently capable of detecting debris with diameters a few to 10 centimeters out to low Earth orbit (LEO), altitudes lower than 2000 kilometers, and as small as one meter in geosynchronous orbit (GEO). Ground-based infrared observations with the MOTIF B telescope on the island of Maui are even worse, having a resolution of one square meter in LEO (Vilas 1992). It has been estimated that as many as 80000 objects

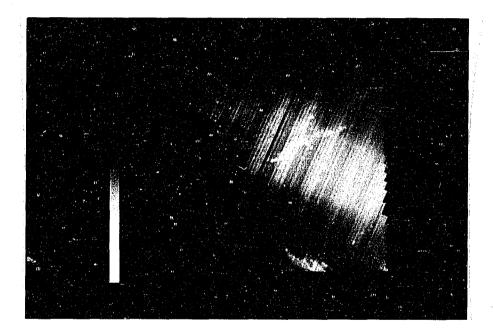
with diameters as small as one centimeter are not tracked by ground-based radars and optical systems (Johnson and McKnight 1987).

Designers of future missions must consider not only protection from bright pieces of debris confusing fine-guidance sensors (which already happened to the Solar Max payload, Anz-Meador 1992) or damaging electronic equipment, but also debris collision avoidance techniques and the probability of debris particles impacting the spacecraft with sufficient energy to fragment the payload. Space-based astronomical telescopes must also contend with paint flakes and dust collecting on mirror surfaces, thereby degrading imaging ability.

Plans by NASA for a permanent manned space station have resulted in increased concern about the characterization and detection of debris in LEO. The Debris Collision Warning Sensor (DCWS) flight experiment (Vilas 1992) will be the first space-based mission optimized for the detection of space debris. This data will contribute to studies in preparation for this flight experiment.

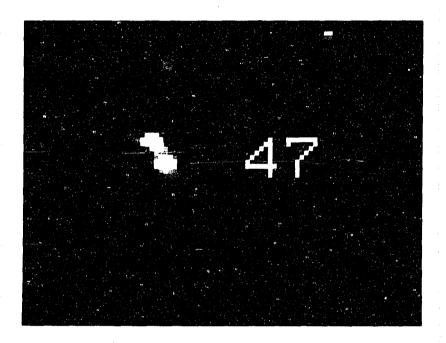
Chapter One describes the IRAS mission and the final data products that are relevant to this project. In Chapter Two, the IRAS Moving Source and Cometary Dust Trail Survey search procedure is presented and the characteristics of some of the sources which were observed are also described. Chapter Three discusses what is currently understood about the orbital debris environment and how the results of this project may contribute to those perceptions.

IRAS Multiple Band Sky Brightness Image



<u>Figure 1</u>: This is a multiple band Sky Brightness Image that is centered at 0^h right ascension and 0° declination (1950), geocentric. The image is color coded according to passband: band 1 is blue; band 2 is green and band 3 is red. North is to the top and east is to the left. The wide structure passing through the image is an asteroid dust band that contains debris resulting from collisions between asteroids. A thin dust trail, associated with the perihelion passage of comet Temple 2, is seen cutting through the image to the south of the dust band. A dust trail associated with the comet Encke is north of the dust band. The wispy features are galactic cirrus. All of these structures were discovered by IRAS.

Earth Orbiting Source on IRAS Sky Brightness Image



<u>Figure 2</u>: This is the signature of a typical Earth orbiting source as seen on an IRAS Sky Brightness Image. The image is color coded by passband as in Figure 1. The position of Source 47 is 13:56:48 +76:04:20. Photographs of other sources are found in Appendix 5.

CHAPTER ONE

Characteristics of the IRAS Mission and Data Bases

1. The IRAS Satellite

The components of the IRAS spacecraft, telescope and focal plane that are relevant to the IRAS Moving Source and Cometary Dust Trail Survey are described in the following two sections. More detailed information about the spacecraft and the mission can be found in the IRAS Explanatory Supplement (IRAS Catalogs and Atlases 1988).

1.1 Spacecraft

The main features of the IRAS spacecraft are the onboard computers and software, the attitude control system and the data recording devices. General characteristics of each of these systems are outlined in the following paragraphs. The spacecraft is more fully described by Pouw (1983) and Neugebauer *et al.* (1984).

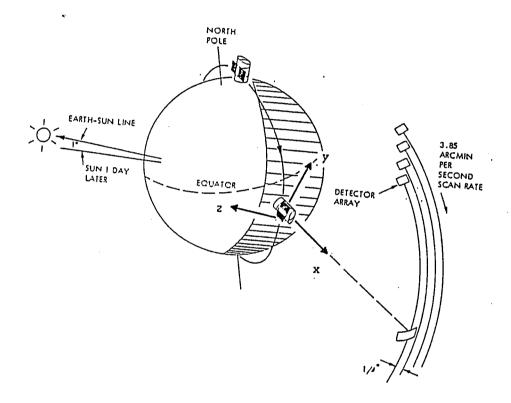
IRAS was equipped with two identical computers, each of which had a Central Processing Unit (CPU) with 64 K of Random Access Memory (RAM). The RAM contained the procedures for carrying out a complete Satellite Operations Plan (SOP). The length of a SOP was the amount of time between ground station passes, typically ten to fourteen hours. There were 2 SOPs in a day and 600 SOPs in the entire mission. Each SOP was also referenced by an orbit number, "OBS", of which there were 14 available each day. The RAM also included the routines for initiating the downlink of the data stream to the ground station in Chilton, England. During the downlink, which lasted approximately 10

minutes, instructions for the next SOP were transmitted to the satellite. The order of the SOP/OBS was such that they can be correlated with one of the three all-sky surveys, a feature that proved to be invaluable when trying to locate specific portions of the CRDD.

The attitude of the telescope was controlled by a horizon sensor, a Sun-sensor and three orthogonal gyros. During observations the y-axis gyro was kept perpendicular to the Sunsatellite line, the x-axis indicated the direction in which the boresight of the focal plane array was pointing and the z-axis was pointed toward the Sun (Fig. 3). Visible wavelength star-sensors, located in the telescope focal plane, were used for onboard attitude updates. The star sensors were arranged in a "V" configuration to provide attitude information for two axes. The positional accuracy of sources observed by IRAS depended on their size, spectral energy distribution and brightness, but was typically better than 20 arc-seconds. The reconstructed pointing accuracy, however, was accurate to two or three arc-seconds (Low 1991). This high degree of precision contributed to the ability to correlate sources observed by IRAS with known artificial satellites.

One onboard tape recorder allowed data from the previous SOP to be transmitted to Earth during a ground station pass, while the second recorder simultaneously accepted data for the current SOP. This method protected data from being overwritten when information from a particular SOP could not be downlinked completely during a given ground station pass.

IRAS Orbital Geometry



<u>Figure 3:</u> IRAS was in a Sun-synchronous, 103 minute orbit above the Earth's terminator. A series of scans on the celestial sphere is also indicated.

1.2 Telescope and Focal Plane Assembly

The IRAS telescope was a Ritchey-Chretien configuration with a 0.57-meter aperture and a 5.5-meter focal length (Fig. 4). The unvignetted field of view was 63.6 arc-minutes and the plate scale was 1.6 millimeters/arc-minute. The telescope was cooled to temperatures ranging between 2 and 5 K by mounting it in a liquid helium cryostat. The mirror was constructed of beryllium because it is lightweight and has minimal thermal distortion when cooled to cryogenic temperatures. The secondary was beryllium coated with aluminum. The optics of the telescope were protected during launch and during the first week of the mission with an aperture cover cooled with superfluid helium.

The focal plane assembly was located at the Cassegrain focus of the telescope (Fig. 5) and was cooled to 2.6 K. The array consisted of 62 rectangular solid state infrared detectors arranged in linear columns so that all distant astronomical sources, which always passed in front of the focal plane in the image or *in-scan* direction, could be seen by at least two detectors in each of the four bands. Artificial satellites, on the other hand, crossed the focal plane from many directions, including the in-scan direction. The 12 and 25 µm detectors were constructed of Si:As and Si:Sb respectively and the 60 and 100 µm detectors were constructed of Ge:Ga. Three of the 62 detectors were declared inoperable and four were considered degraded. More detailed information pertaining to detector characteristics appears in Table 1.

The responsivity of the detectors, the ratio of the detector current to the power falling on the detector, was monitored by ten thermal calibration sources called "internal reference sources" or "stimulators", mounted behind the secondary mirror. These detectors provided pulses of

IRAS Spacecraft and Telescope System.

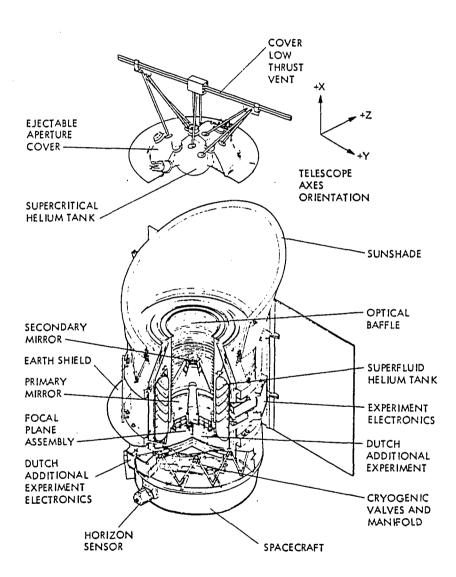
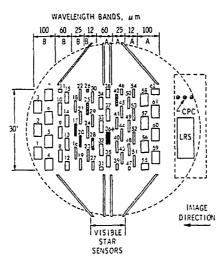


Figure 4: The dimension of the satellite with deployed solar arrays was 3.60 meters (height), 3.24 meters (width) and 2.05 meters (depth).

IRAS Focal Plane Assembly



<u>Figure 5:</u> The cross-hatched detectors were degraded and the filled-in detectors were inoperable. The y and z axis of the satellite are indicated at right. The focal plane contains two modules, A and B, as indicated. The CPC was a chopped photometric channel and the LRS was a low resolution spectrometer.

TABLE 1 IRAS Detector Characteristics									
band	bandwidth FWHM (µm)	detector FOV (Arcmin.)	detector material	no. of operational detectors	NEFD* 3σ(mJy)	Sampling Rate (sec)	Detector Size (mm		
1	7.0	0.75x4.5	Si:As	16	315	1/16	1x1.78		
2	11.5	0.75x4.6	Si:Sb	13	375	1/16	1x1.78		
3	32.5	1.5x4.7	Ge:Ga	15	510	1/8	1.5x1.5		
4	31.5	3.0x5.0	Ge:Ga	15	1740	1/4	1.25x1.25		

^{*} Noise Equivalent Flux Density

infrared radiation before and after each survey scan and were also used with pointed observations. Interestingly, when the Sky Brightness Image positions were matched with the CRDD it was found that three of the 54 sources were correlated with these pulses. This phenomenon is not understood at this time.

2. IRAS Orbital Geometry and Survey Operations

IRAS was launched into a Sun-synchronous orbit at an altitude of 900 kilometers and an inclination of 99°. The orbit of the spacecraft precessed in right ascension at a rate of slightly under one degree per day, (matching the Earth's average revolution rate about the Sun), allowing the plane of its orbit to remain roughly fixed with respect to the Sun. This configuration was chosen to minimize the likelihood of radiation from the Sun and Earth, from entering the telescope, to maximize the effectiveness of the solar panels and to ensure that an all-sky survey was completed within six months. During survey operations, the optics were protected from off-axis emission by a sunshade--provided that the telescope did not point closer than 60° in the direction of the Sun. The attitude control system did not permit the spacecraft to point further than 120° away from the Sun. IRAS was also not permitted to point closer than one degree toward Jupiter or closer than 25° in the direction of the Moon.

During the sky survey, the focal plane scanned a section of the sky that was 0.5° wide. The position of the satellite was shifted near the ecliptic by 14.23 arc-minutes, approximately half of the width of the focal plane, allowing a source observed on one side of the focal plane during one orbit to be observed on the opposite side of the focal plane on the next orbit. As a result, the same location of sky was observed twice over successive orbits. These hours-confirming observations were called "HCONs". During the first

seven months of the mission, a given region of sky was observed for about one week and then re-observed on a time-scale of 7—11 days. The first week was designated HCON 1 and the second week was designated HCON 2. HCONs 1 and 2 each covered 96% of the sky. HCON 3 was completed during the last three months of the mission and covered 76% of the sky. Three sets of Sky Brightness Images were constructed from individual scans corresponding to the three HCONs. The Sky Brightness Images are discussed in greater detail in Chapter Two Section One.

The scan rate of IRAS, 3.85 arc-minutes/second, was faster than the orbital rate, 3.5 arc-minutes/second, to allow for increased pointing flexibility in survey mode and to enable more time to complete the Additional Observation program (Chester 1991). The pointing flexibility also helped to reduce the effects of the South Atlantic Anomaly (SAA), that part of the inner Van Allen radiation belt lying approximately 200 kilometers above the Earth's surface and arising because the Earth's magnetic field is offset from its center by 500 kilometers. Energetic charged particles in the SAA often play havoc with spacecraft components, such as scientific instruments, computers and guidance sensors.

3. Removal of Moving Sources

Many fast moving sources, such as energetic particles and orbital debris, were removed during the IRAS mission by means of an electronic discriminator before the data stream was downlinked to the ground station. Many objects, however, made it past this circuit and were not removed from the Sky Brightness Images until they were found from visual examination of the Images (Gautier 1989) by scientists at the Infrared Processing and Analysis Center (IPAC) in Pasadena, California.

