Thesis Portfolio

Space-Based Solutions to Virginia's Roadway Problems Real-Time Weather and Traffic Data Integration

(Technical Report)

The Ethics of Orbital Debris Generation

(STS Research Paper)

An Undergraduate Thesis

Presented to the Faculty of the School of Engineering and Applied Science University of Virginia • Charlottesville, Virginia

In Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree Bachelor of Science, School of Engineering

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Department of Mechanical and Aerospace Engineering

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Sociotechnical Synthesis

The technical project was given the problem of developing a solution approach to collecting real-time weather data and delivering it to users to improve roadway safety and efficiency. The solution was constrained to being a remote sensing solution in the form of a spacecraft. Over the course of the Fall 2020 and Spring 2021 semesters, the feasibility of the Commuter Live Aggregated Yield Traffic Observation Network (CLAYTON) project was established. CLAYTON is a scalable constellation of spacecraft, in the form of 6U cubesats, that will detect ice and snow conditions on roadways and deliver the data in a nearly real-time fashion to roadway managers, roadway users, and emergency services personnel. The project features two phases. In phase I, one cubesat is prototyped to monitor the intersection of I-95 and I-495 in Springfield,VA as a proof of concept. Upon success, the full constellation of twenty-four satellites will be deployed to monitor all of Virginia.

The Science, Technology, and Society research paper applies classical ethical theories to understand the ethical responsibilities of an engineer when it comes to contributing to orbital debris. The orbital space around Earth is a finite natural resource that is becoming increasingly cluttered due to inevitable collisions among existing debris and the continual addition of debris. Without sufficient action, humankind risks the loss of freedom to operate in space. Utilitarianism, Deontology, Rights Ethics, and Virtue Ethics were used to carry out the analysis. It was determined that no one action by an engineer would be considered ethical in all the selected ethical perspectives. However, a majority of the ethical systems shared the common theme that it would be unethical to ignore the impending orbital debris crisis.

The relationship between the technical project and the STS research paper is that the STS research paper addresses a concern I held about the constrained solution approach. The literature review that preceded the design of CLAYTON offered non-space based remote sensing solutions such as the deployment of drones that would satisfy the objectives of CLAYTON. Being environmentally conscious and having always extended these values to space, I was dissatisfied with being constrained to a spacecraft when there were other valid solutions. Thus, I decided to explore the ethics of the situation I found myself in. In the end, the technical project was influenced to have a recommendation for the next class that takes up the project to develop a de-orbit plan for the constellation.

Being on the program management team for the technical project as the Chief Financial Officer, I learned more strategies on how to effectively lead, how the Space Mission Engineering process unfolds, and was able to observe the different teams and roles that make a space mission possible. This gave me insight as to what specific role I might wish to pursue as I enter the space industry. The STS research paper demonstrated how important STS conversations are in ensuring that a technological project's consequences are close to the designer's intended outcomes.

A SPACE-BASED SOLUTION TO IMPROVE ROADWAY SAFETY AND EFFICIENCY IN VIRGINIA: REAL-TIME WINTER WEATHER DATA FOR NAVIGATION

A Research Paper submitted to the Department of Mechanical and Aerospace Engineering
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree
Bachelor of Science in Mechanical and Aerospace Engineering

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MAE 4700 Spacecraft Design II Students

By

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May 3, 2021

On my honor as a University student, I have neither given nor received unauthorized aid on this assignment as defined by the Honor Guidelines for Thesis-Related Assignments.

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We would like to thank all of the professors, industry leaders, local government officials, and Subject Matter Experts (SMEs) who have fostered a productive and lengthy discussion on how to improve the safety of Virginia's roadways. We are privileged to have this opportunity to work with MITRE. Special thanks are extended to Cj Rieser, Michael Balazs, and John Griffith for their mentorship. We also thank Scott Kordella of MITRE for fostering this partnership with our team as part of MITRE UIX-Space. UVA has also played an instrumental role in facilitating the class relationship with MITRE, with a special thanks to Jeffrey Fox and John Ralston. Additionally, we would like to extend our gratitude to Christopher Goyne, our technical advisor, as well as Venkataraman Lakshmi, a Professor in UVA's Department of Engineering Systems and Environment, for helping us identify key issues with Virginia's roadway system and data collection. Christopher Goyne has been instrumental to helping our team explore viable, efficient, remote-sensing solutions and has introduced us to many SMEs who guided us toward our solution. Further discussions with other professionals, such as Michael Fontaine of the Virginia Department of Transportation (VDOT), Mike McPherson of KQ9P and W4UVA, Harrison Brookeman of the Charlottesville Albemarle Rescue Squad (CARS), Doug Walker of Albemarle county government, and Christopher Walker of the Norfolk Fire Department, provided invaluable insight into current weather data usage and how enhanced data delivery could better serve Virginians. Each individual across these various organizations contributed greatly to our solution proposal and we are grateful for the opportunity to learn and cooperate with them all.

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INTRODUCTION

This University of Virginia spacecraft design capstone class developed a conceptual solution to address one aspect of Virginia's transportation problems using remote sensing and data fusion methods. In August 2020, key stakeholders from MITRE, University of Virginia, Virginia Tech, Old Dominion University, George Mason University, Virginia Transportation Research Council, Virginia Space Grant Consortium, Federal Highway Administration, and National Academy of Sciences met as part of the MITRE University Innovation Exchange (UIX)-Space Initiative Transportation Efficiency Workshop. Their discussion and deliberation identified three key areas to improve transportation efficiency and safety in Virginia: (1) Real time weather data to improve roadway safety, (2) Remote-sensing-enhanced non-destructive evaluation of roadway infrastructure, and (3) Management and tracking of truck parking (Kordella, 2020, Slide 5). During the Fall semester, University of Virginia students in the spacecraft design course were divided into three sub-teams corresponding to these three problems. Each problem was refined and the practicality of possible solutions were examined. For the Spring Semester, the entire class channeled efforts as one team to focus on the first problem, using real time weather data to improve Virginia's roadway safety. This problem was seen as particularly suited to solutions that could be achieved as part of an undergraduate spacecraft design class. During the project brief, MITRE provided a preliminary problem statement, described below. Since that time, the class conducted a science and technology literature review and refined the problem statement further, as discussed in detail on page 2.

Between rain, snow, sleet, and hail, Virginians have unforgettable experiences driving in adverse weather. Similarly, most Virginians know the frustrations of a rush hour traffic jam in Northern Virginia, Richmond, or Hampton Roads. The mechanical and aerospace engineering students in the Spacecraft Design capstone course have developed a remote sensing system concept to provide real time weather data delivery. The goal of this proposal, based on the first objective, is to help alleviate weather-related traffic congestion, and improve roadway efficiency and safety in Virginia.

This paper contains a summary of the problem initially assigned to the students, a review of the current science and technologies to solve the problem at hand, proposed primary and secondary mission objectives, system level requirements, and mission constraints, as well as a baseline mission architecture and concept. Additionally, the six functional domains of the spacecraft design are described and it is explained how they meet the mission objectives. Both hardware and software choices for the spacecraft are proposed. Finally, the paper concludes with recommendations for the future development of the solution as part of MITRE's UIX-Space initiative, along with preliminary risk assessments and mitigation strategies. Table I in Appendix A provides a complete list of all acronyms used in this paper, along with their definitions.

PROBLEM STATEMENT

Picture a driver waking up, looking out the window, checking the weather, and pulling out of the driveway for the day. This morning ritual feels familiar. However, checking the weather before driving may not always provide as much information as drivers may think. The weather could differ between the start and end locations. A storm could blow in from elsewhere mid-drive. A fallen tree or flooding could block a roadway. If the driver is travelling toward a storm, it may not have shown up on a weather app before departure. At this point, the driver cannot easily look for an alternate route in real time, and they may be stuck in weather-induced traffic congestion, once again. These are merely a few examples of adverse weather

contributing to road congestion. In many instances, the current method used by drivers to check weather information leads to inaccurate conclusions. By including a combination of real time weather, predicted weather, and traffic data in the information sent to drivers via smart phones and navigation devices, roadway users could have a more accurate representation of the drive ahead.

While the benefit of simultaneous weather and navigational data collection is apparent, current on-road systems do not integrate the delivery of both streams to users. This shortcoming makes roads more hazardous as drivers are not appropriately warned of adverse weather conditions. Nearly all highway capacity approximations assume clear weather. For example, of all the publicly available datasets looked at by Yang, Lillian, and Pun-Cheng (2016), only two, Change Detection and Karlsruhe Institute include non-perfect weather conditions (p. 150). Clear weather is an invalid assumption to make when performing traffic data analytics, considering the majority of states in the United States encounter inclement weather conditions for a significant portion of the year (Agarwal, 2005, p. 1). Furthermore, adverse weather conditions contribute to many vehicle crashes each year. For example, Ashley, Strader, Dziubla, and Harberlie (2015) reported that in Fancy Gap, Virginia, excessive driver speed in dense fog caused 17 distinct crashes on March 31, 2013 (p. 756). In 2018, the economic cost of traffic crashes in Virginia amounted to \$6.4 billion (TRIP, 2020, p. 2).

Although roadway users may rely on weather forecasts, the Virginia Department of Transportation (VDOT) uses road condition measurements, which could differ significantly from meteorological data reported to drivers via news stations and apps. For example, the roadway could be a couple degrees colder than the atmosphere, which may result in ice. These discrepancies lead to misinformation which contributes to accidents (Fontaine, 2020). Despite the wide availability of weather data via various sources, delivery to individual drivers is extremely fragmented. While many aviation and marine satellite navigation devices already have such capabilities, very few roadway traffic algorithms include weather data. Therefore, navigation sources such as Waze, Google Maps, and Virginia 511 offer different and sometimes conflicting information. Further, although VDOT consistently shares information with the local media, the public does not follow this information unless the report is catastrophic or sensational. Due to these shortcomings, drivers, autonomous vehicles, in-vehicle satellite navigation services, and vehicle to vehicle communication will also benefit from more accurate weather-related traffic data.

