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Instantaneous COMPASS-GPS Attitude Determination: A Robustness Analysis

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4 Abstract

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The advent of modernized and new global navigation satellite systems (GNSS) 5 has enhanced the availability of satellite based positioning, navigation, and tim-6 ing (PNT) solutions. Specifically, it increases redundancy and yields opera-7 tional back-up or independence in case of failure or unavailability of one sys-8 tem. Among existing GNSS, the Chinese COMPASS navigation satellite system 9 (CNSS) is being developed and will consist of geostationary (GEO) satellites, in-10 clined geosynchronous orbit (IGSO) satellites, and medium-Earth-orbit (MEO) 11 satellites. In this contribution, a COMPASS-GPS robustness analysis is carried 12 out for instantaneous, unaided attitude determination. 13

Precise attitude determination using multiple GNSS antennas mounted on a platform relies on the successful resolution of the integer carrier phase ambiguities. The constrained Least-squares AMBiguity Decorrelation Adjustment (C-LAMBDA) method has been developed for the quadratically constrained GNSS compass model that incorporates the known baseline length. In this contribution the method is used to analyse the attitude determination performance when using the GPS and COMPASS systems. The attitude determination performance is evaluated using GPS/COMPASS data sets from a real data campaign in Australia spanning several days. The study includes the performance analyses of both stand-alone and mixed constellation (GPS/COMPASS) attitude estimation under various satellite deprived environments. We demonstrate and quantify the improved availability, reliability, and accuracy of attitude determination using the combined constellation.

Keywords: GNSS, GPS, COMPASS, attitude determination, constrained
 integer least-squares, C-LAMBDA, carrier phase ambiguity resolution

16 1. Introduction

The advent of modernized and new global navigation satellite systems (GNSS) has enhanced the availability of satellite based positioning, navigation, and timing (PNT) solutions. Specifically, it increases redundancy and yields operational back-up or independence in case of failure or unavailability of one system. Among existing GNSS, the Chinese COMPASS navigation satellite system (CNSS) is being developed and will consist of geostationary (GEO) satellites, inclined geosynchronous orbit (IGSO) satellites, and medium-Earth-orbit (MEO)

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satellites (CSNO, 2011; Cao et al., 2008). Presently, the COMPASS/BeiDou-2 24 system consists of four fully operational GEO and five IGSO satellites transmit-25 ting navigation signals in quadrature phase-shift keying (QPSK) modulation on 26 a total of three frequency bands (B1, B2, B3). Analyses of COMPASS based 27 PNT solutions have been reported in various studies. Apart from simulation 28 based studies in Grelier et al. (2007); Chen et al. (2009); Yang et al. (2011); 29 Zhang et al. (2011), analyses with real data have been reported in Montenbruck 30 et al. (2012b,a); Shi et al. (2012); Steigenberger et al. (2012a). Measurement 31 quality and relative positioning analyses with real data collected using Chinese 32 GNSS receivers (UB240-CORS) have been reported in Shi et al. (2012). Mon-33 tenbruck et al. (2012b) discussed initial assessment of real data collected using 34 non-Chinese GNSS receivers and with post-processed orbit and clock products 35 (Steigenberger et al., 2012b) independent of the control segment. The same 36 products have been used to analyze precise point positioning in Steigenberger 37 et al. (2012a) and triple-frequency relative positioning in Montenbruck et al. 38 (2012a). 39

In this contribution, a robustness analysis of attitude determination using 40 the standalone COMPASS system, and the combined GPS and COMPASS sys-41 tems is carried out. Multiple GNSS receivers/antennas rigidly mounted on a 42 platform can be used to determine platform attitude (orientation) (see, for ex-43 ample, Cohen, 1992; Lu, 1995; Crassidis and Markley, 1997; Li et al., 2004; Lin 44 et al., 2004; Madsen and Lightsey, 2004; Psiaki, 2006). GNSS-based attitude 45 determination offers several advantages including that it is not affected by drift, 46 is lower in cost and requires less maintenance than traditional methods. Precise 47 attitude determination, however, relies on successful resolution of the integer 48 carrier phase ambiguities. The Least squares AMBiguity Decorrelation Adjust-49 ment (LAMBDA) method (Teunissen, 1995) is currently the standard method 50 for solving unconstrained and linearly constrained GNSS ambiguity resolution 51 problems (see, for example, Boon and Ambrosius, 1997; Cox, 1999; Ji et al., 52 2007; Huang et al., 2009; Kroes et al., 2005; Jin et al., 2010, 2005; Park, 2002). 53 For such models, the method is known to be numerically efficient and optimal in 54 the sense that it provides integer ambiguity solutions with the highest possible 55 success-rate (Teunissen, 1999; Teunissen et al., 1997; Verhagen and Teunissen, 56 2006a). To exploit the known baseline length, we make use of the constrained 57 (C-)LAMBDA method (Park and Teunissen, 2003; Teunissen, 2006; Buist, 2007; 58 Park and Teunissen, 2009; Giorgi et al., 2008; Giorgi and Buist, 2008; Teunissen, 59 2010; Giorgi et al., 2010; Teunissen et al., 2011). Due to the rigorous inclusion 60 of the known baseline length, significantly higher success rates will be demon-61 strated. 62

Our analyses are carried out using data sets from real data campaign spanning several days. Based on this static data, we analysed the performance of the C-LAMBDA method comparing the standard LAMBDA method. Kinematic analyses of C-LAMBDA method can be found in (Giorgi et al., 2012a,b). Since satellite navigation data of the COMPASS system is not publicly available at the time of writing, we use off-line navigation from post-processed orbit and clock information derived from an experimental regional network of mon-

itoring stations in Australia, Asia and Russia (Steigenberger et al., 2012a,b). 70 We evaluate the epoch-by-epoch, single- and multi-frequency integer ambigu-71 ity resolution performance of the C-LAMBDA method under various satellite 72 deprived environments such as the presence of satellite blockages due to urban 73 canyon. Our analyses are the first reported results of GNSS attitude determi-74 nation using real data from the COMPASS/BeiDou2 system and demonstrate 75 the increased availability of GNSS-based attitude solution by the inclusion of 76 COMPASS/BeiDou-2 system. 77