3.1 Onboard De-glitcher

An electronic discriminator, colloquially called the "de-glitcher", was employed to remove from the survey data stream, signals with fast rise times, bright space debris and energetic particles. This procedure was important during passages through the SAA where the radiation dosage was particularly high. Only the largest voltage spikes were "de-glitched", and borderline spikes often were not completely removed. The de-glitcher treated the 12 and 25 μ m detections of fast rising signals in the same manner because the detectors were of the same electronic design; therefore, even if the brightest 12 and 25 μ m signals were only partly eliminated, it is not important because the ratio of the flux density did not change (Low 1991). This is one of the reasons that the most reliable color temperatures of the brightest sources in this study are determined from the ratio of the 12 and 25 μ m fluxes. The primary reason, however, is that most of the flux from any inner solar system object is emitted in the 12 and 25 μ m bandpasses. Faint sources, on the other hand, are unlikely to trigger the de-glitcher and should have reliable fluxes in all four bandpasses. The de-glitcher was operated continuously during the mission and may have eliminated many debris events that were observed by IRAS.

3.2 Data Processing of Sky Brightness Images

As a final measure, before their general release to the scientific community, all the Sky Brightness Image fields were visually examined for sources that appeared anomalous. Near-field objects that flooded the focal plane, and 25 µm scans which differed substantially in brightness from adjacent scans, were removed. The later was accomplished by adding a scan back in to the image with the negative of its original weight.

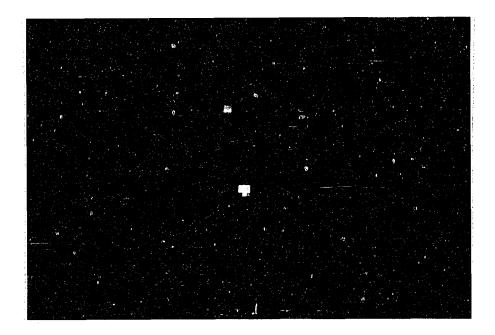
One hundred twenty-three of the most obvious particle hits and 20 radiation hits were removed at IPAC from the Sky Brightness Images. These sources were easily identified because they illuminated the entire focal plane and therefore covered a larger area on a Sky Brightness Image (Fig. 6). In the study described here, only 12 of the 466 sources that were found are obvious "near-field" sources. They were often partially obscured by infrared cirrus, making their visual detection difficult, and were not studied as part of this project. (Cirrus is far infrared emission from dust in the solar system and the Galaxy.)

Summary of Chapter One

While the orbital configuration of the satellite precluded the detection of debris below 900 kilometers, IRAS was an extremely useful instrument, albeit unintentionally, for orbital debris studies. The sensitivity of the United States Space Command (USSPACECOM) ground-based radars decreases above 500 kilometers, which makes IRAS a useful tool for detecting debris. Coincidentally, the spatial density of the entire tracked satellite population is greatest between 800 and 1100 kilometers. Additionally, two of the largest satellite fragmentations to date are an Agena D rocket that launched Nimbus 4 and KOSMOS 1275. The Agena was in an orbit at an inclination of 99.79° when it fragmented on 17 October 1970 and an altitude of 1076 kilometers. The KOSMOS 1275 payload had an orbital inclination of 82.96° when it fragmented on 24 July 1981 at an altitude of 977 kilometers. The Agena rocket created 337 debris fragments and KOSMOS 1275 created 249 fragments that could be detected by USSPACECOM (Johnson and Nauer 1987). Additionally, six Delta rocket second stages fragmented in Sun-synchronous orbits between 905 and 1513 kilometers before the deployment of IRAS. Almost all of this debris is still in orbit and is representative of a larger untracked population. Given this scenario, it would seem that the de-glitcher was effective in one of the most densely populated debris regimes.

Still, users of the Sky Brightness Images should bear in mind that no attempt was made to find or remove non-astronomical point-like sources during the "cleaning" process. Many point-like sources can be found in the Sky Brightness Images that do not appear in the same place in different sky coverages. When examining small point sources on these Images one can easily be fooled, unless at least two Images are compared. These non-confirming sources are generally due to asteroids and orbital debris.

Near Field Source on IRAS Sky Brightness Image



<u>Figure 6</u>: One hundred forty-three near field sources were removed in the data processing before the release of the Sky Brightness Images to the general scientific community. The near-field source seen in this image has illuminated all the detectors in both 12 μ m (blue) and 60 μ m (red) detector modules. This source passed in front of the focal plane perpendicular to the scan direction. Each point corresponds to a different detector.

CHAPTER TWO

The Search for Moving Sources in the IRAS Sky Brightness Images

1. The IRAS Moving Source and Cometary Dust Trail Survey

In a systematic examination of 1836 band 1, 2, 3, and occasionally band 4, Sky Brightness Images, 466 sources (Fig. 7) that are thought to be Earth orbiting satellites, were discovered. During the survey one new cometary dust trail, associated with the periodic comet Pons-Winnecke, was also found (Dow and Sykes 1988, Sykes and Walker 1992)

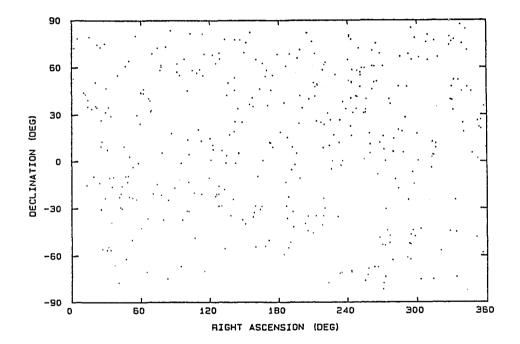
The IRAS Sky Brightness Images and the CRDD are the primary sources of information about the Earth orbiting objects found in this survey. The Sky Brightness Images were used to find the Earth orbiting objects and their positions. Using these positions, more detailed information was obtained from examining the CRDD. A complete set of Sky Brightness Images is located at Steward Observatory; however, the only US depository for the CRDD is IPAC.

The Sky Brightness Images were constructed from scans of the sky acquired during a given HCON. The Images are divided into 212 fields that are located on 15° centers and have 2 arc-minute pixels that have a resolution of four to six arc-minutes. The Sky Brightness Images are actually 16.5° on a side to allow for some overlap. The sky was mapped in each of the four IRAS passbands. In constructing the Sky Brightness Images the detector outputs were "phased" so that the flux from a fixed source, which was observed by different detectors, would map onto the same location. In a single passband Image, a moving source appeared to be two point sources very close together—corresponding to the two focal plane detector modules. As seen in Figure 2, however, the

image of a moving source was extended when more than one Sky Brightness Image from different passbands in the same field were superposed. The CRDD contains a record of the date and Universal Time of all observations. The angular motion, the observed flux from a source and the average sky background registered in each detector, as a function of the sampling rate, can also be determined from the CRDD.

Fifty-four sources, forty-five of which are best described as objects in Earth orbit (Table 2), were selected from the original sample to determine their orbital and thermal characteristics. The other nine objects are asteroids, flashes from the internal reference source or possibly cosmic rays. The sources are characterized by (1) their extent across a Sky Brightness Image when three bands are overlaid (as far as 40 arc-minutes in some cases), (2) their apparent brightness on an Image and (3) their orientation along the in-scan direction. The fifty-four sources were chosen so that at least one object representing each of these three different types that were seen on the Sky Brightness Images. Several sources that appeared unusual, as well as a few examples where two sources appeared close together on an Image, were also selected. Scientifically, a random approach to selecting the sources may have been equally, if not more, appropriate. The impetus for the appoach used in this study, however, was to sample as many different types of sources as possible. The number of objects that could be examined was limited by the large amount of interactive computer time required to extract the CRDD using the IPAC magnetic tape archives.

Distribution on the Sky of Objects Discovered During the IRAS Moving Source and Cometary Dust Trail Survey



<u>Figure 7:</u> The distribution of 454 sources discovered on the IRAS Sky Brightness Images. The 12 near-field sources discussed in Chapter One are not plotted. On an equal-area projection, a concentration of objects towards the the north celestial pole would be obvious.

TABLE 2
Flux Density and Angular Motion of Earth Orbiting Sources

source #	81 (A)	81 (3)	B2 (A)	BS (8)	83 (A)	83 (8)	84 (A)	# (B)		NS CC 1000
15	21.44	21.45	12.26	80.39	27.19	23.33	7.74			=
16	10,74	96.46	113.64	111.10	152.27	305.23	347.26	433.44	53.00	229.00
47	793.32	364.15	1054.10	1968.54	207.47	419.03	JW .20	205.56	72.00 6.12	354.00
44	107.18	45.41	. 4),19		29.54	44.47	313.90	132.93		331.00
49	18.49	19.64	19.08	35.47			713.74	134.73	270.09	465.00
74	44.22	29.61	44.35	32.29	19.92	20.50			214.00	284.00
75	17.66	31.08	13.38	2.37	30.71	39.75			71.00	389.00
94	52.54	112.78	203.27	109.99		13.99	28.27		1.29	797.00
95	48,18	49.29	49.66		25.74	19.71	10.13	19.71	42.33	215.00
102	103.56	108.49	75.60	60.20	13.09	12.24	10.13	19.71	71,00	344.00
102	17.15	42.45	29.77	49.51	17.60	22.76			3,44	503.00
104	123.40	132.35	103.09		207.57	249.74	186.79		90.00	376.00
109	121.34	155.63	133.30	155.98	211.58	467.75	204.09		76.00	446.00
133	58,53	54.65	119.63	137,19	462.66	197,14	(84.89		68.00	344.00
163	21.12	19.72	31.75	18,56		197.14			42.00	252.00
176	185.84	376,64	14.66	274.97	287.44				121.00	312.00
177	175.63	34.89	196.47	226.22	47.51	20.72	357.07	229.33	42.50	473.00
193	129.76	104.32	170.46	169.63	44.51	63.66	469.49	193.44	139.00	339.00
194	15.41	15.25	7.78	7.95	*****	53.48			16.52	332.00
214	69.70	90.13	79.44	7.33					4.57	484.99
215	35.33	44.35	34.77	38.76		273.96	184.12	174.74	44.94	425.00
228	217.44		397.99	30.76	14.59	29.84	11.61	18.54	196.96	442.00
230	11.70	12.15	20.43	21.01		126.47			5.27	323.00
231	36.69	44.44	65.53	21.41	9.72	8.50			8.19	290.00
250	44.43	53.71	52.16		***	16.50			25.54	392.00
251	55.74	39.37	30.12	58.89	225.96	275.01	18.43	36.10	81.00	393.00
252	69.63	70.15	103.24		11.70	21.71			16.40	330.00
253	167.20	114.70	175.14	43.26	40.19	42.16			7.91	316.00
278	36.13	44.95	55.54	145.66	44.55	51.44			14.12	378.00
200	14.68	10.66	18.72	58.37	7.18	15.97			47.60	345,00
281		7.73	25.51	17.21	11.46	12.30			27.57	340.00
2117	12.37	12.20	17.20	14.87		7.45			4.43	217.00
305	3,73	4.78	10.76		5.15	4.59			5.26	325.00
333	303.45	135.40	58.47	13.58	3.48	3,94			4.46	274.00
365	123.42	145.74	141.31	304.48	152.49	114.63			9.05	294.00
368	32,35	36.63	1,40	111.20	163.52	178.31	248.78		41.00	394.00
369	26.91	25.13	39.27	23.94	34.36	19.57	17.46	18.05	80.75	534.00
371		43.13	39.47	36.78	4.43	16.14			5.78	317.00
372	31.57	10.02	37.50	102.76		41.69			16.90	
373	7,56	7.74	14.51	44.09	14.75	10.52			4.87	312.00
375	73.27	136.59	34,00	13.68	7.17	6.93			5.30	200.00
376	43.49	78.19	44,95		133.05		30,64	65.44	41.00	741.00
415	14.33	21.26	46,75 27.61	19.72	173.79	232.53	73.64		121,04	564.00
453	353.68	404.59	168,30	** **	7.11	6.17			31.60	337.00
458	27.59	18.47	17.02	84.78		105.99	130.09		46.48	237.00
		40.71	11.45	21.03	4.00	3.40			3.49	474.00

column 1 = source number column 2 - 9 = module A and B flux density in band 1 (B1) through band 4 (B4) quoted in Janskys column 10 = angular motion of source as seen from IRAS in arc-minutes/second column 11 = band 1/band2 color corrected temperature in degrees Kelvin

The first step in the search procedure was to superpose and display the HCON 1 Sky Brightness Images from band 1, 2 and 3 on an image processing system. Similarly, HCON 2, and when available HCON 3, Images were displayed in separate frames. These frames were then "blinked" against one another to find sources that either showed movement or completely disappeared. To facilitate finding debris, payloads, comets, asteroids, astronomical sources that might have been missed during the compilation of the Point Source Catalog, or anything that appeared unusual, an existing program (developed by the Infrared Group at Steward Observatory) that placed a small cursor over any source that was listed in the Small Scale Structure Catalog or the Point Source Catalog, was used when examining each image.

The right ascension and declination of an object were determined directly from the Sky Brightness Image by using a screen management routine developed at IPAC. This routine involved placing a cursor over a desired location on the Image with a trackball and then writing the coordinates to an output file. Given the position of a source, the IRAS CRDD that corresponded to the observation could be obtained. When examined closely, however, the moving sources appeared to have a jagged shape on the Sky Brightness Images simply because the pixels are square in shape. This made defining the exact center of an object a matter of visual judgment. While the position may have been in error by one or two pixels, it was not significant enough to make finding the CRDD a problem. Typically, the image of a piece of debris or a payload covered six to eight pixels when band 1, 2 and 3 Sky Brightness Images were overlaid.

The second step in the project was to examine the IRAS CRDD for all fifty-four sources. Two visits were made to IPAC to obtain the CRDD. Since it was known in which of the three HCON's the Earth orbiting object appeared, the full focal plane detector outputs for

no more than three SOP/OBS had to be examined. Still, this represents 62 x 3 or 186 CRDD strip charts for every source! The most efficient way to examine the CRDD was interactively on a computer terminal. Forty seconds of data, centered on the time of observation, were viewed for each detector. A moving source in one set of SOP/OBS was distinguished by spike-like profiles in the CRDD strip charts near the specified Universal Time. The CRDD from the other candidate SOP/OBS showed only background noise. After the correct SOP/OBS was located, the CRDD strip charts were separated according to passband making it easier to identify the detectors which observed the source. The path of the source in front of the focal plane was defined by the strongest signals in each passband. In all cases, the flux from a moving source was registered by two or three detectors in each passband.