SCIENCE AND TECHNICAL INVESTIGATION

While many factors contribute to traffic and vehicle crashes, an unsurprisingly significant number of crashes relate to inclement weather. Graduate research by Yue Liu (2013) studied fourteen-years of National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA) data and found that 24% of vehicle crashes were weather related in the state of Maryland, which has a similar climate and geography to Virginia (p. 4). Additionally, 75% of weather-related crashes occurred on wet pavement and 15% occurred during snow (Liu, p. 4). Therefore, rain and snow are the biggest contributors to weather related accidents in this region.

Although a human decision is at the core of every traffic incident or accident, there is a lack of understanding of current weather impacts on road safety for the average commuter. Researchers relied on phone surveys to determine how drivers use weather data to drive safely. In response to two winter storms in Utah, drivers looked at an average of two-to-three weather

sources before commuting (Barjenbruch et al., 2016, p. 481). Most of those sources came from local weather stations and personal connections rather than government websites like that of the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA). When asked about the available weather data, almost all drivers felt satisfied with its quality. Despite feeling well-informed, the majority of drivers answered that the actual storm was more severe than expected. Additionally, only a small portion of the drivers adjusted their behaviors (Barjenbruch et. al., p. 481). Consequently, any effective solution will need to account for human sentiment.

While human factors are highly important, we cannot neglect the rise of autonomous vehicles. Weather hazards may pose a particular problem for autonomous vehicles, since this adds more variables to an already huge number that control systems in these vehicles must consider when operating on the road. Furthermore, the growing presence of electric vehicles on Virginia's road systems will accelerate the fraction of autonomously driven vehicles. Currently, 2% of passenger vehicles in Virginia are electric, yet this metric is expected to balloon to 46% by 2040 (TRIP, 2020, p. 2). Both electric and autonomous vehicles would benefit from a combined stream of weather and traffic data to optimize their routes and increase passenger safety.

Currently, Virginia's weather information is a synthesis of data from space and ground sources that the entire country shares. VDOT deploys ground sensors from the commercial company Vaisala, as well as dispatching people to observe conditions in-person. In space, the most prominently used satellites are from NOAA's Geostationary Operational Environmental Satellite (GOES) system. The GOES-R series of satellites report weather conditions on the Earth's surface and at different layers of the Earth's atmosphere. These satellites carry an imager that measures incoming infrared radiation from the Sun, and a sounder that observes atmospheric profiles and cloud coverages. The current generation, GOES-16 offers greater imagery and resolution with increased frequency, providing weather updates every 30 seconds (National Weather Service [NWS], n.d.). GOES-16 contains two Earth-pointing sensors, the advanced baseline imager (ABI) and the geostationary lightning mapper (GLM) (National Aeronautics and Space Administration [NASA], n.d.). The GLM is capable of detecting the location, frequency, and extent of lightning discharges, allowing it to identify intensifying thunderstorms and tropical cyclones. The ABI contains a 16-band imager capable of viewing multiple wavelengths in the visible, near-infrared, and infrared spectrum. These bands allow GOES-16 to detect various elements on the surface or in the atmosphere, including cloud formation, snow, ice, rain accumulation, surface temperature, winds, fire, and many other weather-related indicators. According to the National Weather Service, GOES-16 provides three times more spectral information, four times the spatial resolution, and more than five times faster temporal coverage than the previous system (NWS, n.d.).

Even though GOES detects many forms of weather, ground-based forms of data collection are still necessary to produce robust information. Several instruments, such as Doppler radar, ground stations, and weather buoys, supplement satellites by collecting data that is hard to obtain from space, such as precipitation intensity. To improve accuracy, human observations are submitted to NOAA as an additional verification method (NOAA, n.d.). Even still, some weather measurements are collected entirely by hand. For example, snow depth is typically measured by a human at ground-based weather stations (Rasmussen et al., 2012, p. 815). This leads to limited coverage since weather stations are located far apart from one another and manual measurements are infrequently updated.

Similarly, private products such as Google Maps, Apple Maps, and Waze crowdsource

information from drivers and relay the data to other app users. Since these applications have standards to ensure their product is consistent, weather data from individual states is often undelivered due to a lack of nationwide availability. When these navigation tools do not include real-time weather updates, local Emergency Management Services (EMS) encounter issues with responding to calls due to inadequate re-routing. Additionally, current weather services are not timely enough, so EMS rely on user reports to address a weather emergency such as flooding.

Overall, NOAA's weather data collection is constantly improving, with increasingly accurate and frequent data, allowing for extremely reliable short-term forecasts and improved long-term forecasts. Despite the incredible capabilities of the GOES satellites, integration of this data into preexisting, popular route planning apps is minimal, even though adverse weather conditions are a significant cause of vehicle crashes every year (Federal Highway Administration, 2020). This is because GOES-16 has a spatial resolution of about 2 kilometers, which is too coarse to distinguish features on the road (GOES-R, n.d.). If, however, similar measurements are obtained at much higher resolution, real time weather data obtained in space could be incorporated into navigational apps for drivers in a useful way. This would improve the economy, health, and environment for Virginians.

MISSION OBJECTIVES AND SOLUTION APPROACH

After conducting a literature review, the team used the space mission engineering process to determine the mission objectives and solution approach. The knowledge gleaned from our research helped us determine the mission objectives, listed below. After discussing the mission objectives, we will share the conceptual approach selected. The mission objectives are:

Primary Mission Objectives:

- 1. To detect and identify snow-covered, ice-covered, or dry roadways using remote sensing.
- 2. To effectively distribute measured data to roadway users, first responders, and roadway managers in order to improve roadway efficiency and safety.

Secondary Mission Objectives:

- 1. Reduce long term costs of roadway monitoring for roadway managers
- 2. Measure the effect of climate trends on roadways and help predict required maintenance.
- 3. Measure how effective the system is on driver behavior and safety.

To satisfy the first primary mission objective, we will start with a proof-of-concept focused on the Capital Beltway in Northern Virginia. From there exists the opportunity to scale up to the continental United States. Many efforts to track the effects of weather on roadways require a human-the-loop that our approach hopes to remove, resulting in long term cost savings. Additionally, tracking climate trends again benefits the roadway manager by helping them efficiently allocate their resources and workforce.

The data we collect will not help reduce weather-related traffic congestion without informing the public on road conditions. To meet the second primary objective, partnering with the aforementioned widely used navigation apps will ease the process and allow the capstone team to focus on executing a spacecraft that creates usable data streams. A secondary objective related to data delivery is to measure how effective the system is on driver behavior and safety.

Upon launch, conducting surveys and reviewing user reports will provide helpful feedback about the technology's impact on weather-related accidents.

The proposed solution, based on the mission's primary and secondary objectives, is a constellation of 24 6U CubeSats; called collectively the Commuter Live-Yield Traffic Observation Network (CLAYTON). We propose two phases. First, as a technology demonstration during phase I, we will prototype and launch one satellite. Later, during phase II, a follow-on joint UVA and commercial team will build and deploy the 24 satellites. There will be two ground stations; one at the University of Virginia and another at Virginia Tech, for redundancy purposes. There will be a ground calibration site to verify that the spacecraft instruments are functioning properly. With successful data collection and dissemination to the pertinent stakeholders, such as roadway users, VDOT and EMS, further data collection areas can be included through the buildout of more ground stations and launches of additional satellites at a later time. This will allow for coverage of an entire coast, and eventually the whole continental US.

SYSTEM LEVEL REQUIREMENTS AND CONSTRAINTS

The system level functional requirements, operational requirements, and constraints are tabulated in Appendix A in Tables II, III, and IV, respectively. These tables also include specifications and verification methods. The most important parameters are described here.

The functional requirements for this mission dictate that the spacecraft must be able to detect, and distinguish between snow, ice, and dry roadways. In addition, measurements from our remote sensing platform must be of higher resolution than existing NOAA satellites. More specifically, the resolution must be fine enough to be able to distinguish the road from its surroundings. The standard width of a U.S. highway lane is 12 feet (Federal Highway Administration, n.d., "Interstate design standards"). Therefore, assuming the roads under observation consist of one- and two-lane width designations, we require a minimum resolution of 12 feet and a maximum resolution of 24 feet to capture the desired snow and ice accumulations. In order to meet the real time data delivery nature of the project, we require a data update with a frequency of less than one hour.

For successful completion of the operational requirements of this mission, the spacecraft must enable data delivery to government services, such as VDOT or EMS, to promote prompt and decisive action on segments of highway that are unsafe. Additionally, there must be data delivery channels for roadway users, such as third-party apps, to effectively deliver the latest road safety information to a wide audience. The data delivery, and resulting spacecraft, must host a minimum downtime of less than 5 minutes at a time. This ensures frequent availability during its designated service life of 5 years.

The two important system level constraints pertaining to this solution are size and cost. The spacecraft form factor must be within optimal size and mass to carry out the mission's primary and secondary objectives. Secondly, the cost at completion must be at or below the predefined budget of \$50M by the course advisor.

BASELINE ARCHITECTURE AND MISSION CONCEPT

This spacecraft summary will outline the mission subject, identify the components of the spacecraft payload, and summarize the mission concept before describing each of the spacecraft subsystems in detail.

The subject of CLAYTON's mission is snow and ice accumulation on roadways in Virginia. In order to demonstrate proof of concept, the acquisition target will be limited to the intersection of Interstate 95 and Interstate 495 near Springfield, Virginia. The payload includes a hyperspectral camera which operates in the 450nm-900nm range. Also onboard the spacecraft are an arrangement of ClydeSpace Photon solar panels, and a CubeADCS 3-axis attitude determination and control system. We anticipate that the CubeSats will be launched into Low Earth Orbit (LEO) onboard a SpaceX Falcon 9, or onboard a Northrop Grumman Antares rocket for delivery to the International Space Station (ISS). Once at the ISS, the CubeSats will jettison and detumble into their operational orbits. Current calculations show 24 satellites at an altitude of 400km and an inclination of 51.6° will ensure a coverage frequency of 1 hour over the target area. While in orbit, CLAYTON will communicate in the S-band frequency range with a ground station located at UVA and a backup ground station located at Virginia Tech. It is also anticipated that UVA will serve as the satellite operator, provided the size of the constellation is limited to a tenable size. The intended lifetime of CLAYTON is five years, with the intention of generating enough accurate data to demonstrate proof of concept. Consideration was also given to a geostationary orbit satellite, however through several trade studies conducted, such a solution would prove costlier while providing less resolution.