This contribution is organized as follows. Section 2 presents our attitude de-78 termination method using multi-constellation GNSS data. First, it describes the 79 phase and code observation equations for short-baseline GPS+COMPASS po-80 sitioning. Then, it formulates the quadratically constrained GPS+COMPASS 81 model, followed by a description of the C-LAMBDA method for attitude de-82 termination. Section 3 presents the results of the performance evaluation for 83 combined constellation ambiguity resolution and attitude determination under 84 various satellite deprived environments, while Section 4 draws conclusions of 85 this contribution. 86

87 2. The GNSS-Based Attitude Determination

In this section we present our attitude determination method using the combined GPS-COMPASS system. First we describe the functional and stochastic model for the combined observations and then we present the steps for solving the baseline constrained, mixed-integer attitude model.

92 2.1. GPS/COMPASS Observations

Since the GPS and COMPASS system do not have frequencies in common, we consider system-specific double differencing (Verhagen and Joosten, 2003). Let us consider two GPS/COMPASS receivers r and 1 forming a short baseline and tracking $m_G + 1$ GPS satellites and $m_C + 1$ COMPASS satellites. The double difference (DD) pseudo-range and carrier-phase observations at frequency j for satellite pairs 1-s of GNSS system Ξ (G for GPS and C for COMPASS), denoted as $p_{1r}^{1s,\Xi}$ and $\phi_{1r}^{1s,\Xi}$ respectively, are given as (Teunissen and Kleusberg, 1998)

$$E\left(p_{1r,j}^{1s,\Xi}\right) = \rho_{1r}^{1s,\Xi}, \quad s = 2, \dots, (m_{\Xi}+1)$$
 (1)

$$E\left(\phi_{1r,j}^{1s,\Xi}\right) = \rho_{1r}^{1s,\Xi} + \lambda_j^{\Xi} N_{1r,j}^{1s,\Xi}, \qquad s = 2, \ \dots, \ (m_{\Xi} + 1)$$
(2)

where $E(\cdot)$ denotes the expectation operator, $\rho_{1r,j}^{1s,\Xi}$ is the DD topocentric distance, λ_j^{Ξ} is the wave length, and $N_{1r,j}^{1s,\Xi}$ is the time-invariant *integer* DD carrierphase ambiguity.

¹⁰³ The linearized DD observation equations corresponding to (1) and (2), read

$$E\left(\Delta p_{1r,j}^{1s,\Xi}\right) = g_1^{1s,\Xi^T}b, \qquad s=2, \dots, \ (m_{\Xi}+1)$$
 (3)

$$\mathbf{E}\left(\Delta\phi_{1r,j}^{1s,\Xi}\right) = g_1^{1s,\Xi^T}b + \lambda_j^{\Xi}N_{1r,j}^{1s,\Xi}, \qquad s=2,\ \dots,\ (m_{\Xi}+1)$$
(4)

where $\Delta p_{1r,j}^{1s,\Xi}$ and $\Delta \phi_{1r,j}^{1s,\Xi}$ are the observed-minus-computed code and phase observations, b is the baseline vector containing relative position components, and $g_1^{1s,\Xi}$ is the geometry vector given as $g_1^{1s,\Xi} = e_1^{1,\Xi} - e_1^{s,\Xi}$ with $e_r^{s,\Xi}$ the unit line-of-sight vector between receiver-satellite pair r-s. The vector form of the DD observation equation for the *j*th frequency read

$$\mathbf{E}(y_{p;j}^{\Xi}) = G_1^{\Xi} b \tag{5}$$

$$\mathbb{E}(y_{\phi;j}^{,\Xi}) = G_1^{,\Xi} b + \lambda_j^{,\Xi} z_{r,j}^{,\Xi}$$
(6)

 $\text{with } y_{p;j}^{\Xi} = \begin{bmatrix} \Delta p_{1r,j}^{12,\Xi} \dots \Delta p_{1r,j}^{1(m_{\Xi}+1),\Xi} \end{bmatrix}^{T}, y_{\phi;j}^{\Xi} = \begin{bmatrix} \Delta \phi_{1r,j}^{12,\Xi} \dots \Delta \phi_{1r,j}^{1(m_{\Xi}+1),\Xi} \end{bmatrix}^{T}, G_{1}^{\Xi} = \begin{bmatrix} g_{1}^{12,\Xi} \dots g_{1}^{1(m_{\Xi}+1),\Xi} \end{bmatrix}^{T}, z_{r,j}^{\Xi} = \begin{bmatrix} N_{1r,j}^{12,\Xi} \dots N_{1r,j}^{1(m_{\Xi}+1),\Xi} \end{bmatrix}^{T}.$

For stochastic modeling, we assume elevation dependent noise characteristics (Euler and Goad, 1991). That is, the standard deviation of the undifferenced observable ς can be written as

$$\sigma_{\varsigma}(\epsilon) = \sigma_{\varsigma_0} \left(1 + a_{\varsigma_0} \exp\left(\frac{-\epsilon}{\epsilon_{\varsigma_0}}\right) \right)$$
(7)

¹¹⁴ where ϵ is the elevation angle of the corresponding satellite, and σ_{ς_0} , a_{ς_0} , and ¹¹⁵ ϵ_{ς_0} are the elevation dependent model parameters. We further assume that the ¹¹⁶ receivers have similar characteristics and that the observation noise standard ¹¹⁷ deviations can be decomposed as follows:

$$\sigma_{\phi_{r,j}^{s,\Xi}} = \sigma_r \sigma_{\phi_0} \sigma_{,j} \sigma^{\Xi} \nu^{s,\Xi}$$

$$\sigma_{p_{r,j}^{s,\Xi}} = \sigma_r \sigma_{p_0} \sigma_{,j} \sigma^{\Xi} \nu^{s,\Xi}$$

$$\nu^{s,\Xi} = \left(1 + a_0 \exp\left(\frac{-\epsilon^{s,\Xi}}{\epsilon_0}\right)\right)$$
(8)

where σ_r , σ^{Ξ} , and σ_{j} are the receiver, the system, and the frequency dependent weightings, respectively, and σ_{ϕ_0} and σ_{p_0} are observation dependent weightings.