2. Characteristics of Earth Orbiting Objects Observed by IRAS

The methods employed in this study to determine the angular motion, flux density, temperature and inclination of the 45 Earth orbiting objects, are outlined in the following sections. A catalog that contains the passband, position and HCON for all 466 objects can be found in the Appendix 1 of this document.

2.1. Angular Motion and Altitude Predictions

To determine the approximate angular rate of the Earth orbiting objects found in this survey, the distance between two detectors over which the source passed was divided by the time difference between the peak fluxes in the corresponding detectors (Fig. 8). The timing information and the specific detectors that registered the maximum flux are found in the CRDD. The CRDD used for this project was not "time-shifted" to account for the

33

IRAS scan rate. The distance between detectors is listed in the IRAS Explanatory

Supplement (IRAS Catalogs and Atlases 1988). Generally, information from the 12 and

25 µm passband detectors was used to determine angular motions, although, for sources

moving in front of the focal plane in the y-direction, any two detectors in any passband

could have been used. This is because the sampling rate was directly proportional to the

detector width. The dimensions of all the detectors, however, are roughly the same in the

z-direction. For sources passing in front of the focal plane in a direction offset from the

scan direction (Fig. 9), the band 1 and band 2 detectors had to be used because they had the

highest sampling frequency.

Point sources always passed in front of the focal plane and in the image direction with an

apparent angular motion equal to the IRAS scan rate—3.85 arc-minutes/second. Since the

focal plane was 46 arc-minutes in diameter in the y-direction, a point source crossed the

focal plane in 11.95 seconds. This means that a point source was always sampled three

times on a detector. The sampling frequency v_S is determined by calculating the dwell time

T_d on a detector and then dividing by the sampling rate t_s:

$$v_S = T_d/t_S$$

By definition: $T_d = x/\omega$

where: x = detector width

 ω = angular motion

For the 12 and 25 µm detectors:

 $T_d = x/\omega = 0.76$ arc-minutes/(3.85 arc-minutes/second) = 0.19 seconds

∴ $v_S = T_d/t_S = 0.19$ seconds /0.0625 seconds = 3.04

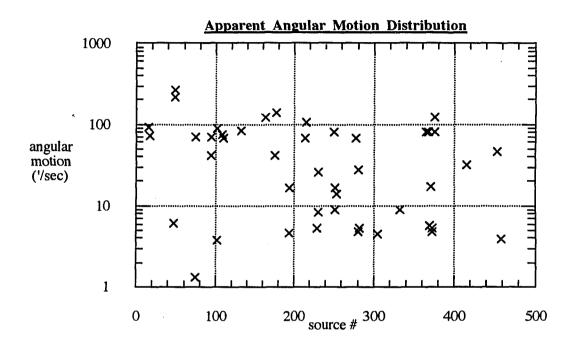


Figure 8. There are 20 sources with angular motions less than 25 arc-minutes/second that may be artificial satellites tracked by the USSPACECOM. The remaining 25 sources may be small pieces of untracked debris close to the IRAS focal plane. Of the nine sources that are not plotted, three were found to be cosmic ray events, three were flashes associated with the internal reference source and three were asteroids. Cosmic ray events have very high angular motions and illuminate one or a few detectors simultaneously. The internal reference sources were flashed at the beginning and end of each survey scan to monitor the responsivity of the system. It is unclear why these flashes are seen on the Sky Brightness Images and why they have the same appearance as the Earth orbiting sources. (Two sources, 109 and 214, both have an angular motion of 68.0 arc-minutes/second.)

Dimensions of a 12 µm Detector Indicating the Maximum Distance in Front of the Focal Plane that an Object Can Travel

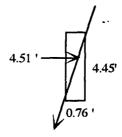
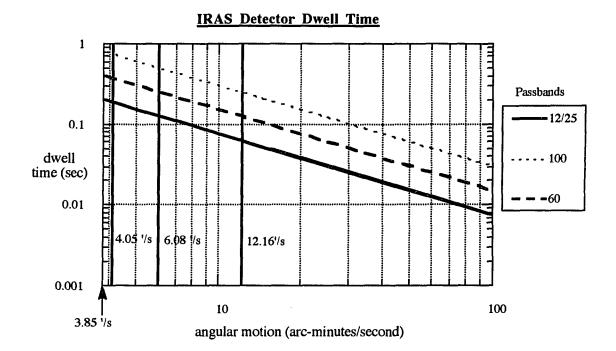


Figure 9: For sources moving in front of the focal plane at an angle, the distance across the detector will be no more than 4.51 arc-minutes for the 12 µm detectors. (See the dwell time calculation outlined in the text.) With regard to the detection of orbital debris, large detectors with high sampling frequencies are desirable for reliable fluxes, particularly for fast moving sources.



<u>Figure 10</u>: IRAS detector dwell times for sources moving in front of the focal plane in the y-direction. A source moving with an angular motion of 4.05 arc-minutes/second has a sampling frequency of three; whereas, a source moving at 6.08 arc-minutes/second has a sampling frequency of two and a source moving equal to or greater than 12.16 arc-minutes/second had a sampling frequency of one.

This simple calculation has some important implications for moving sources. Any moving source which crossed the focal plane in the y-direction in 3.78 seconds or less (an angular motion equal to or faster than 12.16 arc-minutes/second) was sampled a maximum of one time on a detector. This means that sources moving slower than 12.16 arc-minutes/second should have the most reliable fluxes and the most accurate temperatures (Fig. 10). While objects moving equal to or faster than this rate may have been fully sampled, it is equally likely that they were only partially sampled on the edge of a detector. Only nine sources were found that could have been sampled three times and four were found that could have been sampled twice. The remaining 31 sources were sampled no more than once. These sources are probably very close to the focal plane given their very high angular motions. The method used to determine accurate fluxes in view of this problem is discussed in the next section.

There are two sources of error associated with calculating the angular motion of an Earth orbiting source observed by IRAS. The first source of error results from trying to locate where on the detector most of the flux was sampled. The second possible error is in knowing the exact time that the peak flux was sampled. Clearly, the two errors are related. For example, a source that passed between detectors 51 and 23, which are separated by 16.89 arc-minutes, in 3.38 seconds would have an approximate angular motion of five arc-minutes/second. If the actual time is in error by \pm 0.125 seconds (two times the sampling rate) the angular motion will be in error by \pm 0.2 arc-minutes/second. This is the largest angular motion error that is expected because moving sources were never sampled more than three times. For the more slowly moving sources the error should be less than this. Given this small error and the high angular motions of the majority of the sources, a more precise error analysis is unnecessary.

With one exception, all 45 debris particles and artificial satellites pass in front of the focal plane in the image direction. In other words, the objects are moving in the same direction that iRAS is scanning. Half of these objects were found to be in orbits inclined to the scan direction and the other half, although they did not always pass though the boresight of the telescope, were not offset from the y-axis of the focal plane. The objects that are moving along the scan direction must be in orbits that are similarly inclined to IRAS. The fact that there are so many sources that behave in this manner is not surprising, given the population of objects in highly inclined orbits (Fig. 11).

Using the value of the angular motion (n'), as measured on the CRDD, the altitude of a source passing in front of the focal plane and moving in nearly the same plane and the same direction around the Earth as IRAS can be determined (Fig. 12) according to the following formula:

$$n' = (n_{scan} - n_{iras}) - (n - n_{iras}) [R/(R-r)]$$

where n_{scan} is the IRAS scan rate (3.85 arc-minutes/second), n_{iras} is the angular motion of IRAS as seen from the center of the Earth (3.5 arc-minutes/second), $n=(GM/R^3)^{1/2}$ is the true angular motion of the object as seen from the center of the Earth, r is the distance of IRAS from the center of the Earth and R is the distance between the source and the center of the Earth. The gravitational constant is G and M is the mass of the Earth. This formula, derived in Appendix 4, is general for debris in circular orbits. This is a valid approximation because atmospheric drag and solar radiation pressure tend to circularize the orbits of debris particles.

1983 Inclination Distribution Objects Tracked by the USSPACECOM Above 900 kilometers

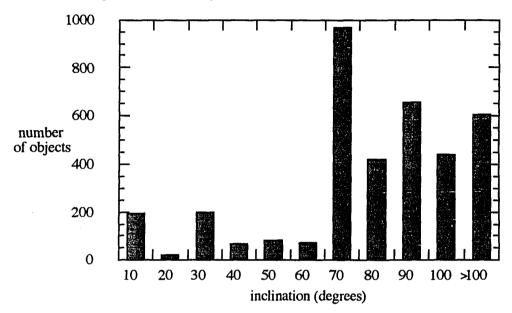


Figure 11: There were 3570 objects in orbit at altitudes higher than 900 km in 1983. Almost all of these objects were in near circular orbits: 48% had eccentricities less than or equal to 0.01 and only 9.9% had eccentricities greater than 0.5. Although the distribution of debris with inclination is essentially uniform at altitudes below 1000 kilometers, most payloads and debris fragments above this altitude are distributed at inclinations near 75°, 63° (Plesetsk launches), 82°, 100° (Sun-synchronous orbits), >100° (debris from fragmentations in Sun-synchronous orbits), 90° (polar orbits) 28.5° (Kennedy Space Center launches) and 0° (Geostationary orbits).

Apparent Rate of Artificial Satellite Motion in Front of the IRAS Focal Plane

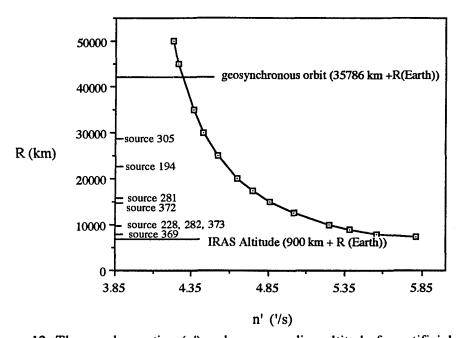


Figure 12: The angular motion (n') and corresponding altitude for artificial satellites moving in circular orbits around the Earth and in a similar orbital plane to IRAS. R is the distance to the satellite from the center of the Earth and $n' = (n_{scan} - n_{iras}) - (n_{iras}) [R/(R_{scan} - n_{iras})]$ r)]. As R approaches infinity, n' will approach 3.85 arc-minutes/second. The sources indicated on the graph are at the following predicted altitudes for circular orbits as calculated from the above formula: Source 369 (7525 km), Source 373 (9550 km), Source 228 (9800 km), Source 282 (9900 km), source 372 (14900 km), Source 281 (15700 km), Source 194 (23000 km) and Source 305 (28000 km). The angular motion of each source used in this calculation is listed in Table 2. Sources 373, 282, 228 and 305 were correlated with known artificial satellites. Of these four objects, only Source 228 was in a near circular non-geosynchronous orbit. The angular motion of Source 228 was 5.27 arcminutes/second. If an error of ± 1 arc-minute/second is assumed, the predicted distance range for this object is between 10,700 kilometers and 9000 kilometers. Source 228 was correlated with the payload FTV-ERS 10 at an altitude of 10,178. Source 373 and Source 282 were in highly eccentric orbits and Source 305 was a geosynchronous satellite. Geosynchronous satellites have a non-uniform apparent motion, which is a function of the inclination and the eccentricity of the orbit, as seen from IRAS or from the surface of the Earth. This type of satellite circles the Earth in 1436 minutes, equalling the Earth's sidereal rotation period relative to the celestial background. Geosynchronous satellites that are in equatorial orbits are called geostationary satellites. There are about 300 geostationary satellites in Earth orbit. Satellites with very high angular motions are likely to be small pieces of debris, such as paint flakes, directly in front of the focal plane.

For objects that are very close to the focal plane this formula will break down. A more sophisticated calculation would take eccentric orbits and various inclinations in to account, although some knowledge of where the object was observed in its orbit would be required.

2.2. Flux Density and Temperature

Before accurate temperatures for the 45 Earth orbiting objects could be calculated, reliable flux densities had to be determined for every source. While the flux density of astronomical sources can be estimated using the cursor routine described in section one of this chapter, it is not a reliable method for moving sources. This is because a moving source appears in one SOP/OBS and the Sky Brightness Images are *averages* of several scans from two or three SOP/OBS. The flux density of a moving source can only be determined from the CRDD.

The analog-to-digital units (ADUs) listed in the CRDD were converted to flux densities using the following formula:

(ξ) (BCF)
$$(10^{-26}) = F$$
(Δλ)

 ξ = number of ADUs

BCF = band conversion factor (Watt m^{-2})

 $\Delta \lambda$ = bandwidth (Hz)

F = flux density (Janskys)

where: 10^{-26} Watt m⁻² Hz⁻¹ = 1 Jansky

The BCF, which takes the detector sensitivity into account, was set at the beginning of each scan by the flux calibrator, "internal reference source", described in Chapter One.

Source 373 Gaussian Fit to Flux Density

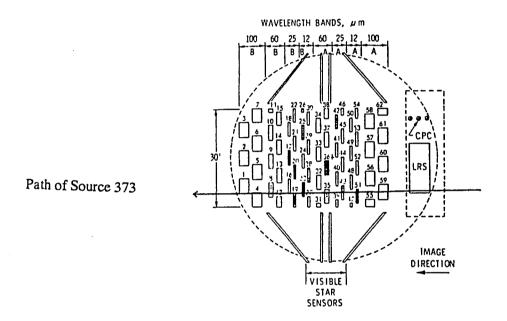


Figure 13a: Source 373 passed over the lower portion of the IRAS focal plane. This object is the final stage of the Soviet SL-6 rocket that launched Kosmos 1409, an early warning payload, on 22 September 1982. Source 373 had an angular motion of 5.3 arcminutes/second and a color corrected temperature of 280 K.