Now, each subsystem will be described to explain how each subsystem design meets the system level requirements. The subsystems are addressed in the following order: Instruments, Communications, Software & Avionics, Power, Thermal, & Environment, Attitude Determination & Control Systems, Structures & Integration.

INSTRUMENTS

The objective of the instruments subsystem is to detect snow and ice on roadways in Virginia. The most important requirements for the image sensor relate to its spatial resolution, spectral range, exposure time, and size. The functional requirements and constraints are listed in Appendix B, Tables II and III respectively. Several CubeSat imagers met some of these requirements, but only the Simera Sense HyperScape100 meets all of the necessary requirements.

INSTRUMENT AND PAYLOAD REQUIREMENTS

The requirements for an imager to perform snow/ice detection on roads were determined through research pertaining to the NOAA GOES satellites. The research revealed that the spectral bands in Table I in Appendix B could be used to detect snow and ice on road surfaces (Liu, 2019; Romanov, 2016; Rost, 2012).

It was also found that snow and ice could be detected using passive or active microwave sensors. The spatial resolution and detection capabilities of microwave-based imagery, however, are too limited to determine snow cover in areas as small as the width of a road. Given that microwaves are the only feasible observation method at night, snow cover observation is limited to only daylight hours in the current design. The research showed that the primary method used

by current satellites to detect snow and ice cover is the Normalized Difference Snow Index (NDSI) (Romanov, 2016):

$$NDSI = (R_{vis}-R_{sir}) / (R_{vis}+R_{sir})$$
 eq. 1

With R_{vis} being the 0.6 μ m band used for snow detection in the visible spectrum, and R_{sir} being 1.6 μ m band used for distinguishing snow from cloud cover (Romanov, 2016). This was the instrument team's original method of determining snow cover until it was determined that the imagers suitable for CubeSat applications which satisfy spatial resolution requirements would not be able to make observations in spectral bands with wavelengths as high as the 1.6 μ m band. After discussing the predicament with Peter Romanov from NOAA, it was determined that observations done using spectral bands near or within the visible spectrum would be the best option for snow/ice detection given the circumstances. Using reflected polarization as a method of snow and ice detection was suggested by the MITRE team. Research shows this technique to be a possible approach of detection of snow and ice on roadways and other surfaces. It may even be a superior approach over measuring light reflectiveness at different wavelengths given it's better sensitivity of distinguishing between particular environmental conditions, including ice, snow, and water. This is a relatively new approach (Piccardi & Colace, 2019), however, and more research and testing is needed to determine its feasibility with the particular conditions of a low earth orbit CubeSat, particularly its high altitude.

SPATIAL RESOLUTION

Spatial resolution is the measurement of the smallest area that can be detected by satellite imagery. For example, an image with a spatial resolution of 25 m depicts square areas on the ground of 25 x 25 m with a single pixel. Spatial resolution is affected by many factors such as the lens and filters used as well as the altitude of the orbiting satellite. The spatial resolution required to observe snow/ice cover on roads needs to be less than or equivalent to the width of standard road lanes, which is 3.7 m.

SIZE AND MASS CONSTRAINTS

The payload must have a physical size of 3U (30 x 10 x 10 cm) or less for easy integration with the planned 6U CubeSat. According to CubeSat standards, the mass of a 3U component must be 4 kg or less (Bellardo, 2020). These constraints were among the primary factors for determining the best options for a CubeSat imager.

EXPOSURE TIME

The required exposure time ($t_{exposure}$) is based on spatial resolution (d_{ground}) and velocity (v_{orbit}), as shown in the equation below.

$$t_{exposure} = \frac{d_{ground}}{v_{orbit}}$$
 eq.2

The team calculated an orbital velocity of 7,669 m/s at 400 km altitude, and this value was used along with the spatial resolution of the camera to find the maximum exposure time to prevent motion blur and produce a clear image. After the HyperScape100 was selected, the team calculated a minimum exposure time of 1/2000th of a second or faster based on its 3.8 m

resolution.

POTENTIAL INSTRUMENTS

Research was conducted to find CubeSat-class imagers and a list of 12 possible options was compiled. Imagers that met the size/mass constraints included the Chameleon, Gecko, Mantis, and HyperScape100. The Chameleon can be configured as either a multispectral or hyperspectral imager, with a form factor of 3U and a mass of 1.3 kg (Dragonfly Aerospace, n.d.-a). It has an advertised spatial resolution of 9.6 m at 500 km altitude, but further research showed that its actual resolution was either 20 or 40 m depending on the spectral configuration.

The Gecko and Mantis imagers offer similar capabilities despite being slightly smaller. Both have a form factor of 2U and a mass of less than 1 kg (Dragonfly Aerospace, n.d.-b, n.d.-c). However, their spatial resolutions of 39 and 32 m, respectively, fail to meet the requirement established for the design. Another option, the Monitor Imager, was considered for its 2 m spatial resolution at 500 km (SCS Space, n.d.). The team later discovered that this imager is only compatible with CubeSats that are 12U or larger, thus ruling it out. All 7 remaining imagers were disqualified based on either insufficient spatial resolution or incompatible dimensions.

The HyperScape100 meets both the spatial resolution requirement and the size/mass constraint, with a resolution of 4.75 m at 500 km, a form factor of 2U, and a mass of 1.2 kg (Dreijer, 2021). The specified resolution translates to 3.8 m at the expected orbital altitude of 400 km, which is sufficient to resolve snow or ice cover on highways. It has a panchromatic band in addition to over 1000 available hyperspectral bands, uses 5.5 to 5.8 W of power during imaging mode, uses 2.35 to 2.48 W during readout mode, and requires a voltage of 5 V. The imager features 128 GB of built-in storage. Image data output options include LVDS, SpaceWire, and USART, and control interface options are I²C, SPI, SpaceWire, RS-422, RS-485, or CAN 2.0B. The HyperScape100 is shown in Figure 1 below.

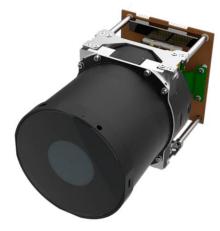


Figure 1. The Simera Sense HyperScape100 imager. (SatCatalog, 2020).

IMAGE ACQUISITION & PROCESSING

In order to distinguish between cloud/forest cover and snow/ice cover, the images will need to be processed using an automated computer process. For a fully-automated processing method, a reflectance threshold would still be used to determine snow cover but distinguishing cloud/forest cover would be automated as well. Forest cover can be distinguished easily at

spectral bands around 0.4 - 0.5 microns. Clouds have a reflectance relatively close to that of snow throughout the entire spectrum available to the HyperScape100 as shown in Figure 2, but the difference may be large enough to distinguish the two with only the imager onboard CLAYTON. If it is not, however, CLAYTON data can be cross referenced with data from the NOAA GOES-16 Satellite which can effectively determine cloud cover with a spatial resolution of 1 km. This is a poor spatial resolution in comparison with HyperScape100's 3.8 m spatial resolution, but if GOES-16 determines that a certain area has cloud cover then CLAYTON's data processing will assume the presence of clouds within the same geographic space. Once cloud cover is distinguished from ground observation, the final step is to match the images with a road mapping system or by using ground stations to calibrate the image processor. This will determine the locations of roads within a given image. As a result, such a system would allow observers to determine if there is high reflectance on road surfaces, indicating snow and ice cover, instead of the usual low reflectance due to asphalt or other road materials.

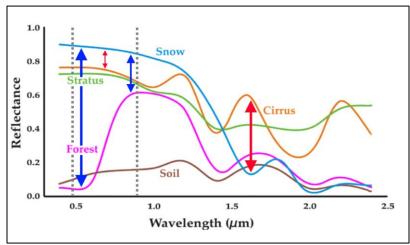


Figure 2. Spectral Reflectance of Objects. Vertical dotted lines represent the boundaries of HyperScape100 spectral range. Arrows show reflectance differences used to distinguish observations. (Romanov, 2016).

COMMUNICATIONS

Determining the communications subsystem concept involved selecting the satellite's antennae and transceivers, outlining the flow of information from satellite to ground station to end users, and specifying subsystem functional and operational requirements.

UHF, S-BAND, and X BAND FREQUENCIES

This section is a summary of the state-of-the-art for different band frequencies in communications, information can also be found in Table VII of Appendix B. This information led the team to decide to use S-band and UHF frequencies for CLAYTON. Conventional CubeSats have communicated in the Ultra High Frequency (UHF) and S-band frequency ranges. S-band is from 2 to 4 Gigahertz (GHz), X band is from 8 to 12 GHz, and UHF is from 300 Megahertz (MHz) to 3 GHz (Dunbar, 2020). As the frequency increases, the potential transmission rate in the CubeSat increases due to the larger bandwidth. While UHF and S-band

communication systems are currently more developed than that of X band's, strides have been made in improving X band availability. Regarding affordability, however, X band remains a more expensive option compared to the other two frequency ranges. Both S and X band systems must be pointed at the ground while the UHF has more flexible orientations. This depends on the antenna type. Common UHF band antennas are dipole or turnstile, while common S or X bands are patch antennas. Primary interference was another consideration. Wireless networks dominate the S-band and smaller devices like cell phones or radios dominate the UHF band. While fewer commercial or personal devices occupy the X band, Earth's atmosphere becomes an interference source (Dunbar, 2020).

Using the information above, it was determined that the satellite would need a UHF transmitter and antenna as this can send data in all directions and is effective at sending information about the state of the satellite. It was also determined that either an S-band or X band will be required to send the weather information. The decision between S-band and X band will be determined based on how large of a transmission rate is required.

FUNCTIONAL, OPERATIONAL REQUIREMENTS AND CONSTRAINTS

To ensure timely communication of data between the satellite and the ground station, the functional requirements state that the satellite should transmit at a rate of 15 Mbps to the ground station. This 15 Mbps transfer rate was determined assuming there would be 30 images with a size of 25 MB for each image and a transfer window of about 10 minutes. Weather data is to be transmitted using S-band for the best transmission rate compatibility, while UHF will be used to communicate satellite operational data and as a backup for sending weather data in case S-band fails. The UVA ground station already has a compatible UHF antenna which is why the team chose to use one on the satellite. Requirements will be verified using inspection and testing of equipment.