120 2.2. The GPS/COMPASS Attitude Model

When combining the single-epoch, multi-frequency linearized DD GNSS code and phase observation equations of (5) and (6), we obtain the mixed integer model of observation equations:

$$\mathbf{E}(y) = Az + Gb \qquad z \in \mathbb{Z}^{fm}, b \in \mathbb{R}^3$$
(9)

where $m = m_G + m_C$, $y = [y_p^T y_p^T]^T$ is the $2fm \times 1$ vector of linearized (observed-minus-computed) DD observations with $y_{\phi} = [y_{\phi}^{G^T} y_{\phi}^{C^T}]^T$, $y_{\phi}^{\Xi} = [y_{\phi;1}^{\Xi^T}, \dots, y_{\phi;f}^{\Xi^T}]^T$, $y_p = [y_p^{G^T} y_p^{C^T}]^T$, and $y_p^{\Xi} = [y_{p;1}^{\Xi^T}, \dots, y_{p;f}^{\Xi^T}]^T$, $z = [z^{G^T}, z^{C^T}]^T$ is the $fm \times 1$ vector of unknown DD integer ambiguities with $z^{\cdot\Xi} = [z_{1}^{\Xi^T}, \dots, z_{f}^{\Xi^T}]^T$, $b \text{ is } 3 \times 1$ vector unknown baseline parameters, $G = e_2 \otimes [(e_f \otimes G_1^G)^T, (e_f \otimes G_1^C)^T]^T$ is the $2fm \times 3$ geometry matrix with e_n the $n \times 1$ vector of 1's, $A = [L^T \ 0^T]^T$ is the $2fm \times fm$ design matrix with $fm \times fm$ matrix L =

blockdiag $(\Lambda^{G} \otimes I_{m_{G}}, \Lambda^{C} \otimes I_{m_{C}})$ and $\Lambda^{\Xi} = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_{1}^{\Xi}, \ldots, \lambda_{f}^{\Xi})$ the diagonal wave-131 length matrix, with \otimes denoting the Kronecker product (Harville, 1997; Magnus 132 and Neudecker, 1995). 133

To construct the stochastic model for the observations in (9), consider the 134 undifferenced observations reading 135

$$\zeta = [\zeta_1^T \ \zeta_2^T]^T \tag{10}$$

where $\zeta_r = [\phi_r^T p_r^T]^T$, $\phi_r = [\phi_r^{G^T} \phi_r^{C^T}]^T$, $\phi_r^{\Xi} = [\phi_{r,1}^{E^T} \dots \phi_{r,f}^{E^T}]^T$, $\phi_{r,j}^{E} = [\phi_{r,j}^{E^T} \dots \phi_{r,j}^{E^T}]^T$, $p_r = [p_r^{G^T} p_r^{C^T}]^T$, $p_r^{T} = [p_{r,1}^{E^T} \dots p_{r,f}^{E^T}]^T$, $p_{r,j}^{T} = [p_{r,j}^{E^T} \dots p_{r,j}^{E^T}]^T$, $p_{r,j}^{T} = [p_{r,j}^{E^T} \dots p_{r,j}^{E^T}]^T$, $p_{r,j}^{T} = [p_{r,j}^{E^T} \dots p_{r,j}^{E^T}]^T$, $p_{r,j}^{E} = [p_{r,j}^{E^T} \dots p_{r,j}^{E^T}]^T$, and $p_{r,j}^{s,\Xi}$ and $\phi_{r,j}^{s,\Xi}$ are the undifferenced code and phase observations for r-s receiver-satellite pair at *j*th frequency. Using the noise 136 137

138 139 characteristics of (8) and assuming that the observables are normally distributed 140 and mutually uncorrelated, the dispersion matrix of the observation vector ζ can 141 be written as 142

$$D(\zeta) = Q_r \otimes Q_t \otimes \text{blockdiag}(Q_f \otimes Q_G, Q_f \otimes Q_C)$$
(11)

where $D(\cdot)$ denotes the dispersion operator, $Q_r = \text{diag}[\sigma_1^2 \sigma_2^2], Q_t = \text{diag}[\sigma_{\phi_0}^2 \sigma_{p_0}^2], Q_f = \text{diag}[\sigma_{\gamma_1}^2 \dots \sigma_{\gamma_f}^2], Q_G = \sigma^{,G^2} \text{diag}[\nu^{1,G^2} \dots \nu^{m_G+1,G^2}], \text{ and}$ $Q_C = \sigma_{,C}^2 \text{diag}[\nu^{1,C^2} \dots \nu^{m_C+1,C^2}]$ are the co-factor matrices. The dispersion 143 144

145 matrix of the DD observations is then given as 146

$$\mathbf{D}(y) = \mathbf{D}(\mathcal{D}^T \zeta) = Q_{yy} \tag{12}$$

with the DD operator $\mathcal{D}^T = D_1^T \otimes I_2 \otimes \operatorname{blockdiag} \left(I_f \otimes D_{m_G}^T, I_f \otimes D_{m_C}^T \right)$, in 147 which $D_n^T = [-e_n, I_n]$ is the differencing matrix. 148