Source 373 Gaussian Fit to Flux Density Band 1

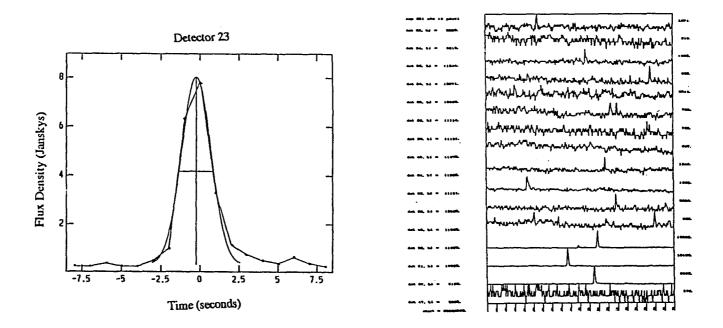


Figure 13b: On the right hand side is 20 seconds of band 1 CRDD from SOP 351 OBS 18. Source 373 passed over three detectors: 23, 51 and 27. The flux was strongest in detectors 23 and 51. The scale on the bottom of the CRDD strip chart is one second intervals of Universal Time. The scale along the right hand side is the flux of the source above the background in units of 10e-16 W m⁻². The left hand side list the band and detector number followed by the background level in the same units. At the bottom left corner of the chart is the UTCS start time for this piece of CRDD. At the top on the left is the SOP/OBS designator. On the left hand side of the figure is the profile from detector 23. One second, or sixteen samples, are plotted. The points indicate when the flux from the source was sampled. The flux density as determined from detector 23 was 7.76 Janskys.

Source 373 Gaussian Fit to Flux Density Band 2

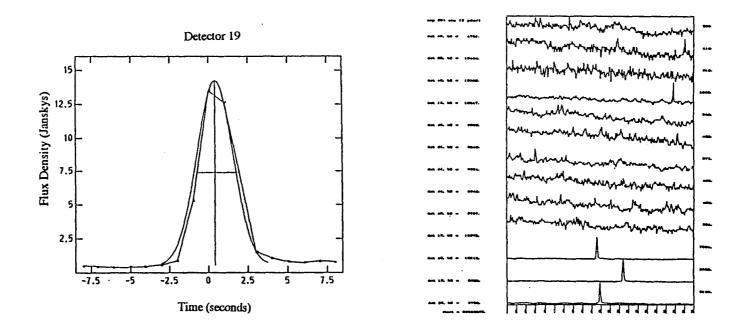


Figure 13c: On the right is band 2 CRDD for Source 373. The source passed over detectors 19 (13.68 Jy) and 43 (14.51). One second of data has been plotted on the left for detector 19.

Source 373 Gaussian Fit to Flux Density Band 3

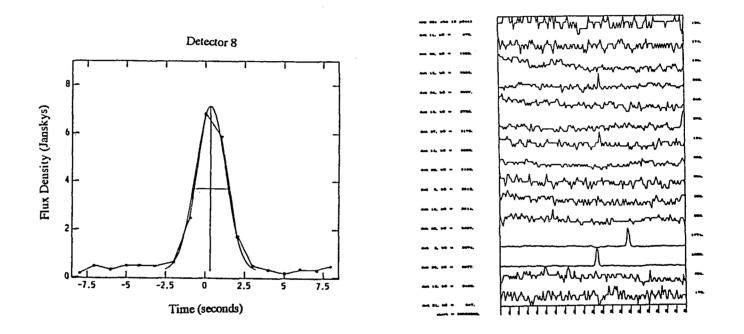


Figure 13d: The CRDD for Source 373 band 3 is on the right. The source passed closest to detectors 35 (7.17 Jy) and 8 (6.93 Jy). Sixteen samples, which is 2 seconds of data, for detector 8 has been plotted and fit with a Gaussian profile on the left.

Although the sampling rate was high, it was obvious from examination of the source profiles in the CRDD strip charts that, in numerous cases, the flux was not fully sampled on the center of the detector (Fig 13 a-d). To get a better estimate of the true flux density in each passband, therefore, the profiles from each detector that the object passed over were replotted and then fit with a Gaussian. One second of data for band 1 and band 2 and two seconds of data for band 3, which corresponded to 16 samples of the flux for every source, were plotted. A more sophisticated fitting routine was not required due to the quality of the data. Typically, at least one detector in each passband pair sampled the flux near the center of the detector, although for some sources the flux from the object was never fully sampled in any detector. The Gaussian routine proved effective in getting a better estimate of the peak flux in each passband. For example, there were 43 sources that had data in each band 1 module. In 86% of the cases, the higher flux agreed to within 50% of the flux in the other module and for 54% of the cases, this agreement was to within 25% of the flux in the other module. In band 2, there were 34 sources where a detection was made in both modules. Of the higher of the two fluxes, 85% agreed to within 50% of the lower flux, while 59% of the higher fluxes agreed to within 25% of the lower of the two values. The average sky background, over the time interval specified, was provided when the CRDD strip charts were generated. These values were subtracted before the Gaussian fitting of the flux profiles.

By multiplying a blackbody spectrum with the spectral response of the IRAS detectors, the color temperature of the sources in the survey can be calculated—given the ratio of the observed flux densities in two bands. The spectral response values of the IRAS passbands can be found in the IRAS Explanatory Supplement (IRAS Catalogs and Atlases 1988). Alternatively, color correction factors, listed in the Explanatory Supplement, can be used to determine the color temperature of objects observed by IRAS. The temperature must be

color corrected because the flux may be non-linear across the bandpass. A partial listing of the color correction factors from the Explanatory Supplement is found in Table 3.

In this study, the higher of the two band 1 fluxes and the higher of the band 2 fluxes were used to determine the $12/25~\mu m$ color temperature. To calculate the color corrected temperature of an object using the Color Correction Tables:

- 1. Determine the IRAS observed flux ratio J = F1/F2
- 2. Find the nearest entry in the Aumann color correction table for J. Use linear interpolation if an exact match is not found.
- 3. Multiply J by C2 and divide by C1. This is the band 1/band 2 color corrected flux.
- 4. Find the new ratio in the Aumann table and read the value of the color temperature in the left hand column.

where:

J = band 1/band 2 IRAS observed flux flux

F1 = band 1 IRAS observed flux

F2 = band 2 IRAS observed flux

C1 = band 1 color correction factor

C2 = band 2 color correction factor

The 12/25 µm color temperatures of the 45 Earth orbiting objects are plotted in Fig. 14. In almost every case, the 12/25 µm color corrected temperatures were significantly different from the 25/60 µm color corrected temperature—sometimes by as much as 50%. This may be because the band 1 and band 2 detections were de-glitched by a different amount when compared to the band 3 detections. This error is difficult to trace as it is impossible to say when the de-glitcher was triggered. More likely, the temperature discrepancy is due to the fact that most of the flux from a 300 K blackbody falls in band 1, where the spectral response is 46%, and band 2, where the response is 50%. In band 3 and band 4, which is the Rayleigh-Jeans portion of the spectrum for a 300 K blackbody, the spectral response is much lower, 36% and 17% respectively. The color temperature determined from the

TABLE 3 COLOR CORRECTION FACTORS*						
Temperature	<u>C1</u>	<u>C2</u>	<u>F1/F2</u>			
400	1.01	1.22	1.272			
300	0.92	1.15	0.785			
290	0.91	1.15	0.734			
280	0.90	1.14	0.684			
270	0.89	1.13	0.633			
260	0.88	1.12	0.583			
250	0.87	1.11	0.534			
240	0.86	1.09	0.486			
230	0.85	1.08	0.438			
220	0.85	1.07	0.392			

^{*(}IRAS Catalogs and Atlases 1988).

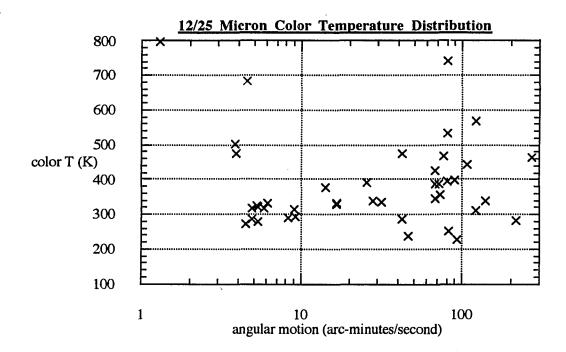


Figure 14: The color corrected temperatures for 45 Earth orbiting sources observed by IRAS. It should be noted that due to the orientation of IRAS relative to the Sun, many objects were observed near a phase angle of 90° and will therefore be at their hottest or their coolest temperature when they were detected (Lebofsky and Vilas 1990). This may contribute to the wide range of $12/25~\mu m$ color temperatures observed.

Rayleigh-Jeans tail is less accurate than the color temperature determined from points near the peak of the blackbody curve. Yet another possible explanation for the different color temperatures is that this analysis treats Earth-orbiting objects as blackbodies, when technically they are graybodies whose emissivity may change as a function of wavelength.

The temperature of a piece of debris is a function of its orientation with respect to incoming sources of radiation, the amount of time that it was illuminated, its geometry, its rate of rotation and the material of which it was constructed. The purpose of the thermal control surfaces on a payload, operational or not, is to keep a satellite from having significant swings in temperature as it passes in and out of the Earth's shadow. Debris fragments, on the other hand, have no means by which to regulate their temperature.

It can be seen in Fig. 14 that many of the slower moving sources in this study have temperatures near 300 K, which is roughly the average temperature that is expected for an object at the Earth-Sun distance. Temperature is correlated with angular motion because the slower moving sources are expected to be intact satellites which are in well defined orbits. The faster moving sources are more likely to be debris. Objects which are not intact are more likely to be subject to greater temperature swings as the object passes in and out of the Earth's shadow. The sources with low angular motions and high temperatures may be pieces of debris such as a rocket body made from aluminum, which has a very high calculated equilibrium temperature. It is also possible that, for whatever reason, these particular objects have poorly determined fluxes because the source was not fully sampled on the IRAS detectors—leading to a poorly determined temperature. The sources with angular motions greater than 10 arc-minutes/second cover a range of temperatures because of the many different types of materials that make up the debris population. In short,

temperature implies composition regardless of angular motion. Spacecraft materials are discussed in greater detail in Chapter Three.

3. Moving Astronomical Sources

Many moving astronomical sources were also observed by IRAS, particularly asteroids, which are bright infrared sources at 12 and 25 μ m. During the mission, 1811 known asteroids were detected (IRAS Catalogs and Atlases 1988) and two new Apollo and two new main belt asteroids were discovered. Six new comets were also found (Walker *et al.* 1986).

3.1 Asteroids

The properties of 1811 asteroids (7015 sightings) with known orbits and 25 comets were determined as part of the IRAS Asteroid and Comet Survey. Asteroid diameters and albedos were calculated using a form of the "standard" thermal model based on ground based observations of Ceres and Pallas (Lebofsky 1986). Standard thermal models of asteroids have been extended to characterize IRAS observations of orbital debris (Lebofsky and Vilas 1990).

Three asteroids, 36 Atalante, 694 Ekard and 276 Adelheid were found and cataloged during the visual examination of the Sky Brightness Images part of this study because they were both bright and were not in the Point Source Catalog. The asteroids were correlated using computer software available from IPAC. It was not known during the survey that they were asteroids. It can be anticipated that there are several other asteroids in the main sample. The color corrected temperature of 36 Atalante varied between 242 K and 246 K

over a fourteen hour period; the color corrected temperature of 694 Ekard varied between 248 K and 262 K over a ten hour period and 276 Adelheid, which was sighted only once, had a temperature of 230 K. The asteroids 36 Atalante and 694 Ekhard were seen during three different orbits and 276 Adelheid was seen on one orbit on the day indicated in Table 4.

3.2 Pons-Winnecke Dust Trail

Dust trails are millimeter and larger sized particles that are ejected by some short period comets during perihelion passage into orbits near the parent comet. The particles are in orbits nearly identical to the comet and extend both ahead and behind its orbital position. Seven cometary dust trails, associated with short-period comets, were identified (Sykes *et al.* 1986) before this study. One new cometary dust trail, associated with the comet Pons-Winnecke, (Table 5) was discovered during this survey (Dow and Sykes 1988). Some of the trails extend several to tens of degrees in apparent length across the Sky Brightness Images.

Summary of Chapter Two

Artificial satellites and debris can be found on 160 of the 212 Sky Brightness Image fields covering the sky. Six or more sources can be found on twenty of the Images. Image number 209 is the most contaminated, with thirteen sources in the 16.5° square field. As demonstrated by the analysis described in this paper, however, some of these source are in fact asteroids. It is anticipated that more moving sources will be revealed when the destriped Super Skyflux Images are released by IPAC. Of the 45 sources studied, 66% have

angular motions greater than 10 arc-minutes/second and must be near the focal plane. The corrected color temperature of 76% of the objects was between 200 and 400 K.

In Chapter Three, the basic thermal behavior of artificial satellites and debris in earth orbit and the characteristics of the orbital debris population are described. It is critical to evaluate these factors during the mission planning phase of any space-based operation. Astronomical satellites using optical and infrared detection systems are particularly susceptible to interference from Earth orbiting objects. The results from this study, which complement and contradict what we know about the debris population, are also highlighted in the next chapter.