For operational requirements, during initial testing the data stream will go through the UVA ground station, with Virginia Tech serving as the backup location. Some modifications will have to be made to the UVA ground station to include the S-band antenna. When the project is at its full scale in Phase II, the data stream will go through a commercial ground station. Requirements will be verified using inspection, analysis, and testing of equipment. The spacecraft conceptual design focused on satellite to ground communications, therefore future work will be required on transferring data from the ground station to emergency personnel and roadway navigation companies.

The only major constraint was the amount of space in the CubeSat that the communications equipment could take up. The team decided that all of the required equipment had to fit into less than 2U of the 6U spacecraft in order to leave room for other necessary components. This will be verified using inspection with other structures and integration teams. A table with all of the requirements and constraints can be found in Tables IV, V, and VI in Appendix B.

CHOOSING THE GROUND STATION

For the initial testing, the main ground station will be located at UVA; however, this requires installation of an S-band antenna. This would allow quicker transmission of captured images, satisfying the 5-minute delay requirement. The Virginia Tech ground station will be the backup station. If the project is scaled up to cover all of Virginia or the entire US, then a commercial ground station network will be required.

With a long enough transmission window, about 10 minutes, the data can be downloaded at a lower speed than it was acquired. It is also possible that some of the data can be processed and removed from that bundle before it is sent to the ground. Therefore, a longer transmission window allows for a smaller transmission rate than the data capture rate (McPherson, 2021). The team assumes all data reduction will be done on the ground.

CHOOSING THE ANTENNA AND TRANSCEIVER

For antenna selection on the satellite, there is a tradeoff between the beam width precision and the data transmission frequencies. Antennas using higher frequencies should use a dish with small beam width in the 3–4-degree range. A smaller beam width range requires greater pointing precision. The positioner bought for the UVA ground station is capable of about one degree accuracy; therefore, it is compatible with an S-band dish (McPherson, 2021). An antenna with a higher gain is desirable, as high gain directly correlates with increased signal strength.

The antennas the team compared were the ISISpace UHF antenna, the Helios-brand UHF deployable antenna, the UHF Endurosat antenna, and the Endurosat S-band antenna. The ISISpace antenna was not selected because it can only be deployed once and the manufacturer did not specify the frequency (ISISpace, n.d.). Despite compatibility with 6U CubeSats, the Helios-brand was also not selected because of its large price (Helical Communication Technologies, n.d.). The Endurosat UHF and S-band antenna are the most compatible with the design and each other due to coming from the same manufacturer, having the largest transmission rate, and having positive gains; however, the UHF antenna would have to be custom ordered as a dipole in order to not interfere with the GPS antenna (Endurosat, n.d., -a; Endurosat, n.d., -c).

The S-band and UHF transmitter and transceiver chosen were products of the company Endurosat. As part of the risk mitigation process, the team decided to implement both S-band and UHF transmitters (Endurosat, n.d., -b). The UHF can be a backup for the S-band because it requires less precision for data transmission alignment (Endurosat, n.d., -b). With higher transmission rates being valued, the Endurosat S-band transmitter having 20 Mbps achieved the requirement of 15 Mbps for the instruments used on the spacecraft.

SOFTWARE AND AVIONICS

Design of the software and avionics subsystem included selecting the on-board computer to manage the satellite's sub-system communication and operation, and to select accompanying software and control interfaces to facilitate these tasks.

FUNCTIONAL, OPERATIONAL REQUIREMENTS AND CONSTRAINTS

The first of the functional requirements seen in Appendix B, Table XII, that was pertinent to the software and avionics subsystem is that it must be able to operate and handle thermal stress within the temperature range of -25°C to +80°C. Exposure to and loss of sunlight during orbit can cause temperature cycling in extreme ranges and the computer must be able to operate continuously to prevent mission failure. The second functional requirement is that it is able to withstand the anticipated levels of radiation in orbit. Space radiation and ion strikes can cause computers to process data incorrectly and even permanently fail if satisfactory resistances are not installed. The third functional requirement for the onboard computer is that it consumes less than

350 mW on average. The final and most important requirement is the on-board computer memory, which will handle the interface of the various subsystems and instruments. Thankfully, the instruments selected throughout this experiment do all pre-processing and compression internally, which greatly reduces the necessary memory on board the onboard computer. A requirement of 500 KB was selected as a conservative estimate of the processing power required for the I2C control interface and other system upkeep tasks.

The first operational requirement for the satellite software and avionics is that all of the data streams are integrated and compatible. This requirement makes it so that data is able to flow and be interpreted all the way from the imager to integrated data platforms. Another planned avenue of delivery, besides customers of Waze, is to successfully transmit the weather data to first responders. Besides software compatibility, the on-board computer must have large enough data storage capacity to contain, store, and transmit the sensor images to the antenna. The onboard communication must be able to transfer the data quickly from different subsystems for efficient operation. This onboard transmission is accomplished using an I²C bus.

The first constraint for the onboard computer is that it must be 10 cm x 10 cm x 4 cm in order to fit into the cube satellite proposed for this design. The onboard computer must also be 400 grams or less, and have a lifespan of at least 5 years, the planned mission duration. Additionally, the cost per unit of each on board computer and accompanying software must not exceed \$10,000.

MEMORY PROTECTION AND REDUNDANCY

Memory protection and redundancy are resilience measures that ensure onboard electrical systems operate as intended. It will primarily utilize built in forward error correction (FEC) and error correction code (ECC) (Kovo, 2020). FEC is designed to save bandwidth, eliminate handshaking between the source and destination, and protect small errors in data transmission between onboard systems. ECC is used to protect memory which builds up over time due to radiation and charged particles in space. Scrubbing is the process through which these buildups are checked and cleaned, and its frequency affects the reliability of on-board memory. Example ECC methods include cyclic block codes or Hamming codes (Fuchs et al., 2015).

DATA FLOW

The data roadmap, as shown by Figure 3 below, depicts the process of converting raw image data into information for end users. After the HyperScape 100 imager captures the raw data, it undergoes lossless data compression using CCSDS algorithms with an approximate compression ratio of 3:1. This speeds up the processes of redundancy and data transmission to the ground stations. The data is stored on the HyperScape 100 Imager's internal 128 GB Flash memory until the image capturing window is over, at which point it will be taken through the Endurosat OBC I computer that applies a Federal Communications Commission (FCC) redundancy to the data. The Endurosat OBC I was selected as the on-board computer over the alternative choice, the Satbus 3C2, for a variety of reasons. Namely, it was about \$6,000 cheaper per unit than competing off-the-shelf models, it has a lower average power consumption, and had sufficient processing power to operate the control interface. The now compressed and redundant data will be sent from the on-board computer to the Endurosat UHF Transceiver, which will convert it to radio frequency and transmit it down to the University of Virginia and Virginia Tech communications ground stations. With more computational power and no memory limits on the ground station computers, 'HRPT Reader' software processes high resolution picture

transmission (HRPT) data. This software will assist in discerning key details from the satellite details, such as snow and ice on the road. Additionally, we will develop algorithms that map the location of image reference points to coordinates so that the weather conditions can be identified on each roadway, and reported accordingly. The weather insight gained using this system is finally disseminated to existing traffic and navigation datasets and applications in order to efficiently reach the roadway managers and end users.

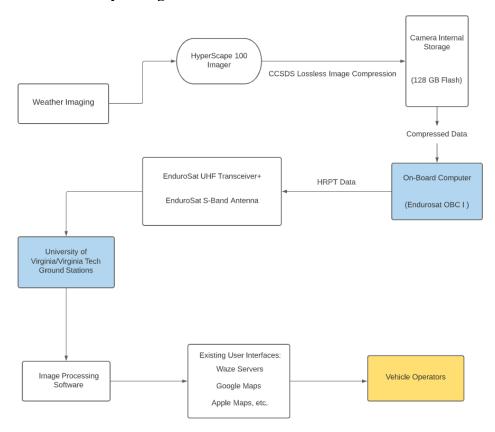


Figure 3. Satellite Weather Data Flowchart. This figure demonstrates the flow of data from the sensor to the end user with each box representing a major step in the process.

POWER, THERMAL, AND ENVIRONMENT

The Power, Thermal, and Environment (PTE) subsystem design involved selecting an appropriate power source for the satellite that will provide enough power to operate all instruments when necessary, for the duration of the mission. The PTE team is also responsible for adding protective elements to the satellite where necessary to ensure thermal stability as well as environmental safety from events like radiation and micrometeoroid collisions.

FUNCTIONAL AND OPERATIONAL REQUIREMENTS

Power, Thermal, and Environment functional requirements include ensuring thermal stability within the bus between the range of -25°C to +80°C, protecting the instruments from radiation in the orbital environment, generating enough power for all instruments during standby

and peak operation, storing enough power in the battery for the instruments to operate during eclipses, and ensuring the electronic integrity of the electronic components through the management of voltage and current distributed throughout the system. The majority of these requirements will be verified through testing and analysis or inspection, with the lifespan of systems being verified through simulation and in-orbit inspections. An operational requirement that PTE has is to ensure that the power and environmental protection technologies can last for the entire duration of the mission, or a minimum of five years. The system must operate under effects from UV radiation, and atomic oxygen, and must withstand thermal fluctuations both from the environment and from internal heat dissipation (Appendix B, Table IV).

POWER FLOW CHART

The power flow chart provides a visualization of the power distribution throughout the bus. The power is generated via stationary solar panels and is stored in the battery. The electrical power supply distributes the power based on the voltage each component needs. The onboard computer, multi-GNSS receiver Celeste, Hyperscape 100 camera, and CubeADCS require 5V connections. The CubeADCS also requires a 3.3V and a raw voltage connection. The Endurosat transceiver and transmitter also requires 5V connections, as well as the antennas UHF Antenna III and S band ISM shown in Figure 4 below.

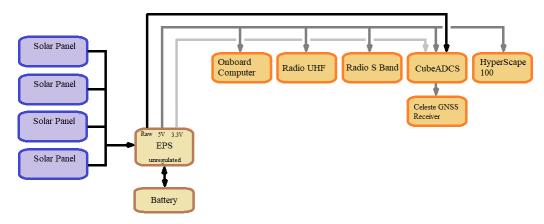


Figure 4. Power flow chart for CLAYTON. This figure depicts the generation, processing, and distribution of power for each component.