The DD observation equations of (9) form, together with the dispersion ma-149 trix of (12), a *mixed-integer* Gauss-Markov model with unknown integer vector 150 $z \in \mathbb{Z}^{fm}$ and unknown baseline vector $b \in \mathbb{R}^3$. This model can be strength-151 ened with the known baseline length. With the inclusion of the baseline length 152 constraint, we obtain the GNSS compass model (Teunissen, 2006, 2010) 153

$$\mathbf{E}(y) = Az + Gb \qquad \|b\| = l, z \in \mathbb{Z}^{fm}, b \in \mathbb{R}^3$$
(13)

$$\mathbf{D}(y) = Q_{yy} \tag{14}$$

where l is the known baseline length and $\|\cdot\|$ denotes the unweighted norm. 154 Hence, the baseline is thus now constrained to lie on a sphere with radius l155 $(\mathbb{S}_l = \{b \in \mathbb{R}^3 | \|b\| = l\})$. Our objective is to solve for b in a least-squares sense, 156 thereby taking the integer constraints on z and the quadratic constraint on 157 vector b into account. Hence, the least-squares minimization problem that will 158 be solved reads 159

$$\min_{z \in \mathbb{Z}^{fm}, b \in \mathbb{S}_l} \|y - Az - Gb\|_{Q_{yy}}^2 \tag{15}$$

with $||\cdot||_Q^2 = (\cdot)^T Q^{-1}(\cdot)$. It is a quadratically constrained (mixed) integer least-160 squares (QC-ILS) problem (Park and Teunissen, 2003), for which no closed-161 form solution is available. In the following sections, we describe the method for 162 163 solving (15).

164 2.3. The Ambiguity Resolved Attitude

We now describe the steps for computing the integer ambiguity resolved attitude angles.

¹⁶⁷ 2.3.1. The real-valued float solution:

The float solution is defined as the solution of (15) without the constraints. When we ignore the integer constraints on z and the quadratic constraint on b, the float solutions \hat{z} and \hat{b} , and their variance-covariance matrices are obtained as follows:

$$\begin{bmatrix} Q_{\hat{z}\hat{z}} & Q_{\hat{z}\hat{b}} \\ Q_{\hat{b}\hat{z}} & Q_{\hat{b}\hat{b}} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \hat{z} \\ \hat{b} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A^T \\ G^T \end{bmatrix} Q_{yy}^{-1} y$$
(16)

172 with

$$\begin{bmatrix} Q_{\hat{z}\hat{z}} & Q_{\hat{z}\hat{b}} \\ Q_{\hat{b}\hat{z}} & Q_{\hat{b}\hat{b}} \end{bmatrix} = \left(\begin{bmatrix} A^T \\ G^T \end{bmatrix} Q_{yy}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} A & G \end{bmatrix} \right)^{-1}$$
(17)

The z-constrained solution of b and its variance-covariance matrix can be obtained from the float solution as follows

$$\hat{b}(z) = \hat{b} - Q_{\hat{b}\hat{z}}Q_{\hat{z}\hat{z}}^{-1}(\hat{z} - z)$$
(18)

$$Q_{\hat{b}(z)\hat{b}(z)} = Q_{\hat{b}\hat{b}} - Q_{\hat{b}\hat{z}}Q_{\hat{z}\hat{z}}^{-1}Q_{\hat{z}\hat{b}}$$

= $(G^{T}Q_{yy}^{-1}G)^{-1}$ (19)

¹⁷⁵ Using the above estimators, the original problem in (15) can be decomposed as

$$\min_{z \in \mathbb{Z}^{fm}, b \in \mathbb{S}_{l}} \|y - Az - Gb\|_{Q_{yy}}^{2}$$

$$= \|\hat{e}\|_{Q_{yy}}^{2} + \min_{z \in \mathbb{Z}^{fm}} \left(\|\hat{z} - z\|_{Q_{\hat{z}\hat{z}}}^{2} + \min_{b \in \mathbb{S}_{l}} \|\hat{b}(z) - b\|_{Q_{\hat{b}(z)\hat{b}(z)}}^{2} \right) \quad (20)$$

- with $\hat{e} = y A\hat{z} G\hat{b}$ being the vector of least-squares residuals. Note that the first term on the right hand side of (20) does not depend on the unknown parameters z and b and is therefore constant.
- 179 2.3.2. The integer ambiguity resolution:
- Based on the orthogonal decomposition (20), the quadratic constrained integer minimization can be formulated as:

$$\check{z} = \arg\min_{z \in \mathbb{Z}^{fm}} C(z) \tag{21}$$

182 with ambiguity objective function

$$C(z) = \|\hat{z} - z\|_{Q_{\hat{z}\hat{z}}}^{2} + \|\hat{b}(z) - \check{b}(z)\|_{Q_{\hat{b}(z)\hat{b}(z)}}^{2}$$
(22)

183 where

$$\check{b}(z) = \arg\min_{b\in\mathbb{S}_l} \left\| \hat{b}(z) - b \right\|_{Q_{\hat{b}(z)\hat{b}(z)}}^2$$
(23)

The cost function C(z) is the sum of two coupled terms: the first weighs the distance from the float ambiguity vector \hat{z} to the nearest integer vector z in the metric of $Q_{\hat{z}\hat{z}}$, while the second weighs the distance from the conditional float solution $\hat{b}(z)$ to the nearest point on the sphere \mathbb{S}_l in the metric of $Q_{\hat{b}(z)\hat{b}(z)}$.

Unlike with the standard LAMBDA method (Teunissen, 1995), the search 188 space of the above minimization problem is non-ellipsoidal due to the presence 189 of the second term in the ambiguity objective function. Moreover, its solution 190 requires the computation of a nonlinear constrained least-squares problem (23) 191 for every integer vector in the search space. In the C-LAMBDA method, this 192 problem is mitigated through the use of easy-to-evaluate bounding functions 193 (Teunissen, 2010). Using these bounding functions, two strategies, namely the 194 Expansion and the Search and Shrink strategies, were developed, see e.g. Park 195 and Teunissen (2003); Giorgi et al. (2008). These techniques avoid the com-196 putation of (23) for every integer vector in the search space, and compute the 197 integer minimizer \check{z} in an efficient manner. 198

199 2.3.3. The ambiguity resolved attitude:

Finally, we obtain the ambiguity resolved attitude solution by substituting \tilde{z} into (18), thus giving $\hat{b}(\tilde{z})$. For a single baseline, b is related to the Eulerangles $\xi = [\phi \ \theta]^T$, with ϕ the heading and θ the elevation, as $b(\xi) = lu(\xi)$, where $u(\xi) = [c_{\theta}c_{\phi}, c_{\theta}s_{\phi}, -s_{\theta}]^T$ with $s_{\alpha} = \sin(\alpha)$ and $c_{\alpha} = \cos(\alpha)$. Hence, the sought-for attitude angles $\xi(\tilde{z})$ are then obtained by solving the following nonlinear least squares problem:

²⁰⁶ Using a first order approximation, the formal variance-covariance matrix of the
 ²⁰⁷ ambiguity resolved, least-squares estimated heading and elevation angles is given
 ²⁰⁸ by

$$Q_{\hat{\xi}\hat{\xi}} \approx \frac{1}{l^2} \left(J_{u,\xi}(\hat{\xi})^T Q_{\hat{b}(z)\hat{b}(z)}^{-1} J_{u,\xi}(\hat{\xi}) \right)^{-1}$$
(25)

²⁰⁹ with Jacobian matrix

$$J_{u,\xi}(\xi) = \begin{bmatrix} -s_{\phi}c_{\theta} & -c_{\phi}s_{\theta} \\ c_{\phi}c_{\theta} & -s_{\phi}s_{\theta} \\ 0 & -c_{\theta} \end{bmatrix}$$
(26)

As the results in the next section show, this first order approximation works well. This is due to the fact that the ambiguity resolved solution is driven by the high precision of the carrier phase observables.



Figure 1: Curtin GNSS antennas used for the real data campaign

System	Frequency	Code			Phase			
		σ_{p_0}	a_{p_0}	ϵ_{p_0}	σ_{ϕ_0}	a_{ϕ_0}	ϵ_{ϕ_0}	
		[cm]		[deg]	[mm	.]	[deg]	
GPS	L1	15	5	20	1	5	20	
	L2	20	2	15	2	6	15	
COMPASS	B1	20	5	15	1	5	15	
	B2	20	5	15	2	5	15	
	B3	20	5	15	3	5	15	

Table 1: Elevation dependent stochastic model parameters (7) for Curtin GNSS stations used in the real data campaigns

213 3. Performance of GPS/COMPASS Attitude Determination

In this section the performance analyses of GPS/COMPASS attitude deter-214 mination are presented. The data was collected from two TRM59800.00-SCIS 215 antennas mounted on the roof of the Bentley campus building 402 of Curtin 216 University in Perth, Australia. As shown in Figure 1(a), the antennas are free 217 of obstacles and form a short baseline $(B_0 = 8.418 \text{ m}, \text{ Figure 1(b)})$. These 218 antennas are connected to two TRIMBLE NETR9 GNSS receivers continuously 219 tracking all available GNSS satellites. We processed GPS/COMPASS data for 220 23 days (from March 20, 2012 to April 11, 2012) with a sampling interval of 30 221 sec. Since satellite navigation data is not yet publicly available for the COM-222 PASS system, we used off-line navigation from post-processed orbit and clock 223 information derived from an experimental regional network of monitoring sta-224 tions in Australia, Asia and Russia (Steigenberger et al., 2012a,b). Figure 2 225 shows the GPS/COMPASS satellite visibility on March 21, 2012 (the skyplots, 226 the number of satellites, and the PDOP values) demonstrating improved satel-227 lite visibility of the combined system. The stochastic model parameters of the 228 elevation dependent model (7) for the receivers are reported in Table 1. 229

We considered two performance measures for our analyses; the first one is the empirical instantaneous ambiguity success fraction (relative frequency), which



(e) Number of satellites and PDOP (Combined)

Figure 2: Satellite visibility of GPS and COMPASS constellations on March 21, 2012 for 10° elevation cut-off

232 is defined as

success fraction =
$$\frac{\text{number of correctly fixed epochs}}{\text{total number of epochs}}$$
 (27)

The second one is the angular estimation accuracy, which is given by the formal
and empirical standard deviations of attitude angular estimates.

In the following, our robustness analysis is carried out for single- (L1 and/or 235 B1), dual- (L1 and L2 and/or B1 and B2), and triple- (L1, L2, and L5 and/or 236 B1, B2, and B3) frequency attitude determination under three satellite deprived 237 environments, namely, open-pit (Section 3.1), satellite outage (Section 3.2), and 238 urban canyon (Section 3.3). Note that, for triple-frequency processing, we only 239 considered standalone COMPASS processing (B1, B2, and B3) as the third 240 frequency (L5) of GPS system is only available from PRN 1 and 25, and they 241 have not been co-visible during the period considered. 242

243 3.1. Open-pit

In this section, the impact of an open-pit environment on attitude estimation 244 is analyzed. As shown in Figure 3 the platform is assumed to be at the center of 245 an open-pit base. The performance at any other location can be inferred from 246 the performance at the center with average elevation masking angle at that 247 location. Table 2 reports the ambiguity resolution success fractions for single-, 248 dual-, and triple-frequency processing, highlighting (in **bold** text) the benefits 249 of using a combined system, which clearly improves the availability of attitude 250 solutions. 251

The benefits of using multi-frequency data are also highlighted with empha-252 sized text. Note that, for large elevation masking angles, a fraction of epochs 253 (given in brackets) were processed due to a lack of sufficient visible satellites for 254 positioning (requires at least four satellites). The single-frequency C-LAMBDA 255 processing of a combined system enables the availability of instantaneous at-256 titude solutions for an open-pit with up to 30 deg elevation masking, while a 257 standalone system with dual frequency processing can provide instantaneous at-258 titude solution for an open-pit with only up to 20 deg elevation masking. The 259 angular scatter plots for 10° elevation masking are given in Figure 4 depicting 260 improved performance of the combined system. Due to the baseline length and 261 the relatively poor precision of the second and the third frequency observables 262 (Table 1), multi-frequency processing does not really improve the performance 263 angular accuracy over the single-frequency processing. Therfore the angular 264 accuracies (standard deviations) of only the single frequency processing are re-265 ported in Table 3 (Results for high elevation maskings are omitted due to a 266 lack of sufficient data). As shown, increasing elevation masking degrades both 267 ambiguity resolution and the angular accuracy.