			TABLE 4			
Cha	aracteristic	s of the As	teroids Ata	lante, Ekar	d and Ade	lheid
Asteroid	Date Obs. on SBI*	RA	Dec	Diameter (km)	Phase Angle (deg)	Distance (AU)
36 Atalante	11 Oct.	6:42:31	+45:11:44	109	30.56	2.75
694 Ekard	7 July	23:40:00	+21:04:10	92.7	33.39	2.67
276 Adelheid	5 Nov.	20:51:31	+02:64:54	122	17.42	3.12

^{*}Sky Brightness Image

(Asteroid characteristics are from Tedesco 1989)

TABLE 5 Pons-Winnecke Cometary Dust Trail Positions in the Band 1, 2 and 3 Sky Brightness Images								
Image Number	HCON		<u>.</u>	RA and Dec Position				
120	1	01:04:45	-18:05:35	to	00:39:21	-20:30:20		
120	2	01:32:11	-19:06: <i>5</i> 7	to	00:59:08	-22:51:01		

CHAPTER THREE Space-Based Observations of Orbital Debris

1. Orbital Debris Population

While the threat of debris to operations in LEO currently is not acute, the trends are disturbing. In March 1983, two months after IRAS was launched, 5138 Earth orbiting objects were tracked by USSPACECOM radars. Only 5% of these objects were classified as operational payloads. The remaining objects were primarily non-operating satellites, satellite fragmentations and rocket stages and debris resulting from operational procedures (e.g. payload deployment). Over the last two decades about 120 new satellites have been launched per year, while the tracked population has increased by approximately 240 satellites annually (Johnson and McKnight 1987). As of 19 June 1991, 6883 objects of diameter 10 square centimeters and larger, were tracked by the USSPACECOM. The approximate number of operational payloads remained unchanged from the March 1983 value of 5%. Debris fragments accounted for 52.5% and spent rocket stages and non-operational payloads accounted for the remaining 42.5% (Anz-Meador 1991).

While the (former) USSR has accounted for 80% of the annual launch rate over the past decade, they only account for roughly 50% of the debris population. This is because many of their missions are designed to be short-lived and to re-enter the atmosphere within a few months. The US accounts for most of the remaining debris population. Contributions from other space faring nations are negligible. During periods of increased solar activity the debris population has remained constant or actually decreased because of increased atmospheric drag. As a result of this "self-cleaning" of the debris environment, the number of tracked satellites in orbit around the Earth is virtually the same in 1991 as it was in 1988.

It can not be ignored, however, that if the satellite population is allowed to increase unchecked, the probability of collisions between satellites will also continue to increase.

The greatest source of orbital debris is satellite fragmentations. Examination of the 1983 and 1987 USSPACECOM catalog of satellite orbital element sets (elsets) indicated that half of all space debris in orbit originated from the fragmentation of a satellite. Fragmentations are classified into three categories according to their cause: unknown (possible on-orbit collision), deliberate (e.g. alleged anti-satellite tests, disposition of sensitive equipment and structural testing) and hypergolic explosion (hypergolic fuel ignites on contact with oxidizer).

Unknown breakups account for 23% of the 103 satellites that have fragmented on-orbit since October 1991 (Rast 1991). Currently, there is only one satellite, Kosmos 1275, for which there is strong evidence that the fragmentation was the result of a hypervelocity impact from a piece of debris. The Kosmos 1275 breakup occurred in 1981 at an inclination of 83° and altitude of 1000 kilometers. It produced 249 pieces of debris that could be tracked by the USSPACECOM. Most of this debris is still in orbit (Johnson and McKnight 1987).

Three deliberate fragmentations were instigated by the US and include a structure test, the destruction of an ASAT target (the solar satellite SOLWIND) and a planned collision between a rocket body and a payload. The later occurred during an alleged Strategic Defense Initiative (SDI) testing program (Johnson and Nauer 1987). Most of the pieces from the first and last event have decayed. The only other fragmentations that were considered intentional were performed by the (former) USSR and were primarily ASAT

tests conducted prior to 1982. Historically, each deliberate fragmentation event has generated less than 100 pieces of debris eventually tracked by USSPACECOM.

Fragmentations that were the result of a hypergolic explosion have commonly generated hundreds of pieces of trackable debris. Computer simulations by the European Space Agency Orbital Debris Working Group (Rex 1990) have shown that between one and two thousand objects 1 millimeter and larger are generated in explosion events. Debris from a fragmentation event will initially remain in the same orbital plane as the parent satellite; however, it will be distributed around the Earth with other debris about the initial altitude over time by precession of the orbital plane (Rex 1990). Some of the most severe explosions have involved Delta booster second stages (Table 7)

Most operational satellites and debris from breakups can be found at altitudes near 800, 1000 and 1500 kilometers which implies that IRAS was well placed to observe orbital debris, particularly material generated by the explosions of Delta second stages. Future space based operations should consider carefully the level of acceptable risk in these altitude regions. This is particularly important for astronomical missions that may have sensitive instruments and mirrors exposed to the space environment.

2. Ground-Based Detection Systems

Surveillance of space debris in the United States comes under the jurisdiction of the USSPACECOM. This organization manages roughly 20 sensors, primarily radars, around the world. Observations are also made by other systems such as the Naval Surveillance System (NAVSPASUR), which monitors space objects as they pass over an electronic fence stretching across the US at a latitude of 33°, and interfere with a radio beam. Most

deep space satellites are monitored by passive optical detectors such as the Baker-Nunn cameras or by the Ground-based Electro-Optical Deep Space Surveillance system (GEODSS). This is because most ground based radars are limited in their detection capability to objects larger than a few centimeters in LEO. The GEODSS telescopes have a 2.1° field of view and are equipped with a 36 centimeter radiometer which measures light variations. All of these observations are routed to the Space Surveillance Center at Cheyenne Mountain in Colorado Springs where over 40000 observations are received and processed daily.

IRAS was a unique instrument with which to study orbital debris because it was a space-based system, operating across a wavelength regime that, due to atmospheric absorption and high backgrounds, is essentially inaccessible from the ground (limited ground-based observations can be done at 12 µm). Observations of centimeter-sized debris that can not be detected from Earth-based detection systems should be detected by IRAS.

3. Thermal Behavior of Artificial Satellites and IRAS Estimated Detection Capability

In order to determine the ability, compared with ground-based systems, of IRAS to detect artificial satellites and orbital debris, it is important to first understand the thermal behavior of objects in orbit around the Earth. Consider the idealized case of an isothermal object with no internal heat sources that is in thermal equilibrium with solar radiation and both reflected radiation and thermal emission from the Earth (Fig. 15). By the equation of

Sources of Radiation on a Space Vehicle in Earth Orbit

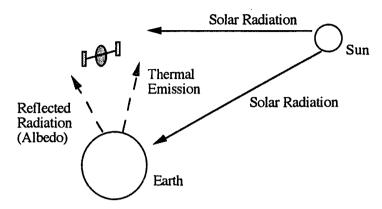


Figure 15: Satellites are irradiated from three sources: solar radiation and reflected radiation and thermal emission from the Earth. The contributions from of these sources vary with the distance and position of the satellite above the Earth, season and whether the object was in the Earth's shadow. The solar radiation incident on the upper atmosphere will vary by $\pm 3\%$ during the year due to the changing Earth-Sun distance. The mean-seasonal-average reflected radiation from the Earth, generally taken to be 36%, is a reasonable value between the latitudes of $\pm 50^{\circ}$. The mean value of this parameter varies significantly over the surface of the Earth and depends on terrain, season and cloud cover. At the poles the value is closer to 70%. (Wolfe and Zissis 1978). It might prove useful to keep a meteorological record during the DCWS mission.

thermal radiative balance the total radiation absorbed by the object must equal the radiation emitted:

$$F_T A_a \alpha_S = \sigma T^4 \epsilon_{ir} A_e$$

where:

 F_T = total incoming radiation = $[F_S + F_e + (\alpha_{th}/\alpha_s)F_{te})]$; between 200 and 2360 W m⁻²; (Fig. 17)

 F_S = solar radiation; between zero and 1400 Wm⁻² d⁻²(cos θ) χ θ = solar elongation or "phase" angle between the Sun-Earth line and the Earth centered radius vector to the satellite. It varies between 81° and 99° for all sources observed by IRAS.

 χ = percentage of time that the satellite is illuminated by the Sun. The procedure for determining χ can be found in the Appendix.3 d = distance from the Sun measured in AU

 F_e = reflected radiation from the Earth's surface (also called albedo radiation); between zero and 560 Wm⁻²

Fte = thermal emission from the Earth; between 200 and 400 Wm⁻²

 α_S = average solar absorptivity; fraction of incident radiation that is absorbed by a surface over the solar spectrum

 α_{th} = average thermal absorptivity; fraction of incident radiation that is absorbed by the thermal spectrum; $\alpha_{th} = \epsilon_{ir}$

 ϵ_{ir} = average infrared emissivity; fraction of incident radiation that is reflected from a surface at infrared wavelengths

 σ = Stefan-Boltzmann constant = 5.67 e -8 Wm⁻² K⁻⁴

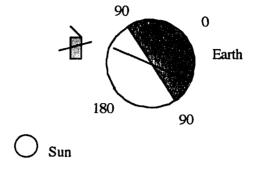
T = mean temperature - K

 A_e = area emitting radiation— m^2

 A_a = area absorbing radiation— m^2

Note: The incoming radiation F_s and F_e are zero when an object is in the Earth's shadow. Under these circumstances F_{te} is the only source of input radiation.

Phase Angle of Objects Observed by IRAS



<u>Figure 16</u>: For sources observed by IRAS, the phase angle will always be close to 90° because IRAS orbited above the Earth's terminator. This means that when a source was observed by IRAS it was passing just into or out of the Earth's shadow. An object observed near the Earth's terminator will be either at its highest or lowest temperature (Lebofsky and Vilas 1990).

Solving for the thermal radiative balance equation for T:

$$T^{4} = A_{a} \alpha_{s} F_{T}$$

$$\frac{A_{e} \epsilon_{ir} \sigma}{A_{e} \epsilon_{ir} \sigma}$$

If the total incoming radiation is equal to the solar constant (1400 W m⁻²), then the mean temperature for a flat plate and a sphere (Fig. 17) (improbable shapes for *most* satellites) equals:

$$T_{flat \ plate} (K) = \frac{[\pi r^2 \alpha_s F_T / 2\pi r^2 \epsilon_{ir} \sigma]^{1/4}}{[(F_T \alpha_s) / (2 \epsilon_{ir} \sigma)]^{1/4}}$$

$$= \frac{[(F_T \alpha_s) / (2 \epsilon_{ir} \sigma)]^{1/4}}{333.3 (\alpha_s / \epsilon_{ir})^{1/4}}$$

$$= C (\alpha_s / \epsilon_{ir})^{1/4}$$

$$= C = 204.9 \text{ to } 379.8 \text{ K (for } F_T = 200 \text{ to } 2360 \text{ W m}^{-2})$$

$$= T_{sphere} (K) = \frac{[\pi r^2 \alpha_s F_T / 4\pi r^2 \epsilon_{ir} \sigma]^{1/4}}{[(F_T \alpha_s) / (4 \epsilon_{ir} \sigma)]^{1/4}}$$

$$= \frac{[(F_T \alpha_s) / (4 \epsilon_{ir} \sigma)]^{1/4}}{280.3 (\alpha_s / \epsilon_{ir})^{1/4}}$$

$$= C (\alpha_s / \epsilon_{ir})^{1/4}$$

If the range of α_s/ϵ_{ir} is taken to be 0.1 to 10, which is typical for spacecraft materials, a sphere will have a temperature that ranges between approximately 158 K and 498 K and a flat plate will have a mean temperature between 187 K and 590 K. This assumes that the total incoming radiation is due to solar radiation. This calculation can be made more precise if the amount of reflected radiation and thermal emission received from the Earth, the duration in Earth's shadow and the phase angle are known.

 $C = 172.3 \text{ to } 319.4 \text{ K (for } F_T = 200 \text{ to } 2360 \text{ W m}^{-2})$

Flat Plate and Sphere Geometry



<u>Figure 17</u>: The shape of the satellite is important in determining its mean temperature. This figure shows the geometry of a flat plate and a sphere. For a thin flat plate, one side of the plate absorbs radiation and two sides emit radiation. A sphere will present one side, viewed as a flat plate, to the Sun; however, it will emit isotropically over its entire surface.

While it is instructive to examine the factors which dictate the thermal behavior of a satellite—incident sources of radiation, α_s , ϵ_{ir} , object geometry, Earth-Sun-satellite orientation and surface degradation, these parameters are complex and are not very amenable to a precise quantitative treatment. Still, it is evident from the above equations that the geometry of an object and the α_s and ϵ_{ir} values of spacecraft thermal control surfaces are of primary importance in regulating satellite temperatures.

Kirchoff's Law states that α is equal to ϵ at a given wavelength. With regard to satellites in Earth orbit, however, only the mean value of the solar absorptivity, α_s , and the mean value of the infrared emissivity , ϵ_{ir} , of a material are of interest. This is because objects in Earth orbit absorb radiation from the Sun and Earth at ultraviolet, visible and near-infrared wavelengths and emit radiation in the infrared. (The Sun emits 95% of its energy between 0.3 and 2.4 μ m and a 300 K blackbody emits 95% of its energy between 3 and 40 μ m.) Both quantities are dimensionless and vary between zero and one. Infrared emissivity is a weak function of surface temperature. A perfect emitter (a blackbody) has an emissivity of one; whereas, a material which has an emissivity that is independent of wavelength is called a graybody. It should be kept in mind that α_s and ϵ_{ir} can change as a function of lifetime, radiation exposure and handling before launch.

Throughout this discussion the term "absorptivity", α , is used instead of the term "albedo", a, (where 1-a = α). Albedo is a term that is used by astronomers and meteorologists to characterize the reflected solar radiation in a specified spectral region from a natural object such as a planet or an asteroid. Absorptivity is the term used by the aerospace community in all referenced publications when referring to artificial satellite components. It is suggested that the aerospace community convention be adopted when possible.

The detection capability of the IRAS detectors can easily be estimated and compared with other ground based detection systems (Fig 18a and 18b).