PRELIMINARY POWER BUDGET

Three solar panel models were initially considered for the CubeSat, with the options being the ISISpace CubeSat Panels, the Clyde Space Photon Panels, and the Endurosat Solar Panels. The panels were placed into a selection matrix to directly compare key factors and the weighted average scores were then used to objectively determine the most appropriate solar panel. The key factors consisted of cost, weight, power generation, operating temperature, and lifetime operation. With this, the Clyde Space Photon Panels scored highest and were thus selected. The team pre-determined that all exterior faces excluding the top and bottom (i.e. all 3Ux2U and 3Ux1U sides) would be mounted with stationary solar panels, resulting in a total panel area of 18U, with 9U being used as the maximum generation capacity based on the geometry. An in-depth power budget was then created, considering the generation capacity, panel efficiency, supply efficiency, sunlight period, eclipse time, and orbit period to calculate

rough values for available power and energy (Table I). Then, the available power was then compared with the energy requirements of onboard subsystems to guarantee that it was sufficient to power the entire system.

To find the required battery size to support spacecraft functions, the peak and eclipse energy usage were estimated. For peak, a conservative estimate was made by using the peak power values, or the standby power where a peak was not given, and an estimated 20 minutes of maximum usage. It was assumed that this peak usage would only occur during the sunlight period, such that power is still being generated during peak consumption. Thus, the power generated was subtracted from the peak power consumption in the calculation. Lithium batteries should be cycled in mid-state-of-charge to preserve longevity, so it was decided to conservatively cap battery drainage at 40% (Battery University, 2020). Thus, the calculated energy value was considered to be 40% of the minimum necessary battery size to support peak usage. A similar process was used to calculate the battery size needed for the eclipse period by using standby power values. The sum of the peak and eclipse values was 19.6 Wh. Thus, among the options offered by Clydespace, it was decided to use the Starbuck-Nano Plus electrical power subsystem (EPS) frame built for 3-12U CubeSats in conjunction with the smallest option for the Optimus battery, 30 Wh. This gives a margin of about 10 Wh, giving ample room for any changes to the power budget in the future.

Table I Preliminary Power Budget for CLAYTON

	Peak Power (W)	Standby Power (W)	Peak Time (h)	Peak Percentage	Standby Percentage	Power Required (W)
Instruments	5.60	2.40	0.01	1%	99%	2.42
Comm	16.7	1.00	0.17	11%	89%	2.74
ADACS	5.00	1.10	0.05	3%	97%	1.23
GPS	0.100	0.10	24.0	0%	100%	0.10
EPS	0.150	0.15	24.0	0%	100%	0.15
OBC	0.330	0.33	24.0	0%	100%	0.33
Total:	27.9	5.08				6.97

Solar Flux, SF (W/cm ²):	0.135	Power	Power Available, $PA(W) = SF*PSE*PE*GA*NoG$		
Power Supply Eff., PSE:	0.900	PA =	23.4		
Panel Efficiency, PE:	0.293	Orbit A	Orbit Average Power, OAP (W) = PA*SPct		
Grid Area, GA (cm^2):	73.0	OAP =	14.1		
Number of Grids, NoG:	9.00	Power	Power Budget, PB (W) = OAP-PR		

Sunlight Percentage, SPct:	0.600	PB =	7.09
Power Required, PR (W):	6.97	Energy	Available, EA (Wh) = $PA*SPd$
Sunlight Period, SPd (h):	0.900	EA =	21.1
Eclipse Period, EP (h):	0.645	Energy Required, ER (Wh) = PR*OP	
Orbit Period, OP (h):	1.55	ER =	10.8

ATTITUDE DETERMINATION AND CONTROL

The attitude determination and control system (ADACS) and orbits subsystem is primarily focused on enabling each individual spacecraft to maintain proper orientation and location in space as the mission is carried out. These systems are crucial for ensuring the acquisition target will be within the field of view of the onboard instrumentation, supporting communication with ground stations, and meeting the observation frequency and lifetime requirements of CLAYTON.

FUNCTIONAL AND OPERATIONAL REQUIREMENTS

Functional requirements for the ADACS subsystem and satellite orbits can be found in Appendix B Table IX include: a pointing accuracy of $\pm 1.86^{\circ}$, a location accuracy of $\pm 10m$, a pointing determination of $\pm 0.465^{\circ}$, maintaining an altitude of 400 km and an inclination of 51.6° , and ensuring the orbits support a coverage frequency of greater than one pass per hour. The only operational requirement that pertains to this subsystem is that the orbital lifetime must be at least five years in order to satisfy the mission lifetime requirement. Constraints include minimizing mass, cost, power draw, and size in order to remain within the limits of their corresponding budgets. ADACS requirements will be verified via testing and data analysis, and orbital requirements will be verified via simulation in the AGI STK orbital analysis software. The ADACS functional requirements were largely guided by the spatial resolution requirement of roughly 7.3 m. The specified pointing accuracy guarantees that the target will be within the field of view and the specified pointing determination tolerance guarantees that the target will be within the middle two quadrants of the image produced.

ADACS UNIT TRADE STUDY

Incorporating a commercial off-the-shelf ADACS unit into each satellite offers simplicity and cost-effectiveness during implementation of CLAYTON. A total of eight commercial off-the-shelf ADACS units were initially assessed in terms of their satisfaction of functional and operational requirements and their contribution to the cost, mass, filled volume, and power draw of each spacecraft. From there, we selected two units, and performed a trade study to identify the unit better suited to support CLAYTON's mission. The results of this trade study are below in Table II.

Table II ADACS Unit Trade Study

	Components Evaluated		
Requir	CubeADCS 3-axis	CubeADCS Y-Momentum	
Pointing Accuracy	±1.86°	~0.001°	>~0.001°
Attitude Determination	±0.465°	TBD	TBD
Size	< 6U (10cm x 10cm C-S)	90x96x59mm = 0.5 U	90x96x58mm = 0.5 U
M	0.506kg	0.351kg	
Co	\$32k	\$22k	

While both units evaluated in this trade study were within the requirements, the CubeADCS 3-axis unit had increased accuracy and comparable size, mass, and cost compared to the Cube ADCS Y-Momentum unit.

GPS UNIT TRADE STUDY

Similar to the ADACS unit selection, a commercial GPS unit was chosen for CLAYTON. Eight units were examined with a focus on the size, power consumption, mass, and cost, as these were the major constraints for the mission. After comparing the units, two GPS devices fit the mission requirements the best. To choose a final unit for the CLAYTON mission, the team conducted a trade study on the two remaining GPS units. The results of the trade study can be seen in Table III.

Table III GPS Unit Trade Study

	Components Evaluated		
Requir	Celeste GNSS Receiver	WARPSPACE GPS Receiver	
Location Determination	±10m	2.5m	2.5m
Size	< 6U (10cm x 10cm C-S)	67mm x 42mm x 7mm	24.1mm x 20.2mm x 7.5mm
Pov	100mW	150mW	
M	25g	3g	
Co	\$2.5k	\$2.5k	

The Celeste and WARPSPACE receivers were similar in their low cost, precise location

determinations, and low power draw, so the differences stem from the size and mass. With comparable performance, a smaller and lighter GPS unit is the better choice. A smaller unit provides more available space for other instruments, and less mass leads to a lower overall launch cost. For these reasons, the WARPSPACE receiver was selected for the CLAYTON mission.

ORBITAL PARAMETERS

Initial evaluation and modeling of CLAYTON's orbital parameters indicate that an inclination of 51.6°, paired with the altitude of 400 km, is appropriate. Here the satellites will be deployed from the ISS, and this will allow for sufficient resolution and ground coverage to satisfy the objectives of the mission. Moving forward, the constellation size and parameters will be refined using more complex and robust analytical packages within the AGI STK software that were not available for use during the analysis performed in this study. Figure 5 shows a snapshot of the STK simulation run with these orbital parameters. The different colored lines indicate the ground traces of the satellites within the constellation. Attached to the satellites are the imagers that will look at the point of interest. The area on the ground that the imagers can see are represented by the cones that come from the satellite. These cones were given a cone half angle of 45 degrees. This was an estimation based on the ability of the satellite to orient itself to point the instrument towards the point of interest.



Figure 5. Constellation ground trace of CLAYTON's satellites with estimated imager range. The colored lines represent the multiple paths of the satellites. Each satellite is equipped with an imager, and the range the imager can view is pictured with the colored cone.

ORBITAL SIMULATIONS RESULTS

With 24 satellites at an inclination of 51.6°, altitude of 400 km and separated by 15° of right ascension the coverage of the target region every hour can be seen in the histogram below in Figure 6.



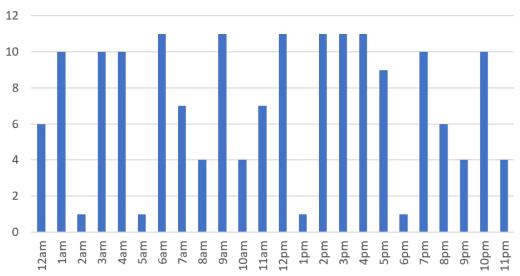


Figure 6. Number of passes over target area made by CLAYTON every hour throughout one day.

From Figure 6, it can be determined that the current constellation design typically provides multiple passes of the target area per hour, but in some cases, there is only one observation per hour. The inclusion of all 24 satellites in the final constellation design is therefore necessary, as the functional requirement is a coverage frequency of greater than or equal to once per hour. With the University's recent acquisition of a student license for the STK Analyzer and Optimizer software tools, future orbital simulation studies can utilize the robust capabilities included within these add-ons to optimize the constellation's parameters. Optimizing the constellation to maximize coverage frequency while minimizing the number of satellites required would allow for the best satisfaction of functional requirements whilst also reducing overall project costs.

STRUCTURES AND INTEGRATION

The objective of structures and integration is to make sure all parts can operate as a system, and integrate together inside the structure of the CubeSat. Under the California Polytechnic State University CubeSat design specifications, a 6U satellite package must weigh less than 12kg and have dimensions of 100mm x 226.3mm x 366mm (Cal Poly San Luis Obispo, 2018). SolidWorks was used to ensure that the components making up the spacecraft would meet the mass requirements and fit within the designated dimensions. A breakdown of the team's relevant functional and operational requirements as part of the design process can be found in Table X in Appendix B. Constraints on the spacecraft design are listed in Table XI in Appendix B.