269 3.2. Satellite Outage

This satellite deprived environment is simulated by arbitrarily removing a number of visible GPS or COMPASS satellites. Table 4 reports the LAMBDA



Figure 3: Simulated circular open-pit; the elevation masking angle α_o defines the blockage. The platform is assumed to be at the center of open-pit base

Number	Elevation	GPS only		COMPASS only		GPS + COMPASS	
of Fre-	Cut-off						
quency	[deg]	LAMBDA	A C-LAMBDA	LAMBDA	A C-LAMBDA	LAMBDA	C-LAMBDA
	10	0.83	0.99	0.50	0.96	1.00	1.00
	20	0.49	0.93	0.36	0.93	1.00	1.00
1	30	0.15	0.70(0.93)	0.19	0.72(0.96)	0.95	1.00
1	40	0.03	0.44(0.51)	0.03	0.48(0.60)	0.65	0.92(0.97)
	50	0.01	0.37(0.09)	0.00	0.18(0.06)	0.14	0.66(0.61)
	60	*	* (0)	*	* (0)	0.01	0.43(0.08)
	≤ 20	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
	30	0.97	1.00(0.93)	0.96	1.00(0.96)	1.00	1.00
2	40	0.93	1.00(0.51)	0.96	1.00 (0.60	1.00	1.00(0.97)
	50	0.92	1.00(0.09)	0.97	1.00(0.06)	0.97	1.00(0.61)
	60	*	*(0)	*	* (0)	0.96	1.00(0.08)
	≤ 20			1.00	1.00		
3	30			1.00	1.00(0.96)		
	40			1.00	1.00(0.60)		
	50			1.00	1.00(0.06)		
	60			*	* (0)		

Table 2: Instantaneous ambiguity success fractions (relative frequencies) for the real data with simulated open-pit using elevation masking (Here, ' $\leq \alpha$ ' refers to the cases with elevation masking less or equal to α); For some cases, a fraction of epochs (given in brackets) were processed due to a lack of sufficient visible satellites for positioning (requires at least four satellites)

Elevation	GPS only		COMPASS	only	GPS + CON	MPASS
cut-off						
[deg]	Heading	Elevation	Heading	Elevation	Heading	Elevation
10	0.02(0.01)	0.03(0.03)	0.02(0.02)	0.04(0.04)	0.01 (0.01)	0.03(0.02)
20	0.02(0.02)	0.04(0.04)	0.02(0.02)	0.04(0.04)	0.01(0.01)	0.03(0.03)
30	$0.02 \ (0.02)$	0.07(0.07)	0.02(0.02)	$0.05 \ (0.05)$	$0.01 \ (0.01)$	0.04(0.04)
40	0.03(0.03)	0.14(0.12)	0.02(0.02)	0.07(0.06)	0.02(0.02)	0.06(0.06)
50	* (*)	* (*)	* (*)	* (*)	$0.03 \ (0.03)$	0.17(0.16)

Table 3: Empirical and formal (given in brackets) angular standard deviations [deg] for single-frequency data with simulated open-pit using elevation masking



Figure 4: Scatter plot of the ambiguity fixed attitude angles (the red ellipses correspond to 95% confidence regions)

and C-LAMBDA ambiguity success fractions and ambiguity resolved angular 272 accuracies (standard deviation) for single-, dual-, and triple-frequency process-273 The benefits of using C-LAMBDA are highlighted using bold text and 274 ing. the benefits of using multi-frequency processing are highlighted using empha-275 sized text. Using multi-frequency processing, the C-LAMBDA method yields 276 instantaneous attitude determination with as few as six satellites from from 277 GPS and/or COMPASS constellations. The formal standard deviations (terms 278 in brackets) are well in line with the empirical standard deviations confirming 279 the assumed stochastic model parameters in Table 1. A slight degradation of 280 the angular accuracy with the number of satellites can be observed. 281

282 3.3. Urban Canyon

In this section the urban canyon impact is analyzed. This is a well-known 283 problem depriving GNSS based navigation solutions in urban environments 284 (Lachapelle et al., 1997; Tsakiri et al., 1998; Ballester-Grpide et al., 2000; Ji 285 et al., 2010). The urban canyon effect has been simulated using a simple model, 286 where we have two buildings as shown in Figure 5 placed symmetrically with 287 respect to the attitude platform on an urban road. The blockage is defined by 288 three angles: γ_0 the azimuth of the center of the first building (defining the direction of the road), α_0 the elevation at the center of the building (defining 290 the height of the buildings), and β_0 the azimuth angle (defining the width of the 291 buildings). For example, the severity of the blockage (for the case of $\gamma_0 = 90^\circ$, 292 $\alpha_0 = 60^\circ$, and $\beta_0 = 60^\circ$) is shown in Figure 6, which can be compared with 293 the full visibility case of Figure 2. For these parameter values, the model repre-294 sents two buildings with a height of 9 meters and a width of 17 meters on both 295 sides of a ten-meter wide road in the North-South direction. We considered 296 an urban canyon along a road in North-South direction ($\gamma_0 = 90^\circ$), since this 297 corresponds to the worst case deprivation due to a lack of satellites towards the 298 South direction in Perth, Australia (South polar region). 299

Table 5 summarize the ambiguity resolution success fraction for single-, dual-300 , and triple-frequency processing. Note that, for large values of α_0 and β_0 , fewer 301 epochs (given in brackets) were processed due to a lack of sufficient visible satel-302 lites for positioning (requires at least four satellites). For almost all other cases, 303 instantaneous ambiguity resolution is possible due to the rigorous exploitation of the geometry constraints in the C-LAMBDA method. The corresponding 305 angular accuracies (standard deviations) are reported in Table 6, showing that 306 empirical values are in line with formal values (given in brackets). Both the 307 success fraction and the angular accuracy degrade as the urban canyon effect 308 increases (i.e., angles α_0 and β_0 increase). Except for a few worse case scenarios 309 with large α_0 and β_0 , the C-LAMBDA attitude solution using a combined GPS-310 COMPASS system is available with high ambiguity resolution success fraction 311 as indicated in **bold-text** in Table 5. The combined system processing not only 312 improves the success fraction but also slightly improves the angular accuracies 313 (Table 6). The ambiguity resolution success fraction and the angular accuracy 314 both degrade, however, as the effect of the urban canyon increases (i.e., angles 315 316 α_0 and β_0 increase).