Defining the flux density from a source:

$$F_v(T) = \Omega \epsilon_{ir} B_v(T)$$

where: $\Omega = \pi (r/R)^2 = \text{solid}$ angle subtended by the source

 $F_v(T)$ = IRAS flux density detection limit 315 mJy for 12 μ m detectors 375 mJy for 25 μ m detectors

 $B_{\nu}(T)=$ Planck function; the brightness of the source at frequency ν and temperature T

$$\frac{2hv^3 c^2}{\exp(hv/kT)-1}$$

$$T^{4} = A_{a} \alpha_{s} F_{T}$$

$$A_{e} \epsilon_{ir} \sigma$$

:. the distance to a source R for a given object radius r:

$$R^2 = B_{\nu}(T) = \frac{\pi^2}{F_{\nu}(T)}$$

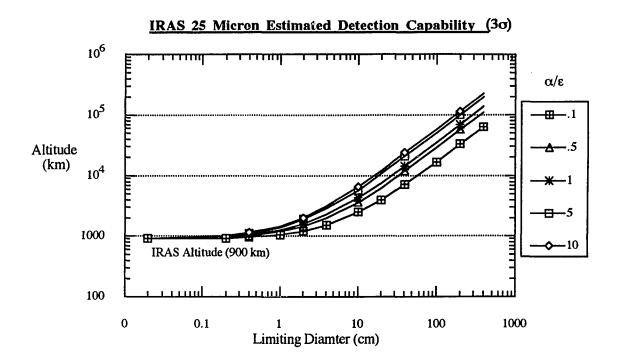
Figure 18a and 18b: The estimated detection capability for the 12 and 25 $\,\mu m$ passband detectors, as a function of altitude and diameter, for a non-rotating flat plate viewed face on. Detection limits for various values of α_s/ϵ_{ir} are shown. USSPACECOM radars are capable of seeing a baseball-sized object at an altitude of 500 kilometers. IRAS, on the other hand, could see the same size object, with the 12 $\,\mu m$ passband detectors, up to ten times that distance. Size-range distance values derived from the above formula can be found in Appendix 2.

10⁶ α/ϵ 10⁵ Altitude (km) 10⁴ 1000 IRAS Altitiude (900 km) 100 0.1 100 1000 0

Limiting Diameter (cm)

10

IRAS 12 Micron Estimated Detection Capability (3σ)



4. Spacecraft Materials

Some early studies of the thermal characteristics of debris assumed a value of 0.5 (Henize 1990) for albedo (equivalent to $\alpha=0.5$) and 0.9 for emissivity—giving 0.55 for α_s/ϵ_{ir} . Recent radiometry and photometry studies (Lebofsky and Vilas 1990), suggest that an albedo of 0.5 may be too high, because only the icy satellites of Jupiter and Saturn have albedos which are higher than this value. Examination of Table 6, however, indicates that most objects, with the exception of solar cells and black surfaces, actually have pre-launch albedos higher than 0.5 (α_s less than 0.5). While dark solar system objects such as asteroids are generally assumed to have an emissivity of 0.9 (e.g. Lebofsky and Spencer 1989), this is not the case for all satellites. Pre-launch emissivities of thermal control surfaces cover a wide range of values. While there is some evidence that debris particles become blackened as a result of the phenomena which created them (Vilas 1991), there remains a large population of objects in orbit that are not the result of a fragmentation event. An understanding of the thermal behavior of these payloads is equally important to the design of debris detection sensors for space based operations—in particular the space station Freedom.

When the ratio of the laboratory values of the α_s and the ϵ_{ir} of the most commonly used materials in spacecraft construction were examined, it was found that the range of α_s/ϵ_{ir} ranges between 0.1 to 10.0 and occasionally as high as 13.0 (e.g. Wolfe and Zissis 1978, Henninger 1984). This fact has important implications for the particle number and size distribution of the orbital debris environment. From the equation of thermal equilibrium:

$$F_T A_a \alpha_S = \sigma T^4 \epsilon_{ir} A_e$$

$$\sigma T^4_{\text{sphere}}(K) = \frac{\pi r^2 \alpha_s F_T}{4\pi r^2 \epsilon_{ir}}$$

Assuming $F_T = 1400 \text{ W m}^{-2}$:

$$\sigma T^4_{sphere}$$
 α ε_{ir}

Since

$$\sigma T_{\text{sphere}}^4 = L/4\pi r^2$$

where L = luminosity

$$r^{-2}$$
 \propto $\frac{\alpha_s}{\epsilon_{ir}}$

For example, a particle with a diameter of one centimeter and an α_s/ϵ_{ir} of 0.5 will produce the same flux as a particle with a diameter of three centimeters if α_s/ϵ_{ir} is actually lower by a factor of 10.0. If α_s/ϵ_{ir} is really higher than 0.5 by a factor of 10, particles which were originally assumed to have a diameter of one centimeter will have a diameter of 0.3 centimeters. There is strong evidence that many objects have much higher values of α_s/ϵ_{ir} than previously assumed, which implies that many objects may be smaller than previously thought. It is imperative to know the values of α_s/ϵ_{ir} for small, untracked particles, such as white paint and solid rocket aluminum oxide effluents, if the population in this size regime

is to be modelled accurately. The DCWS flight experiment sensors have been designed with a mean albedo of 0.08 ($\dot{\alpha}_s = 0.92$) and an emissivity of 0.9, or an α_s/ϵ_{ir} equal to 1.02, driving the experiment. If a paint flake observed by DCWS is assumed to have a diameter of one centimeter based on these values and the value of α_s/ϵ_{ir} is actually 0.28, the diameter of the particle will actually have been underestimated by a factor of two.

It is difficult to assign a mean value of the absorptivity (or albedo) or emissivity on all objects because debris has many different origins and surface properties. While there may be typical values within a certain size regime, small-sized debris may behave very differently, thermally, from operational payloads. The 0.08 value adopted for the DCWS design for the albedo is based soley on ground based optical observations (Henize 1990) of objects with diameters larger than 10 centimeters between the altitudes of 500 and 1100 kilometers. It is unknown if this value can be extended to other altituide regimes. The dispersion in albedo values determined by Henize (1990) is real as it should be. The very low albedo range, less than a = 0.12 ($\alpha_s = 0.88$), is incomplete because there are so few materials which have an albedo in this regime. The high albedo range, between 0.2 - 0.8 ($\alpha_s = 0.8 - 0.2$), includes many materials and may be incomplete because the objects with this albedo value may simply be harder to detect. While the above means values of albedo and emissivity may be useful in providing guidelines for the design of the DCWS, these values will not apply for all size regimes and all altitudes.

All objects in space, whether debris or components of operational payloads, can be classified four ways. Thermal control surfaces are considered to be either solar absorbers, solar reflectors, flat absorbers or flat emitters (Fig. 19). Solar absorbers, such as polished aluminum, have a high α_s and a relatively low ϵ_{ir} leading to a high temperature; whereas,

TABLE 6 Typical Solar Absorptivity and Infrared Emissivity Values for Spacecraft Materials

material	а	α_s	εir	α_s/ϵ_{ir}	T(1)	T(2
AlO3 on Buffed Al	0.87	0.13	0.23	0.57	243	289
Vapor Dep. gold on glass substrate	0.96	0.04	0.02	2.00	333	396
Vapor Dep. silver on glass substrate	0.81	0.19	0.02	9.50	492	585
solar cell (IUE)	0.14	0.86	0.84	1.02	282	335
stainless steel (polished)	0.58	0.42	0.11	3.82	392	465
fiberglass	0.15	0.85	0.75	1.13	289	344
polished aluminum 6061	0.81	0.19	0.042	4.52	408	485
unpolished aluminum 6061	0.63	0.37	0.042	8.81	483	574
anodized aluminum	0.58	0.42	0.63	0.67	254	302
silver	0.96	0.04	0.02	2.00	333	396
gold (plated)	0.70	0.30	0.03	10.0	498	593
liO white paint	0.80	0.20	0.90	0.22	192	228
plack paint (3M Velvet Black)	0.05	0.95	0.92	1.03	282	336
aluminum paint	0.71	0.29	0.27	1.07	297	353
1.0 mil thickness Aluminized Mylar*	0.84	0.16	0.54	0.30	207	247
1.0 mil thickness silverized Teflon**	0.92	0.08	0.66	0.12	165	196
1.0 mil thickness aluminized Kapton***	0.64	0.36	0.54	0.67	254	302
Magnesium Oxide White Paint	0.91	0.09	0.90	0.10	158	187
Platinum Foil	0.67	0.33	0.04	8.25	475	565

^{*}trade name fort polyethylene terephthalate

Note: α_g/ϵ_{ir} values are taken from Wolfe and Zissis (1978), Wolfe (1965), Henninger (1984), and Wertz and Larson (1991).

^{**}trade name for fluorinated ethylene propylene

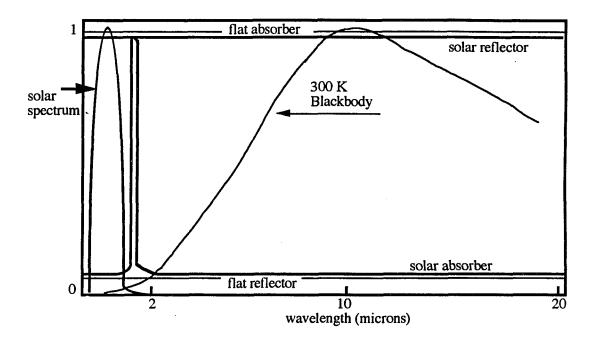
^{***}trade name for polymide

T(1) = mean temperature of a flat plate T(2) = mean temperature of a sphere a = albedo

 $[\]alpha_{\sigma}$ = solar absorptivity

 $[\]varepsilon_{ir} = infrared emissivity$

Performance of Thermal Control Surfaces



<u>Figure 19:</u> There are four types of thermal control surfaces: Flat absorber, flat reflector, solar absorber and solar reflector. Absorptivity to solar radiation should be small in order to make the response slow in going from shadow to sunlight.

solar reflectors, such as white paints have low α_s and high ϵ_{ir} , leading to a cool temperature. The flat absorbers, such as black paint, are essentially blackbodies because the α_s and the ϵ_{ir} both approach a value of one. Aluminum paint is an example of a flat reflector because it has a low absorptivity and a low emissivity.

Pre-launch laboratory measured values of α_s/ϵ_{ir} may not correspond exactly to actual values after exposure in space. The value of α_s/ϵ_{ir} can change dramatically with the thickness of a material, the condition of the surface and ultraviolet degradation. Published values of α_s/ϵ_{ir} should be used cautiously. Care must be exercised when handling thermal surfaces on the ground as scoring or fingerprints will also alter the value of α_s/ϵ_{ir} . Some materials may also have a wavelength dependence. The emissivity of white and black paint, for example, decreases to about 0.2, from a value of roughly 0.9, between 50 μ m and 75 μ m where it decreases again to 0.1 at 100 μ m (Kelly 1990). Values of α_s and ϵ_{ir} out to 20 μ m are readily available in the literature and from the manufacturer of the material. The wavelength dependence of the emissivity of certain materials may be another explanation for the non-correlation between 12/25 μ m and 25/60 μ m color temperatures, particularly for sources with high apparent motions which may be best explained as paint flakes.

Extensive data on the effects of surface degradation does not exist at this time and it is not well understood how the values of α_s/ϵ_{ir} will change with lifetime. It is anticipated that ongoing studies of the Solar Max louvers and of the Long Duration Exposure Facility (LDEF) satellite will add much to our understanding of the degradation of satellite surfaces. Preliminary analysis of the LDEF surfaces indicate that there is evidence that α_s increases with time and that ϵ_{ir} remains relatively stable (Berrios 1991).

In January 1990, after almost 6 years in LEO, LDEF was by retrieved by the Space Shuttle. The primary surface coating on the spacecraft was chromic anodized aluminum which had a pre-launch α_s/ϵ_{ir} value equal to 0.32/0.26. One of the primary purposes of the mission was to measure the effects of the LEO space environment on spacecraft thermal control coatings. Thirty-three percent of the vehicle was measured and it was found that anodized aluminum is a very stable surface in the LEO environment. The value of α_s changed by no more than 16% and the value of ϵ_{ir} did not change significantly from their pre-launch values. The exact amount of change in the values of α_s depend on the location on the spacecraft as the satellite always pointed in the same direction relative to the Sun. White paint on the other hand showed varying degrees of degradation with some increases as much as 100%. The use of white paint as a thermal control surface may therefore subject a spacecraft to unwanted thermal excursions.

5. Correlation of Sources with Artificial Satellites

The sources that have very high angular motions, and thus are quite close to the IRAS focal plane, may be associated with the one of several satellite fragmentation events. Seven Delta second stage propulsion-related fragmentations occurred between 1973 and 1981. With one exception, all of these Delta rockets were launched from Vandenberg AFB into Sunsynchronous orbits. The cause of these events has been determined to be hypergolic fuel ignition (Johnson and Nauer 1987). The cataloged debris from the Delta failures alone accounted in 1983 for 14% of the entire catalogued population. Other fragmentation events have occurred near altitudes of 900 kilometers in near-polar orbits. The Nimbus-4 Agena rocket body and the Kosmos 1275 payload breakups, due to unknown causes, were two of the worst fragmentation events prior to 1983. The events listed in Table 7 accounted in 1983 for 25% of the entire population of tracked payloads and debris in Earth orbit.

To correlate objects observed by IRAS with known artificial satellites, the monthly updated USSPACECOM two-line elsets were acquired for the 10 months of the IRAS mission. The catalog contains the basic orbital elements for each object in orbit around the Earth and is current as of the date that the catalog was generated. A software package called SATRAK (Satellite Tracking 1989), developed by Teledyne Brown Engineering for the US Air Force, was used to propagate the satellite orbits to a date and time when a satellite passed in front of the IRAS focal plane. A window of 5° centered on the IRAS boresight, and a time interval of one minute centered on the observation time were used in the propagation routine. Orbits propagated beyond 30 days are unreliable and therefore sightings which did not have a corresponding elset within that time could not be correlated.