SYSTEM ASSEMBLY

The system assembly will be configured in a 6U Cube Satellite Bus designed by AAC

ClydeSpace. This structure has a mass of 0.674 kg, meets NASA's general environmental verification standards, and is compatible with ClydeSpace Photon Solar Panels, other ClydeSpace products, and all rail-deployers. As shown in Figure 7, the structure will be able to fit the following components: UHF Antenna, GPS Antenna, UHF Radio, Battery, Computer, EPS, Imager, ADCS, GPS, S-Band Radio, and S-Band Antenna. Each of the components will be held in place using four threaded rods on each side of the spacecraft.

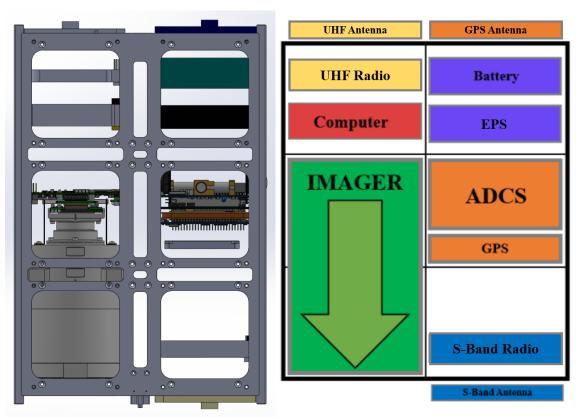


Figure 7. Diagram of each major component in the CubeSat and where it is located (right), CAD Model including all parts except solar panels (left)

LOCATION OF COMPONENTS

The imager was placed at the bottom of the CubeSat as it needs to be facing the Earth in order to take the hyperspectral images. The UHF and S-Band Antennas were placed at opposite sides of the structure to avoid interference between the two signals. The S-Band antenna is located on the bottom of the CubeSat so it will always face the Earth. The UHF and S-band radios were put next to their respective antennas to minimize lead length. The ADCS unit is in one of the central units as it is most effective when located near the center of mass of the structure. It uses information from the nearby GPS unit as well. The battery and EPS units need to be located next to each other, so those objects as well as the computer were placed with the center of mass in mind. The solar panels are located on the outside of the spacecraft, specifically the 1U x 3U and 2U x 3U sides as shown by Figure 1 in Appendix B. With this current system assembly, the center of mass has been approximated in SolidWorks to be within 10mm in the X-direction, 5mm in the Y-direction, and 0.5mm in the Z-direction relative to the geometric center. This is well within the center of mass constraints listed in Table XI in Appendix B.

MASS BUDGET

Tables IV and V below depict the preliminary mass budget for the CubeSat including all the components and parts that are referenced in the initial build plan. Table III shows the system is well within the 12kg allowable mass constraint listed in Table XI in Appendix B.

TABLE IV Preliminary Mass Budget

	Component	Quantity	Mass (kg)
Structures and Integration	ClydeSpace 6U Zaphod Structure	1	0.67
	6 x AAC Photon Side Solar	6	0.81
Power, Thermal, and Environment	Optimus 40 Wh Battery	1	0.34
	Nano Plus PCDU	1	0.15
	CubeADCS 3-axis	1	0.53
ADACS	Celeste GNSS Receiver	1	0.03
Instruments	HyperScape 100 Imager	1	1.2
	S-Band Transmitter	1	0.18
	UHF Transceiver II	1	0.09
Communications	S-Band Antenna	1	0.064
	UHF Antenna III	1	0.085
Software and Avionics	Onboard Computer	1	0.13
	Total Mass		4.28
	Mass Margin		7.72

TABLE V
Percent of Total Mass per Subsystem (without margin)

Subsystem	% Total Mass
Structures and Integration	15.7
Power, Thermal, and Environment	30.4
ADACS	13.1
Instruments	28.0
Communications	9.79
Software and Avionics	3.04

PROPOSED PROTOTYPING

We have identified two methods to prototype the CubeSat before beginning an official manufacturing process: 3D printing and the creation of a FlatSat. Thus far, we have developed a CAD assembly to ensure that all parts can be comfortably integrated within the CubeSat bus. However, it may also be beneficial to 3D print the various components of the satellite, in polymer, using estimated dimensions to ensure there are no dimensional interferences within the spacecraft. This would help save time and money in case some components are found to be too large to fit within the volume available. Furthermore, a FlatSat is a functional prototype of the CubeSat that is laid out flat on a table to facilitate testing and debugging (Ziegler, 2007). This prototype does not necessarily need to include any structural components, but can simply be used to test and debug software without risking any hardware components. The FlatSat can also be used to visualize and test all electrical and wiring components to limit the amount of electrical interface issues that may arise during the actual flight unit integration.

FINANCIAL BUDGET AND FUNDING SOURCES

The constellation is externally constrained to a maximum cost of fifty million USD. The budget was divided into two phases. Phase I is for the technology demonstration in which one spacecraft would monitor an intersection as proof of concept. In phase II, the full constellation would be launched for higher temporal coverage. In phase I, the budget includes one satellite, a backup satellite, as well as a satellite for ground and balloon testing. Additionally, Phase I features a one-time expense, estimated, to be \$100,000 USD to add a S-band antenna to the UVA ground station. The budget approach for phase II involves estimating the cost of launch and testing and assuming the constellation would feature twenty-four satellites with one for

redundancy and another for ground testing for a total of twenty-six satellites in the constellation. For phase II, the cost of launch was estimated by comparing different launch providers. Using Spaceflight's rideshare launch services, the cost of launch between different commercial U.S. launch providers were compared. These providers include but are not limited to SpaceX, Virgin Orbit, and Rocket Lab (Spaceflight, n.d.). A majority of the launch providers that could satisfy the parameters of launching the constellation estimated a cost around nine million USD. As a result, ten million USD was allocated for launch. The cost of testing is based on historical pricing provided from receipts from past projects. It is assumed that all twenty-nine satellites would receive a functionality test, thermal test, vibration test, post vibration functionality test, vacuum test, and post vacuum functionality test.

The allocation of funds for each subsystem began with each subsystem submitting a list of predicted purchases along with a justification for each item. During the design phase of the project, only forty percent of the budget is projected to be used. A breakdown of the budget can be found in Table I in Appendix C. However, it is expected that expenses may increase in an unforeseen fashion as the project matures.

Potential funding sources have been identified. VDOT allocates part of its budget for transportation projects in Hampton Roads and Northern Virginia alone. The Virginia Space Grant Consortium (VSGC) features the Small Satellite Virginia Initiative in which funding for launch opportunities and funding for payloads are available every year. NASA has a CubeSat Launch Initiative (NCSLI) that has the potential to provide a discounted or free launch for the project, for phase I. Finally, government grants are open to applications on grants.gov and nsf.gov - transportation related project funding has been identified on such sites. In the following semesters, the project should submit proposals to these entities. The project personnel will contact VDOT, VSGC, and NCSLI for phase I funding. Federal grants from DOT or NOAA will be sought for phase II funding.

RISK ASSESSMENT AND MITIGATION STRATEGIES

Risk analysis for the spacecraft design can be approached with various techniques from understanding failure sources and cascading through event and fault tree analysis to defining requirements and rules with the Systems-Theoretic Accident Model and Processes (STAMP) methodology. Other methods seeking to understand the most effective allocation of improvement resources include multicriteria decision analysis, scenario planning, and resilience-based policy. These risk assessment and management tools can be applied on both a macroscopic level, where economic resources, stakeholders, and end users are all put into consideration, and a microscopic level, where the component and subsystem operations are focused upon. Both will be tackled in this section, though comprehensive formal studies will require further investigation.

On a higher system level, the end goal of the spacecraft is to satisfy stakeholder requirements and serve roadway users. Varying stakeholder needs often act as a roadblock for addressing improvement resource allocation (the process of deciding where to prioritize system improvements over the base model during iterative design), thus multiple stakeholder priorities must be considered simultaneously through techniques such as hierarchical holographic modeling (HHM). Understanding how spacecraft failures can cascade to the end user through communication systems and application integration can utilize fault tree analysis, where "and" and "or" gates are used in conjunction to model this risk system. Lastly, manufacturing and component acquisition pre-deployment must also be considered, as larger systemic issues with

IC part shortages due to COVID-19 or managing timelines to manufacture custom parts contribute to risk management of the design and implementation process. Other macroscopic risk sources exist as the spacecraft design is a complex system with thousands of subsystems and millions of dollars involved. Further research is required to resolve any given risk source as each deserves their own review.

A case study involving the satellite bus itself will be presented here to investigate microscopic system level risks (Appendix C, Figures 1, 2, 3). According to "Survey on the implementation and reliability of CubeSat electrical bus interfaces," historical data shows that for technology demonstration CubeSats, the known root cause allocation for not achieving full mission success is primarily ADACS, with communications and electrical power subsystems coming second (Bouwmeester et al., 2016). The survey also reveals that I²C buses are most susceptible to bus lockup, where internal communication clocks go out of sync and data transfer is locked. The most common mitigation technique is to implement a watchdog circuit in which the electronic timer will detect a malfunction and order a reset for both sender and receiver clocks. Other failure modes include packet loss and performance degradation, in which other tolerance implementations exist to combat. This example demonstrates the viability of historical data-driven techniques to decide which systems require additional resilience measures and what subsystems to focus future risk mitigation efforts upon.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE DEVELOPMENT OF SOLUTION

The reader is referred to Table VI for a Gantt chart of the proposed schedule for the Fall 2021/Spring 2022 spacecraft design class. We recommend proceeding with a Preliminary Design Review (PDR) in November 2021 and a Critical Design Review (CDR) in April of 2022. To achieve this goal, the next cohort of spacecraft design students must continue the work where the current class left off. First, to complete the conceptual design stage, the succeeding class should pursue the future work tasks as outlined by this year's Conceptual Design Review (CoDR).