		Su	ccess fraction	Angular standard deviation [de	
Number	Number of Number of				,
of fre-	GPS satel-COMPASS	LAMBI	DA C-LAMBDA	Heading	Elevation
quency	lites satellites			0	
	(PDOP)				
	4 (9.88)	0.00	0.14	0.02(0.02)	0.06(0.06)
	0 6 (4.68)	0.18	0.86	0.02(0.02)	0.05(0.04)
	8 (4.03)	0.49	0.97	0.02(0.02)	0.04(0.04)
	4 (6.54)	0.01	0.47	0.02 (0.02)	0.06(0.06)
	2 6 (3.80)	0.49	0.97	0.02(0.02)	0.04(0.04)
	8 (3.36)	0.77	0.99	0.02(0.02)	0.04(0.04)
	0 (7.64)	0.00	0.08	0.06(0.05)	0.11(0.10)
	2(5.93)	0.01	0.38	0.04(0.04)	0.07 (0.07)
	4 4 (3.28)	0.42	0.95	0.02(0.02)	0.04(0.04)
	6(2.54)	0.94	1.00	0.02(0.01)	0.04(0.03)
	8 (2.37)	0.98	1.00	0.01(0.01)	0.03(0.03)
1	0 (3.23)	0.10	0.76	0.02(0.02)	0.05(0.05)
	2 (2.84)	0.39	0.92	0.02(0.02)	0.04(0.04)
	⁶ 4 (2.26)	0.92	1.00	0.02(0.01)	0.04(0.03)
	≥ 6 (1.90)	1.00	1.00	0.01(0.01)	0.03(0.03)
	0(2.05)	0.68	0.98	0.02(0.02)	0.04(0.04)
	2 (1.97)	0.88	0.99	0.02(0.01)	0.03(0.03)
	8 4 (1.81)	0.99	1.00	0.01(0.01)	0.03(0.03)
	$\geq 6 (1.63)$	1.00	1.00	$0.01 \ (0.01)$	0.03 (0.03)
	0(1.95)	0.81	0.99	0.02(0.01)	0.03(0.03)
	2 (1.87)	0.93	1.00	0.02(0.01)	0.03(0.03)
	4(1.73)	0.99	1.00	$0.01 \ (0.01)$	0.03 (0.03)
	$\geq 6 (1.57)$	1.00	1.00	$0.01 \ (0.01)$	$0.03 \ (0.03)$
	4 (9.88)	0.55	0.99	0.02(0.02)	0.06(0.05)
	$^{0} \geq 6 (4.36)$	1.00	1.00	0.02(0.01)	0.04(0.04)
	4 (6.54)	0.96	1.00	0.03(0.02)	0.06(0.05)
	$^{2} \geq 6 (3.58)$	1.00	1.00	0.02(0.01)	0.04(0.03)
0	0 (7.64)	0.51	0.94	0.05 (0.04)	0.09(0.08)
2	4 2 (5.93)	0.93	1.00	0.03(0.03)	0.06(0.05)
	≥ 4 (2.73)	1.00	1.00	0.01(0.01)	0.03(0.03)
	c 0 (3.23)	0.97	1.00	0.02 (0.02)	0.04 (0.04)
	$\geq 2 (2.21)$	1.00	1.00	0.01(0.01)	0.03(0.03)
	$\geq 8 \qquad \geq 0 \ (1.76)$	1.00	1.00	0.01 (0.01)	0.03 (0.03)
0	4 (9.88)	1.00	1.00	0.02 (0.02)	0.06 (0.04)
ა	≥ 6 (4.35)	1.00	1.00	0.02~(0.01)	0.04~(0.03)

Table 4: Instantaneous ambiguity success fractions (relative frequencies), and empirical and formal (given in brackets) angular standard deviations (based on correctly fixed epochs) for the experiment with simulated satellite outage (Here, ' $\geq s$ ' refers to s or more satellites)



Figure 5: Simulated urban canyon: Buildings on both sides of an urban road block satellite visibility; Angle γ_0 defines the direction of the road, while angles α_0 and β_0 define the height and the width of the buildings, respectively.



Figure 6: Satellite visibility for simulated urban canyon with $\alpha_0=60^\circ$ and $\beta_0=60^\circ$ in the North-South direction

Number	α_0	β_0	GPS only		COMPASS only		GPS + COMPASS	
of fre-	[deg]	[deg]						
quency			LAMBD	A C-LAMBDA	LAMBE	DA C-LAMBDA	LAMBD	A C-LAMBDA
		20	0.77	0.98	0.51	0.97	1.00	1.00
	20	40	0.72	0.98	0.50	0.96	1.00	1.00
	20	60	0.68	0.97	0.50	0.96	1.00	1.00
		80	0.68	0.97	0.50	0.96	1.00	1.00
		20	0.64	0.96	0.42	0.94(0.99)	1.00	1.00
	40	40	0.42	0.89(0.98)	0.21	0.81(0.97)	1.00	1.00
	40	60	0.21	0.77(0.93)	0.21	0.80(0.96)	0.98	1.00
1		80	0.17	0.75(0.91)	0.21	0.80(0.96)	0.98	1.00
1		20	0.52	0.92	0.35	0.90(0.99)	1.00	1.00
	60	40	0.20	0.68(0.95)	0.11	0.58(0.87)	0.92	1.00
	00	60	0.02	$0.35 \ (0.57)$	0.01	0.30(0.27)	0.34	0.78(0.92)
		80	0.02	0.32(0.34)	0.00	0.14(0.09)	0.20	0.66(0.75)
		20	0.43	0.86	0.27	0.83(0.98)	0.99	1.00
	80	40	0.10	0.51 (0.88)	0.05	0.41(0.73)	0.74	0.97
	80	60	0.00	0.14(0.13)	0.00	0.08(0.03)	0.04	0.38(0.47)
		80	*	* (0)	*	* (0)	0.00	0.14(0.04)
	20	≤ 80	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
		20	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00(0.99)	1.00	1.00
	40	40	0.99	1.00(0.98)	0.98	1.00(0.97)	1.00	1.00
	40	60	0.98	1.00(0.93)	0.98	1.00(0.96)	1.00	1.00
		80	0.97	1.00(0.91)	0.98	1.00(0.96)	1.00	1.00
		20	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00(0.99)	1.00	1.00
2	<u>co</u>	40	0.94	1.00(0.95)	0.93	1.00(0.87)	1.00	1.00
	00	60	0.80	0.99(0.57)	0.79	1.00(0.27)	0.97	1.00(0.92)
		80	0.82	0.98(0.34)	0.81	1.00(0.09)	0.94	1.00(0.75)
		20	0.98	1.00	0.98	1.00(0.98)	1.00	1.00
	80	40	0.89	0.99(0.88)	0.79	0.99(0.73)	1.00	1.00
	80	60	0.58	0.96(0.13)	0.70	0.99(0.03)	0.78	0.98(0.47)
		80	*	*(0)	*	*(0)	0.69	0.97(0.04)
	20	≤ 80			1.00	1.00		
	40	≤ 80			1.00	1.00(0.97)		
3		20			1.00	1.00(0.99)		
	60	40			1.00	1.00(0.87)		
		60			1.00	1.00(0.27)		
	80	20			1.00	1.00(0.98)		
		40			1.00	1.00(0.73)		