Of the fourteen sources with the lowest angular motions, three were determined to be asteroids and three have properties similar to asteroids but could not be correlated, using IPAC developed software, with known asteroids. Of the remaining eight sources, four were correlated with known astronomical satellites. One source could not be propagated because an elset within a 30 day epoch was not available. The four sources which were correlated include the final stage of a Soviet rocket, the payload ATS 6, an Atlas-Centaur rocket body associated with the US payload Intelsat, and the payload FTV-ERS. The other three sources did not match any cataloged satellite and are either satellites with unavailable or no current elsets. There are approximately 300 satellites in orbit whose elsets fit this description. For example, 40 of the 315 satellites in geosynchronous orbit, are classified as "lost" and another 30 have "unavailable" orbital elements (Johnson and Nauer 1987).

TABLE 7* Rocket Body Fragmentations Before 1983							
		Rocket Bo	dy Fragr	nentations	Before 1	983	
<u>Satellite</u>	Inc (deg)	Breakup Altitude (km)	Event Date	#Frag. Cat.	#Frag.in orbit (1987)	Period (min)	
Nimbus-4 Agena Rocket	99.8	1076	8 Apr. 1970	344	291	106.7	
NOAA-3 Delta Rocket	102.0	1513	28 Dec. 1973	184	168	116.2	
Landsat-1 Delta Rocket	98.3	725	22 May 1975	226	89	100.3	
NOAA-4 Delta Rocket	101.7	1460	20 Aug. 1975	139	131	114.9	
Landsat-2 Delta Rocket	97.8	751	9 Feb. 19 Jun 1976	200	50	101.0	
NOAA-5 Delta Rocket	102.0	1510	24 Dec. 1977	142	141	116.3	
Landsat-3 Delta Rocket	98.9	905	27 Jan. 1981	194	172	103.	
Kosmos 1275 payload	82.9	977	24 Jul. 1981	282	278	104.8	

^{*(}Johnson and Nauer1987)

SL-6 Booster (Final Stage)

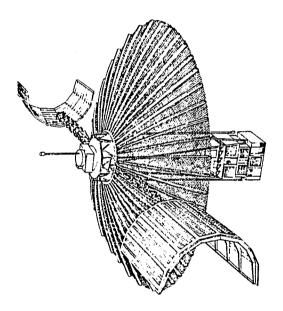
Source 373 was correlated using SATRAK with an SL-6 (US designation) booster final stage. In the 1960's the SL-6 supported all planetary missions and many lunar flights. Today it is used primarily in conjunction with early warning and communication satellite programs. It is the third most commonly used Soviet booster (Johnson 1990). This particular booster launched the early warning payload Kosmos 1409. The booster is cylindrical in shape and has a height of 3.2 meters and is 2.4 meters in diameter. It was painted yellow, green or white, in that order of likelihood, (Rast 1991) and has an inclination of 65°

Source 373 passed in front of the IRAS focal plane with an angular motion relative to the satellite of 5.3 arc-minutes/ second. It was observed at the position RA = 12:26:47 Dec = -28:34:06 on 20 July 1983. The SL-6 final stage was determined to have a color corrected temperature of 280 K.

Applications Technology Satellite (ATS-6):

The ATS-6 payload (Fig.20) was correlated with Source 305 using SATRAK. The satellite consisted of a central Earth Viewing Module which was 1.4 x 1.4 meters at the base and 1.67 meters high. A parabolic antenna nine meters in diameter formed a structure of 48 aluminum ribs which were covered by copper netting treated with dacron and silicon. ATS-6 was launched 30 May 1974 on a Titan III-C rocket into an orbit of

ATS-6 Payload



<u>Figure 20:</u> ATS-6 was the sixth satellite in the Applications Technology Satellites series. It was launched 30 May 1974 by a Titan III-C rocket and remained operational for five years.

inclination 8°. The color corrected temperature from the IRAS data was determined to be 274 K.

The angular motion of Source 305 determined from the CRDD was 4.46 arc-minutes/second compared to 4.63 arc-minutes/second as predicted by SATRAK. ATS-6 was seen by IRAS on 3 November 1983 at a range of 34300 kilometers above the focal plane at RA = 20:48:32 and Dec -04:09:14. The position of ATS-6 relative to the IRAS boresight as predicted by SATRAK differs by less than one minute in RA and by roughly six minutes in Dec with the position determined from the Sky Brightness Image. As the position from the Sky Brightness Image may not necessarily coincide with the boresight, the positional agreement is excellent given the dimensions of the focal plane.

Intelsat 4A Rocket Body

Source 282 is correlated with the Intelsat 4A Atlas Centaur rocket body and was obseved by IRAS at RA = 08:41:22 Dec +06:58:31 on 28 April 1983. The rocket body was observed at a range of 16600 kilometers from the IRAS focal plane and has a color corrected temperature of 325 K. The angular motion predicted from the CRDD was 5.26 arc-minutes/second. The rocket body passed over the focal plane 1 minute and 27 second later than predicted by SATRAK. The angular motion at this time was 5.19 arc-minutes/second. As there is good agreement between the two angular motion predictions, this is considered a correlation. The Intelsat rocket body has an inclination of 20° and is in a highly eccentric orbit.

FTV-ERS 10

The FTV-ERS 10 payload was correlated with Source 228. It was observed by IRAS on 7 July 1983 at a range of 2970 kilometers. Launched on 18 July 1963, it has been in orbit longer than any of the other satellites which were correlated in this study. It is in an orbit inclined 88°. The SATRAK generated position for the time specified agrees with the CRDD position to within a few seconds in RA and to within 17 minutes in Dec. The SATRAK angular motion is 5.27 arc-minute/second at the time of observation, which is in good agreement with the 5.07 arc-minute/second angular motion calculated from the CRDD. This payload has a color temperature of 323 K.

Summary of Chapter Three

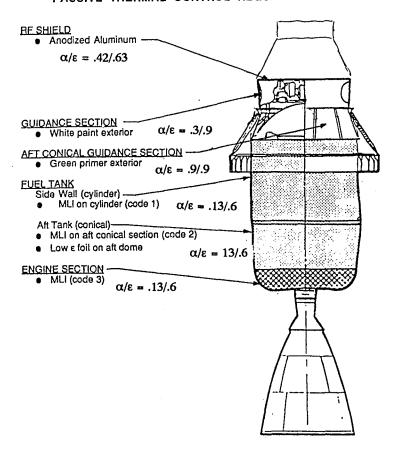
The orbit chosen for IRAS was one of the best positions from which to observe payloads and debris. Since studies by other investigators have found few objects in the CRDD and since there are only a few hundred artifacts on the Sky Brightness Images, it can be inferred that using the de-glitcher was an effective means of eliminating debris from the data stream.

The detection capabilities of space-based telescopes like IRAS far exceed the ability of ground-based systems to detect debris. While a dedicated space-based debris detection system such as the DCWS will provide the most reliable information about debris in many size regimes, the thermal properties of the most frequently used spacecraft materials should be understood before the results from such a program are analyzed. Given the LDEF results, it would seem that less effort should be placed on ground-based observations of operational satellites, and more effort placed on researching the thermal control surfaces

which have been used on objects already placed into orbit. This type of information is readily available from the manufacturers of satellites and launch vehicles (Fig. 21).

Delta Second Stage Thermal Control Surfaces

STANDARD DELTA 11 2ND STAGE PASSIVE THERMAL CONTROL REQUIREMENTS



<u>Figure: 21:</u> This schematic of a Delta second stage indicates the different thermal control surfaces on the vehicle. Residual hypergolic propellants in the second stage tanks are thought to be the prime energy source in the fragmentation of seven Delta second stages.

Summary

Space debris is an environmental problem. Although great strides have been made towards understanding the thermal behavior and distribution of this debris, it has only been in the past decade that a means of controlling and decreasing the population have been seriously addressed by NASA, ESA, COSPAR and the IAU.

The debris situation is of interest to ground-based and space-based astronomy. Images taken with wide-field CCD detectors may contain satellite trails. As many as nine trails appear on a given plate of the second-generation Palomar Observatory Sky Survey (Reid 1991). For now, this is only a cosmetic problem, as military jets flying in formation and air traffic near Los Angeles International Airport actually pose a greater annoyance. Shara and Johnston (1986) have calculated that the Hubble Space Telescope has a 1% chance of being destroyed by a piece of debris with a diameter greater than 10 centimeters and a 50% chance of being damaged by debris during the spacecraft's anticipated 17 year lifetime. Given that the spatial density of payloads and debris is lower here than in the heavily populated regions containing Sun-synchronous orbits between 800 and 1200 kilometers, one wonders what fate awaits IRAS or the Cosmic Microwave Background Explorer

Astronomical missions should be familiar with the distribution of the present debris population and with models that predict the future situation. Designers of space-based satellites should investigate the need for debris avoidance and shielding as part of mission planning. Additionally, debris mitigation methods should be incorporated into future satellite designs to avoid further compromising of the space environment.

This study of Earth orbiting objects observed by IRAS has demonstrated that, while detecting orbital debris from a space-based platform is a complex problem, it is currently the most reliable means of learning about a population of objects which is both diverse in both size and composition. Our understanding of these characteristics will undoubtedly increase as future experiments such as the DCWS are launched.

Appendix 1 Detections

- column 1: source number column 2: Sky Brightness Image number column 3: HCON

- column 4: relative visual intensity from 1 (high) to 3 (low)
 column 5: direction from which passband detections are ordered (N,S,E,W) in column 6
 coulum 6: order of detections on Sky Brightness Image
 column 7: Right Ascension (1950)
 column 8: Declination (1950)