TABLE VI
Proposed Schedule for the Incoming Capstone Class



ability requires the development of a data link budget to assess the throughput capabilities of CLAYTON and its ground stations. The future communications team should begin mapping out the amount of data space in various locations, as well as the up/down link amount available for all transfer connections. Furthermore, the communications and instrument teams need to collaborate to secure a radio license with the FCC; the class of license required will dictate certain payload component choices. Following this, the ADACS team should extract capability information from all the other sub-teams and perform an assessment on the feasibility of increasing the coverage area with the same 24 satellites. This can be done through the analysis of certain constellation structures, or an increase in the number of ground stations in our project's network. Similarly, all teams should work on contacting vendors for their selected instruments and work to acquire them for prototyping, and later, assembly and testing.

The remaining recommendations largely belong to the future program management team, with help from the other six functional teams. The incoming chief financial officer should apply for various grants to secure funding. This process includes the selection of a launch method, since the price of launching varies greatly between options. We strongly recommend reaching out to Dr. Brian Flanagan of MITRE for his professional opinion of the different launch services under consideration. Although the end of CLAYTON's mission seems far away, it is on the horizon; as such, another task is to evaluate different end-of-mission options, including but not limited to de-orbit and burn-up. Those decisions do not rest on the incoming class, but they should share their informed recommendations with the class after next.

The final thoughts we would like to share with the Class of 2022 pertain to the anticipated work environment. Due to widespread distribution of the COVID-19 vaccination, the University of Virginia plans to reopen in a pre-pandemic state for Fall 2021. Please take advantage of opportunities for hands-on engagement, such as prototyping in labs and meeting with SMEs. Also, despite the luxury of face-to-face meeting within and between functional teams, we hope to offer preventative suggestions to ensure effective teamwork. Keeping proper documentation in a standardized form will help keep everyone accountable. Developing common goals and assigning ownership over tasks that advance team objectives will improve both morale and productivity. We cannot overstate the importance of strong, frequent functional team communication. If the future teams address potential obstacles early and often, we see no reason they cannot meet their capstone requirements and advance the development of CLAYTON.

CONCLUSION

The 2020/2021 spacecraft design capstone team completed a space mission engineering process and conceptual design proposing a space-based solution to weather-induced traffic congestion in Virginia, as identified during the UIX-MITRE Space Initiative Transportation Efficiency Workshop (Kordella, 2020, slide 5). Our research shows that remote sensing within certain spectral bands at a sufficient resolution can improve detection of dangerous roadway conditions associated with snow and ice. A prerequisite for this data stream is the ability to separate conditions on the road from its surroundings. When the proper data delivery channels are developed, through external partnerships such as with VDOT and/or Waze, then roadway users, roadway managers, and first responders can make informed driving decisions that improve safety and efficiency. The potential to mitigate traffic congestion's detrimental effects on the economy, environment, and health warrants continued exploration of the spacecraft design into the preliminary and critical design.

In the initial phases, this constellation will observe the intersection of Interstate 95 and Interstate 495 in Springfield, Virginia as a proof of concept. If practical, with minimal improvements, this project can grow to a national scale. Throughout this year, feasibility assessments indicate that this project should be continued. The incoming class must continue to refine the design, and take advantage of in-person resources for prototyping and stakeholder feedback. As such, we recommend that the incoming spacecraft design capstone team proceed with a PDR in the Fall Semester and CDR in the Spring Semester.

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APPENDIX A

TABLE I Acronyms sorted alphabetically

Acronym	Full Title
ABI	Advanced Baseline Imager
ADACS	Attitude Determination And Control System
CARS	Charlottesville-Albemarle Rescue Squad
CLAYTON	Commuter Live Aggregated Yield Traffic Observation Network
CoDR	Conceptual Design Review
CDR	Critical Design Review
DOT	Department of Transportation
EPS	Electrical Power Subsystem
EMS	Emergency Services
ECC	Error Correction Code
FCC	Federal Communications Commission
FEC	Forward Error Correction
GLM	Geostationary Lightning Mapper
GOES	Geostationary Operational Environmental Satellite
ННМ	Hierarchical Holographic Modeling
ISS	International Space Station
LEO	Low Earth Orbit
NCSLI	NASA CubeSat Launch Initiative
NASA	National Aeronautics and Space Administration
NHTSA	National Highway Traffic Safety Administration
NOAA	National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
NSF	National Science Foundation

NWS	National Weather Service	
NDSI	Normalized Difference Snow Index	
PTE	Power, Thermal, and Environment	
PDR	Preliminary Design Review	
SME	Subject Matter Expert	
STAMP	Systems Theoretic Accident Model and Process	
UHF	Ultra-High Frequency	
UIX	University Innovation Exchange	
VDOT	Virginia Department of Transportation	
VSGC	Virginia Space Grant Consortium	

TABLE II
List of System Level Functional Requirements

Requirement ID	Requirement	Specification	Verification
F1	Spectral Bands	Visible Spectrum: 0.4 - 0.7 µm	Testing
F2	Exposure Time	1/2000 s based on spatial resolution of 3.8 m	Calculations
F3	Adverse Weather Road Cover	Detect presence of snow and ice	Ground truthing
F4	Spatial Resolution	3.7 - 7.3 m (12 - 24 ft)	Spectrometer Calibration
F5	Update Frequency	< 1 Hour	Orbital And Spectrometer Analysis
F6	Coverage	Northern Virginia beltway corridor with scalability to continental USA as an option	Orbital Analysis

F7	Environment	Low Earth Orbit	Orbital Analysis and Ground Testing
F8	Power	Within max available supply	Ground Testing

TABLE III
List of System Level Operational Requirements

Requirement ID	Requirement	Specification	Verification
O1	All pertinent data streams are integrated and centralized	Weather data overlaid with live traffic data on Waze or another platform	Visual inspection of final product
O2	Data delivery for roadway managers and first responders	Provide data compatible with distribution in existing apps	Proof of information received by government (VDOT/EMS) and/or private services (Waze)
О3	Data delivery for roadway users	Safe engagement with this data via smartphones and/or in-vehicle navigation	Observation of app activity, user reports, user testing
O4	Minimal downtime and Frequent availability	< 5 minutes	Testing Manufacturing Claim
O5	Maintain operational status for length of designated lifespan	5 years	Continued collection and dissemination of data

TABLE IV List of System Level Constraints

Requirement ID	Requirement	Specification	Verification
C1	Form Factor (Size)	6U CubeSat	Measurements
C2	Budget	Under \$50M by project completion	Documentation within functional teams and CFO

APPENDIX B

TABLE I
Summary of Wavelengths Useful for Snow/Ice Detection

Wavelength (μm)	Feature Detected	Frequency Band
0.45 - 0.49	Snow	VIS
0.59 - 0.69	Snow & Ice	VIS
0.8455 - 0.8845	Snow & Ice	NIR
1.58 - 1.64	Snow & Ice	SWIR
2.225 - 2.275	Snow	SWIR
10.80 - 11.20	Ice	LWIR
12.00 - 12.30	Ice	LWIR

(Liu, 2019; Romanov, 2016; Rost, 2012)

TABLE II List of Instruments Functional Requirements

Requirement ID	Requirement	Specification	Verification
F1.INS.1	Spectral Bands	Visible Spectrum: 0.4 - 0.7 µm	Testing
F2.INS.1	Image Spatial Resolution	3.7 to 7.3 m at 400 km	Testing and Analysis
F3.INS.1	Imaging Frequency	High frequency (1 hour or less) data field during critical traffic times	Orbital Analysis
F4.INS.1	Coverage	At least Virginia	Orbital Analysis
F4.INS.2	Swath	20 - 40 km	Calculation

F5.INS.1	Environmental	Operational: -10°C to +50°C, Survival: -25°C to +65°C, LEO	Testing
F6.INS.1	Radiation	Less than 15 krad LEO	Testing

TABLE III List of Instruments Constraints

Requirement ID	Requirement	Specification	Verification
C1.INS.1	Dimensions	3U form factor (30 x 10 x 10 cm)	Physical Measurements
C1.INS.2	Mass	4 kg	Testing

TABLE IV List of Communication Functional Requirements

Requirement ID	Requirement	Specification	Verification
F3.COM.1	Transferring Data	Needs to transmit data at 15 Mbps to ground station	Inspection and Testing
F3.COM.2	Satellite Instruction	Using UHF to give satellite operations for other systems	Inspection
F5.COM.1	Relay information	Send data from satellite to ground station using S-band	Inspection

TABLE V
List of Communication Operational Requirements

Requirement ID	Requirement	Specification	Verification
O1.COM.1	Satellite to Ground Distribution	Data is sent to the UVA ground station	Inspection
O2.COM.1	Ground to Ground Distribution	Data is transferred from ground stations to emergency personnel and private services	Inspection
O4.COM.1	Downtime	Delivery of data has a downtime of < 5 minutes	Analysis and Tests

TABLE VI List of Communication Constraints

Requirement ID	Requirement Specification		Verification
C1.COM.1	Size	Data transmission of components are <2U, fit in 6U CubeSat	Inspection

TABLE VII Comparison of UHF, S band, and X band frequency ranges

Bands	Frequency	Pointing Sensitivity	Primary Interference Sources	Antenna Type
UHF	0.3 - 3 GHz	Not sensitive	Commercial/persona l devices	Dipole or turnstile antenna
S Band	2 - 4 GHz	Pointed at ground	Wireless networks	Patch antenna

X Band	8 - 12 GHz	Pointed at ground	Atmosphere	Patch antenna
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TABLE VIII
List of Power, Thermal, and Environmental Functional and Operational Requirements

Requirement ID	Requirement	Specification	Verification Method
F5.PTE.1	Thermal Stability	-25°C to +80°C; Can handle stress from thermal cycling	Testing and analysis
F5.PTE.2	Radiation Protection	Shielding techniques must keep radiation at a viable level for operation	Analysis
F6.PTE.1	Power Supply	Generate enough power for instruments to operate when needed	Testing and analysis
F6.PTE.2	Power Storage	Ensure enough power is stored to run CubeSat through eclipses	Testing and analysis
F6.PTE.3	Electronic Integrity	Ensure voltage and amperage is distributed within operating ranges of electric components	Testing and Inspection
O5.PTE.1	Lifespan of Systems	Power system and environmental protection technologies must last minimum of 5 years	Simulation and In- Orbit Inspections