Table 5: Instantaneous ambiguity success fractions (relative frequencies) for the experiment with simulated urban canyon (Figure 5); Here, ' $\leq \alpha$ ' refers to less or equal to α ; For some cases, a fraction of epochs (given in brackets) were processed due to not enough satellites for positioning (requires at least four satellites)

α_0	β_0	GPS only		COMPA	COMPASS only		GPS + COMPASS	
[deg]	[deg]							
		Heading	Elevation	Heading	Elevation	Heading	Elevation	
	20	0.02(0.01)	0.04(0.04)	0.02(0.02)	0.04(0.04)	$0.01 \ (0.01)$	$0.03 \ (0.03)$	
20	40	0.02(0.01)	0.04(0.04)	0.02(0.02)	0.04(0.04)	0.01 (0.01)	0.03(0.03)	
20	60	0.02(0.01)	0.04(0.04)	0.02(0.02)	0.04(0.04)	0.01 (0.01)	0.03(0.03)	
	80	0.02(0.01)	$0.04 \ (0.04)$	$0.02 \ (0.02)$	$0.04 \ (0.04)$	$0.01 \ (0.01)$	$0.03\ (0.03)$	
	20	0.02(0.02)	0.04(0.04)	0.02(0.02)	0.04(0.04)	0.01 (0.01)	0.03(0.03)	
40	40	0.02(0.02)	0.05 (0.05)	0.02(0.02)	0.05 (0.05)	0.01 (0.01)	0.03(0.03)	
40	60	0.02(0.02)	0.08(0.06)	0.02(0.02)	0.05 (0.05)	0.01 (0.01)	0.04(0.03)	
	80	0.02(0.02)	0.08(0.07)	0.02(0.02)	$0.05 \ (0.05)$	$0.01 \ (0.01)$	0.04(0.03)	
	20	0.02(0.02)	0.04(0.04)	0.02(0.02)	0.04(0.04)	$0.01 \ (0.01)$	$0.03 \ (0.03)$	
60	40	0.02(0.02)	$0.05 \ (0.05)$	0.02(0.02)	$0.05 \ (0.05)$	0.02(0.02)	0.04(0.03)	
00	60	0.04(0.04)	$0.06 \ (0.06)$	0.03 (0.02)	$0.05 \ (0.05)$	0.03(0.03)	$0.05 \ (0.05)$	
	80	0.04(0.04)	$0.07 \ (0.07)$	* (*)	* (*)	0.03(0.03)	$0.07 \ (0.07)$	
80	20	0.02(0.02)	0.04(0.04)	0.02(0.02)	0.04(0.04)	0.01 (0.01)	0.03(0.03)	
	40	$0.03 \ (0.03)$	$0.05 \ (0.05)$	0.02(0.02)	$0.05 \ (0.05)$	0.02(0.02)	0.04(0.04)	
	60	* (*)	* (*)	* (*)	* (*)	$0.06 \ (0.05)$	0.04(0.04)	

Table 6: Empirical and formal (given in brackets) angular standard deviations [deg] for single-frequency data with simulated urban canyon (Figure 5)

317 4. Conclusions

In this contribution we studied the use of the combined GPS-COMPASS 318 constellation for C-LAMBDA attitude determination. In comparing the perfor-319 mances of LAMBDA and C-LAMBDA, we also studied the impact of using the 320 known baseline length on ambiguity resolution. Using data from a real data 321 campaign spanning 23 days, improved availability and angular accuracy were 322 demonstrated using single epoch GPS/COMPASS processing. We considered 323 various satellite deprived environments (satellite outages, urban canyon, and 324 open-pit) to study the robustness of the GPS/COMPASS-based attitude solu-325 tions. Using simulated satellite outages, we showed that instantaneous multi-326 frequency ambiguity resolution using the C-LAMBDA method is possible with 327 as few as six satellites from GPS and/or COMPASS constellations. We also 328 showed that the use of a combined constellation significantly improves the at-329 titude solution availability in an urban canyon. Finally, we showed that the 330 use of the combined constellation yields instantaneous attitude solutions in an 331 open-pit with as large as 30 degree elevation masking even with single frequency 332 precessing, while one can go up to only 20 degree elevation masking with multi-333 frequency processing of an individual system. Important for future research 334 in the field of GNSS attitude determination is the further development of a 335 probabilistic framework, similar to the one already available for the standard 336 mixed-integer GNSS model (Teunissen, 2002; Verhagen and Teunissen, 2006b). 337 Such theoretical framework would allow for the development of the appropri-338 ate probability density functions and test statistics for the constrained GNSS 339 attitude model. 340

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