- column 9: diameter of source on Sky Brightness Image in arc-seconds

```
1 1 1
              12301230 22h31m14s
                                    87d15m57s 40
     1
                123113 20h38m12s
                                    80d24m24s 40
     1 2 1
                       22h48m48s
                                    84d20m49s 52
     1 3 1
              33213221 13h40m21s
                                    81d57m21s 40
 5
     1 3 1
                321321
                         5h42m29s
                                    83d28m33s 24
 6
     1 3 2
                    12 10h20m37s
                                    82d 6m57s 20
 7
     2 1 0
                                     0d 0m 0s
                     0
                        0h 0m 0s
                                               0
     2 2 2
 8
                32321 22h 9m19s
                                    77d30m 9s 28
 9
     2 2 2
                321321 22h53m16s
                                    70d42m57s 28
     2 3 1
10
                 32321 22h35m42s
                                    74d58m 9s 24
11
     2 3 1
                321321
                         1h53m25s
                                    75d 0m 2s 36
     2 3 1
12
                   321
                         0h 8m43s
                                    72d13m24s 24
     2 3 0
13
                     0 22h35m31s
                                    75d 0m 1s 28
14
     2 3 0
                      0 22h36m 0s
                                    75d 0m42s 40
     3 2 2
15
                123123
                         0h20m 8s
                                    78d21m55s
     3 2 1
                123123
16
                         1h27m40s
                                    74d12m54s
                                              32
     3 2 1
17
                123123
                         1h39m15s
                                    72d35m22s 36
18
     3 3 1
                 32133
                         1h54m 9s
                                   74d56m41s 24
     3 3 1
19
                     0
                         1h 0m10s
                                   79d11m17s
     3 3 1
                     0
20
                         3h40m45s
                                   80d10m42s
     4 1 3
                 12323
21
                         6h51m56s
                                   81d31m27s 36
22
     4 1 3
                 12213
                         5h 9m51s
                                    61d13m12s 36
23
     4 1 3
                 12123
                         5h26m13s
                                    72d54m37s 36
24
     4 2 1
                 12313
                         4h57m10s
                                    72d15m19s 28
25
     4 2 1
                    23
                         4h37m48s
                                    68d38m24s 16
26
     5 1 1
                121233
                         8h10m35s
                                    67d48m27s 40
27
     5 1 2
                   123
                         7h40m48s
                                    68d22m21s 16
     5 1 2
28
                 12323
                         6h52m10s
                                    81d32m23s 36
     5 1 2
29
                   123
                         7h34m43s
                                    81d15m55s 16
     5 1 1
30
                   123
                         9h27m26s
                                    77d24m26s 28
31
     5 1 3
                 12132
                         5h25m38s
                                    72d54m59s 36
     5 2 1
32
                12312
                         8h51m46s
                                    77d53m35s 36
33
     6 1 2
               123213 10h 0m19s
                                    69d12m41s 36
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     6 3 1
               3321331 10h 6m19s
                                    75d42m48s 32
     6 3 3
35
                  3313
                         8h33m 6s
                                    68d55m34s 36
     7 1 2
36
                  3211
                         9h45m34s
                                    77d26m35s 36
     7 1 2
37
                 12313 11h55m42s
                                    68d13m41s 32
38
     7 2 1
               3221321 13h15m34s
                                   71d 2m57s 44
     7 2 1
39
                   321 12h38m21s
                                    68d15m 5s 20
     7
       3 1
              11223123 13h38m 3s
40
                                   81d51m49s 40
     7 3 1
41
                321321 13h56m39s
                                   76d 5m26s 28
     8 1 1
42
                321321 14h 7m18s
                                   68d34m29s 40
43
     8 1 1
                321321 16h12m13s
                                   77d31m56s 36
     8 2 1
44
                321321 13h15m14s
                                   71d 2m48s 40
45
     8 2 1
               321321 13h 6m53s
                                    65d54m30s 28
     8 2 2
46
                32121 16h 5m15s
                                   80d17m30s 24
47
     8 3 1
                321321 13h56m48s
                                   76d 4m20s 28
     8 3 2
48
                123123 16h 4m27s
                                   79d15m23s 28
49
     8 3 1
                123123 13h40m16s
                                   81d57m 9s 36
50
     9 1 1
                321321 16h12m 2s
                                   77d32m59s 36
51
     9 1 2
                                   71d55m18s 36
                  2232 16h38m33s
52
     9 2 2
                 32121 16h 4m40s
                                   80d14m47s 24
     9 2 3
53
                321321 17h37m 2s
                                   74d56m17s 36
54
     9 2 3
                  3322 17h24m35s
                                   70d24m40s 16
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55	9	3	1	13123		79d14m25s 68d11m59s	32 20
56	10	1	1 2	233 31321		68d37m 6s	
57 58	10 10	1 2	2	1123113		80d27m35s	
59	10	2	2	1123113		78d25m27s	32
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61	10	2	3	123113		79d28m40s	36
62	10	3	ī	2313		75d43m54s	28
63	11	1	0	0		0d 0m 0s	0
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65	11	2	1	33213321		73d51m32s	40
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67	11	3	1	3132	20h32m18s	75d40m17s	24
68	11	3	0	0	21h 0m10s	76d45m35s	40
69	11	3	0 3	12212	22h 0m10s 3h 5m27s	76d15m34s	24 28
70 71	14 14	1 2	3	12312 31211	3h 5m27s 2h38m47s	60d43m24s 54d49m41s	40
72	14	3	1	12233	3h18m 6s	64d11m 4s	36
73	15	1	3	23	5h 7m36s	57d58m23s	16
74	16	2		1231223	6h 6m49s	62d15m56s	36
75	16	2	2	313	6h31m17s	65d12m28s	32
76	16	3	2	313221	7h25m35s	58d36m36s	32
77	16	0	0	0	6h14m32s	54d51m26s	44
78	17	1	3	123312	8h21m58s	62d33m25s	28
79	17	1	3	12331	7h14m45s	56d23m13s	28
80	17	2	3	2312	8h34m50s	65d25m51s	32
81	17	2	2	1213	6h58m51s	58d 4m52s	32
82	17	2	3 2 3 2 3	32	7h36m47s	54d42m30s	12
83	17 18	3 1	2	313221 123123	7h25m42s	58d34m52s 65d 0m 4s	36 32
84 85	18	3	3	321321	10h42m 1s 9h26m14s	53d18m19s	20
86	19	1	2	123123	10h41m45s	65d 1m40s	32
87	19	ī	3 2 3 2 3 3	123	11h39m38s	54d46m58s	20
88	19	2	2	213221	11h 3m 1s	62d34m49s	40
89	19	2	3	123	11h18m 3s	58d 5m30s	16
90	19	3		32321	11h13m21s	54d15m 7s	28
91	20	2	2	31321	12h25m51s	60d47m 9s	36
92	20	2	1	123123	13h 6m31s	65d54m30s	36
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94	21	3	1	12323	14h44m33s	63d 2m13s	32
95	21	3	1	123	14h33m53s	58d18m35s	16
96 97	22 22	1	1 2	12313 322	16h 1m33s 16h43m28s	64d45m18s 56d43m41s	40
98	22	2		3213	16h32m33s	57d50m23s	16 32
99	22	2	1	12313		59d31m57s	36
100	22	2	2	1213		58d20m37s	16
101	22	2	2	321		55d10m34s	16
102	22	3	2	12323	16h44m30s	55d 0m 0s	32
103	23	1	1 2 2 2 3 3	323	18h 1m55s	60d44m36s	20
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105	23	2	1 3	1233	16h49m11s	59d28m34s	36
106	23	2	3	321	16h58m43s	59d26m 4s	16
107	23	3	3 1	123123	16h44m45s	54d59m58s	32
108	23	3	1	12313	17h32m28s	60d31m49s	36

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h 1 7 m h 1 5 m h 1 5 m h 1 5 m h 1 5 m h 1 6 m h 1 6 m h 1 2 m h 1 2 m h 1 1 0 m h 1 1 0 m h 1 1 0 m h 1 1 1 m h 1 2 1 m h 1 1 1 m h 1	9m42 9m42 9m42 0m34 9m15 6m19 1m12 2m32 2m32 2m32 2m32 2m32 2m32 2m32	h24m32 h 2m16 h 7m20 h40m53 h 7m28 h38m 8 h12m35 h 8m45 h59m39 h59m39 h56m27 h22m36 h33m15 h47m12
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165	43	1	1	0	19h25m37s	47d36m51s	32
166	43	3	1	2323	18h56m33s	47d45m58s	24
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184	48	2	2	321321	0h55m37s	34d52m59s	32
185	49	1	1	32	1h56m52s	31d21m50s	12
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187 188	49	2	1 3	321321 32131232	1h22m35s 1h41m45s	35d21m 6s 26d19m56s	28 28
189	49 49	3	3	32131232	2h 7m 6s	34d36m37s	32
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191	51	1	3 2 3	12323	3h45m53s	29d39ml1s	36
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198 199	57 57	2	2	1233123 123123	9h52m12s 10h30m17s	25d17m51s 35d12m48s	28 24
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202	58	2	1	123123	10h30m11s	35d11m16s	32
203	58	3	2	321	11h21m14s	35d51m40s	12
204	59	1	1	1231233	12h18m37s	37d23m56s	32
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206	60	2	1	12323	13h11m30s	24d23m26s	32
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208 209	61 62	1	3	213 213213	14h12m41s 15h 0m44s	25d48m22s 26d28m15s	16 16
210	62	1	3	113	14h38m54s	23d40m 7s	32
211	62	2	2	123123	14h50m59s	30d50m49s	16
212	62	3	3 2 2	1231	15h32m59s	26d27m54s	24
213	62	0	2	0	14h27m28s	24d59m19s	68
214	63	1	1	12313	16h18m 3s	31d15m14s	36
215	63	1	1	0	16h 9m52s	22d33m22s	56
216	63	3	2	1231	15h33m 2s	26d24m43s	24

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33d37m10s 32
     63 3 3
                   3123 15h54m 5s
217
                                    30d51m45s 20
218
     64 1 2
                   3211 16h55m57s
     64 2 1
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                         0h 0m58s 17d53m50s 20
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231
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                         1h40m24s
233
                   1321
                                     9d25m 0s 24
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234
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                         1h44m19s
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                0
                         9h24m34s
                                    19d17m17s 0
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                  3321
                         9h 8m 4s
                                    16d59m21s 20
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                                    12d 4m53s 20
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                123123 11h31m30s
                                    11d47m38s 28
249
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252
     83 2 1
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                                    12d 3m12s 24
     83 2 1
253
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                                   15d26m19s 28
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                                     9d 0m38s 20
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                                   15d24m28s 28
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258
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                      0 14h35m18s
                                    8d34m37s 40
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                                    16d34m24s 36
     87 2 1
260
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262
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264
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     89 2 1
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     90 2 2
266
                                    19d24m41s 20
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     90 3 3
                   123 18h40m 4s
                                    14d26m51s 16
```

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305	116	3		123	20h48m32s	-4d 9m14s	16
306	118	1	1 2	321	23h10m15s	5d22m43s	16
307 308	118 120	2	2	231 321	23h29m26s 0h51m58s	1d47m 4s -15d27m27s	24 16
309	120	ī	1	3213	01h15m53s	-09d53m24s	16
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               1231223 12h52m43s -41d48m 7s 32
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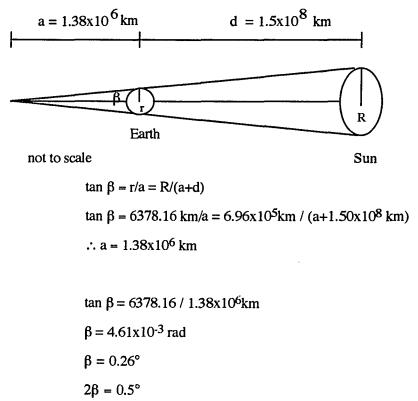
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464 211 1 2
                  3213 20h12m 9s -75d22m 9s 40
465 211 2 2
```

Appendix 2 IRAS Detection Capabilty

IRAS 12 μm Detection Capability 3σ								
Limiting			Distance					
<u>Diameter</u>	•		km					
cm								
	$\alpha_{\rm S}/\epsilon_{\rm ir}=0.1$	$\alpha_{\rm S}/\epsilon_{\rm ir}=0.5$	$\alpha_{\rm s}/\epsilon_{\rm ir} = 1.0$	$\alpha_{\rm s}/\epsilon_{\rm ir}=5.0$	$\alpha_{\rm s}/\epsilon_{\rm ir} = 10.0$			
0.02	901.90	905,61	907.96	914.98	918.58			
0.20	919.03	956.14	979.64	1049.80	1085.76			
0.40	938.05	1012.28	1059.29	1199.60	1271.52			
1.00	995.14	1180.69	1298.22	1649.00	1828.81			
2.00	1090.27	1461.39	1696.43	2398.00	2757.62			
4.00	1280.54	2022.78	2492.86	3895.99	4615.25			
10.00	1851.36	3706.94	4882.16	8389.98	10188.12			
20.00	2802.71	<i>65</i> 13.88	8864.31	1 <i>5</i> 879.97	19476.24			
40.00	4705.42	12127.76	16828.62	30859.94	38052.47			
100.00	10414.56	28969.40	40721.56	75799.85	93781.18			
200.00	19927.11	57038.81	80543.11	150699.70	186662.40			
400.00	38954.23	113177.6	160186.20	300499.40	372424.70			

IRAS 25 μm Detection Capability 3σ							
<u>Limiting</u>			<u>Distance</u>				
<u>Diameter</u>			km				
cm							
	$\alpha_{\rm s}/\epsilon_{\rm ir}=0.1$	$\alpha_{\rm s}/\epsilon_{\rm ir} = 0.5$	$\alpha_{\rm s}/\epsilon_{\rm ir}=1.0$	$\alpha_{\rm s}/\epsilon_{\rm ir} = 5.0$	$\alpha_{\rm s}/\epsilon_{\rm ir}=10.0$		
0.02	901.90	905.61	907.96	914.98	918. 5 8		
0.20	919.03	9 5 6.14	979.64	1049.80	1085.76		
0.40	938.05	1012.28	1059.29	1199.60	1271.52		
1.00	995.14	1180.69	1298.22	1649.00	1828.81		
2.00	1090.27	1461.39	1696.43	2398.00	2757.62		
4.00	1280.54	2022.78	2492.86	3895.99	4615.25		
10.00	1851.36	3706.94	4882.16	8389.98	10188.12		
20.00	2802.71	6513.88	8864.31	15879.97	19476.24		
40.00	4705.42	12127.76	16828.62	30859.94	38052.47		
100.00	10414.56	28969.40	40721.56	75799.85	93781.18		
200.00	19927.11	57038.81	80543.11	150699.70	186662.40		
400.00	38954.23	113177.60	160186.20	300499.40	372424.70		

Appendix 3 To Determine the Percentage of an Orbit χ that is illuminated by the Sun



(Approximately 1.9% of this circular orbit is in the Earth's shadow)

Geosynchronous satellites are located roughly 6.67 Earth radii from the center of the Earth:

$$\tan \beta = 6378.16 / 6378.16 (6.67)$$

 $2\beta = 17.06$ °

(A maximum of 4.8% of a geosynchronous satellite's orbit will be spent in the Earth's shadow.)

Appendix 4 To Determine the Altitude of a Source Observed by IRAS

n = true angular motion of a satellite in orbit as seen from the center of the Earth

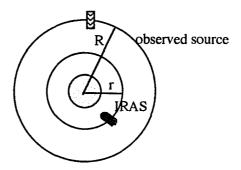
$$= (GM/R^3)^{1/2}$$

where

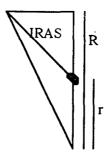
R=semi-major axis of the Earth

M=mass of the Earth

 $n_{iras} = 3.5 \text{ //s} = \text{the angular motion of IRAS}$ as seen from the center of the Earth $n_{scan} = 3.85 \text{ //s} = \text{the scan rate of the IRAS}$ satellite



Assume you are in a rotating frame of reference—ie IRAS is motionless above the Earth. The angular motion of the satellite as seen from the center of the Earth is n - n iras.



Since IRAS is closer, the apparent angular motion of the satellite as seen from IRAS (over small angles) is:

$$(n - n_{iras}) [R/(R-r)]$$

In the rotating frame, IRAS is scanning at a rate:

$$n scan - n iras = 3.85 /s - 3.5 /s = 0.35 /s$$

So, the apparent rate of satellite motion n'across the IRAS detector plane is :

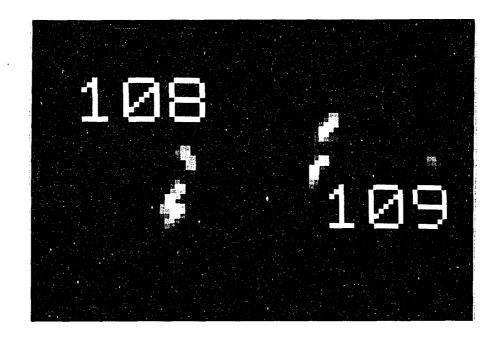
n' = scan rate in rotating frame - angular motion as seen from IRAS

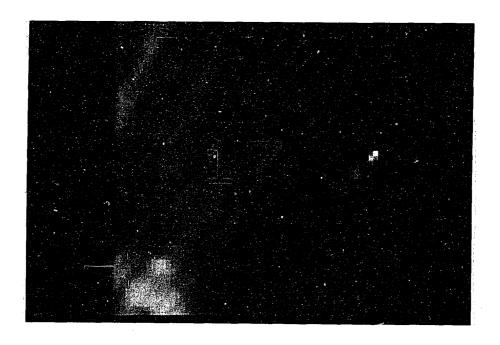
$$n' = (n_{scan} - n_{iras}) - [(n - n_{iras}) (R/R-r)]$$

$$n' = 0.35 \text{ } / \text{s} - [(n - 3.5 \text{ } / \text{s}) (R / R - (6378 \text{ km} + 900 \text{km}))]$$

$$n' = 1.02e-4 \text{ rad/s} - [(n - 1.02e-3 \text{ rad/s}) (R/R-7278 \text{ km})]$$

Appendix 5
Photographs of Earth Orbiting Objects Observed by IRAS





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