TABLE IX List of ADACS and Orbits Functional and Operational Requirements

Requirement ID	Requirement	Specification	Verification Method

F5.ADACS.1	Pointing Accuracy	±1.86°	Analysis and Testing
F5.ADACS.2	Location Determination	±10m	GPS Data Analysis
F5.ADACS.3	Pointing Determination	±0.465°	Analysis and Testing
C1.ADACS.2	Size (cross-section)	Fits inside a 6U CubeSat (10cm x 10cm C-S)	Measurement
F3.ADACS.1	Altitude	Initial altitude of 400km	STK Analysis
F4.ADACS.1	Coverage Frequency	> 1 observation /hr.	STK Analysis
F5.ADACS.4	Orbital Parameters	Maintain LEO, <= 24 satellites, inclination = 51.6°	STK Analysis
O5.ADACS.1	Orbital Lifetime	Select orbit attainable ≥ 5 years	STK Analysis

Requirement ID	Requirement	Specification	Verification
F5.SI.1	Launch Integrity	Withstand launch forces: -2 to 6 G axial / -2 to 2 G lateral*	FEA/Simulation
F5.SI.2	Protection	CubeSat can survive small impacts from micrometeoroids/debris with minimal damage	Testing
F5.PTE.1	Thermal Range	-25°C to +80°C; Can handle stress from thermal cycling**	Testing and analysis

O5.SI.1	Lifetime	Maintain Structural Integrity for 5 years	Simulation
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^{*(}SpaceX, 2009) **(ISISPACE, 2021)

TABLE XI List of Structures and Integration Constraints

Requirement ID	Requirement	Specification	Verification
C1.SI.1	Volume	22.63x10x36.6 cm*	Measurement
C1.SI.2	Mass	12 kg*	Measurement
C1.SI.3	Center of Gravity	X: ±4.5 cm, Y: ±2 cm, Z: ±7 cm*	Measurement/CAD
C1.SI.4	Compatibility	Seamless integration with 6U CubeSat deployer	CAD
C1.SI.5	Ease of Assembly	Design to facilitate assembly and maintenance of spacecraft components	CAD

^{*(}Cal Poly San Luis Obispo, 2018)

TABLE XII List of Software and Avionics Constraints

Requirement ID	Requirement	Specification	Verification
C1.SA.1	Dimensions	10 cm x 10 cm x 4 cm	Measurement

C1.SA.2	Mass	400 g	Measurement
C1.SA.3	Lifespan	5 years	Prior mission lifespans
C2.SA.1	Cost	< \$10,000	NA

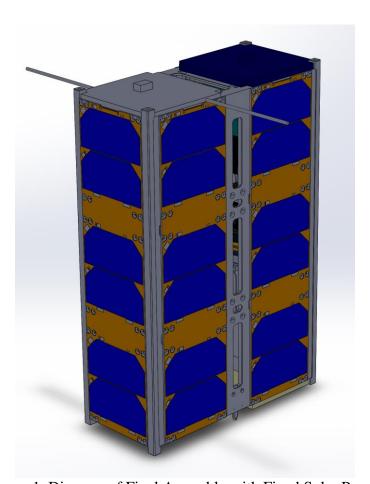


Figure 1. Diagram of Final Assembly with Fixed Solar Panels

TABLE XIII
List of Software and Avionics Functional Requirements

Requirement ID	Requirement	Specification	Verification Method
F5.PTE.1	Thermal Stability	-25°C to +80°C; Can handle stress from thermal cycling	Testing and analysis
F6.SA.1	Radiation Protection	Shielding techniques must keep radiation at a viable level for operation	Analysis
F6.SA.2	Power Consumption	< 1000 mW	Testing and analysis
F7.SA.3	Memory	500 KB	Manufacturer Specifications

APPENDIX C

TABLE I Projected Budget Breakdown in USD

	Phase I	Phase II	
n Spacecraft (Including backups)	3	26	
Launch	0	10,000,000	
COMS	68,700	595,400	
SA	10,500	91,000	
PTE	90,000	780,000	
ADACS	109,500	949,000	
SI	24,000	208,000	
INST	600,000	5,200,000	

Testing	18,900	163,800
One-Time Expense	100,000	0
Cost Per Satellite	307,200	691,816
Total	1,021,600	17,987,200

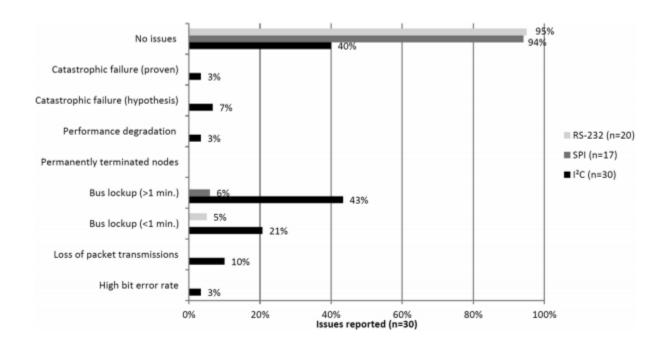


Figure 1. In-orbit issues reported for three bus standards based on "Survey on the implementation and reliability of CubeSat electrical bus interfaces" (Bouwmeester et al., 2016)

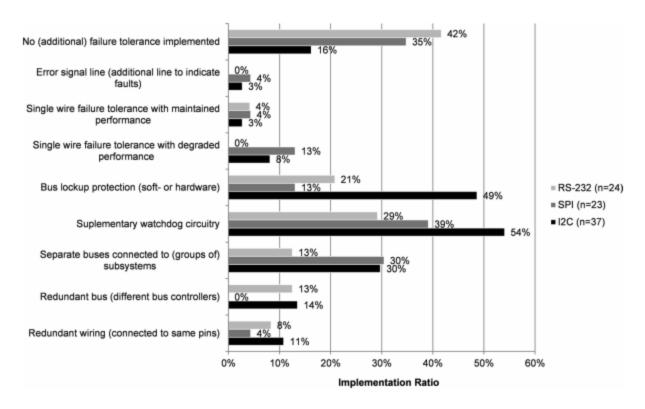


Figure 2. Implementation of failure tolerance features in CubeSats for different data buses based on "Survey on the implementation and reliability of CubeSat electrical bus interfaces" (Bouwmeester et al., 2016)

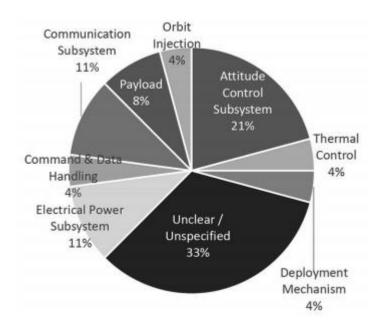


Figure 3. Root cause allocation for not achieving full success for technology demonstration CubeSats. based on "Survey on the implementation and reliability of CubeSat electrical bus interfaces" (Bouwmeester et al., 2016)

The Ethics of Orbital Debris Generation

A Research Paper submitted to the Department of Engineering and Society

Presented to the Faculty of the School of Engineering and Applied Science University of Virginia • Charlottesville, Virginia

> In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree Bachelor of Science, School of Engineering

> > Rikia Freeman Spring, 2021

On my honor as a University Student, I have neither given nor received unauthorized aid on this assignment as defined by the Honor Guidelines for Thesis-Related Assignments

Signature Kikis Diceen	Date April 29, 2021
Rikia Freeman	<u>-</u>
Approved	Date 5/4/2021
Hannah Rogers, Department of Engineering and Society	/

Abstract

The orbital space around the Earth is a finite natural resource – a resource that is threatened by the remnants of past space missions' orbital debris colliding with each other. Thus. exponentially adding to the crowded nature of orbits. Some orbits are crowded enough to where these collisions are inevitable. The matter is only exacerbated by the material that is being launched monthly. The posed research question is *what are the responsibilities of an engineer in the context of orbital debris from the perspectives of classical ethical theories*? The goal of such research is to provide the foundations of analysis of the ethical implications of contributing to the generation of orbital debris that might be relevant to future codes of ethics and international space law. Utilitarianism, Deontology, Rights Ethics, and Virtue Ethics were selected to carry out the analysis. No one action by an engineer considering the orbital debris crisis was found to be ethical from the perspectives of all the selected classical ethical theories but a common theme among the majority is that it is unethical to ignore the problem. The implications of the analysis along with its limitations are that engineers need to actively engage in preventing further orbital debris contribution at minimum in design.

Ethics of Orbital Debris Generation

Introduction

The stars have held much significance to humankind for thousands of years with astronomy considered the oldest of the natural sciences (Lankford, 2013). Eyes have turned to the stars for survival, guidance, and hope. Imagine humankind no longer being able to touch the stars. Now, imagine not being able to see the stars because the shadows of remnants of past space missions block them. While the second scenario is at an unlikely extreme, the first is not. Space development continues to represent some of the greatest achievements of our species and continually acts as the frontier to find solutions to problems faced on the ground. However, no solution is perfect and thus creates another problem (Baura, 2006). Whether this produced problem is of any importance to the stakeholders determines the effectiveness of the solution. Progress in space has created the problem of orbital debris. Not enough stakeholders consider the matter of orbital debris one of importance. Yet, it is an issue that threatens to bring the industry to halt within decades.

Background

The orbital space around Earth is a finite natural resource (Johnson & McKnight, 1987). Ground-based observation can detect objects at least four inches wide (American Institute of Aeronautics and Astronautics [AIAA], 1992). Collisions among debris create more debris and are causing an exponential growth of debris in space. In 1995, the number of detected objects in Earth-orbit was over 8,000; over 10,000 in 2007; over 19,000 in 2009; and over 23,000 in 2016 (NASA, 2009). Additionally, millions of undetectable debris are estimated to be in orbit. The fear around orbital debris is that in time, Kessler Syndrome will occur. Kessler Syndrome is the state where there is so much debris that launches are impossible, and vehicles entering space

would be quickly destroyed (Broad, 2007). Even if nations stopped launching material into space, a chain reaction of uncontrollable collisions is inevitable (Broad, 2007). Currently, spacefaring nations are generating debris faster than natural forces can remove it (National Research Council (U.S.) Committee on Space Debris 1995). While Kessler Syndrome is an extreme scenario, the conditions of Earth's orbits leading up to Kessler Syndrome are damaging enough to the space industry to demand action. Projections predict that some of Earth's orbits will be unusable within a few decades (AIAA, 1992). Additionally, as orbits become cluttered, spacecraft design will fundamentally change with the need for more protection from debris — driving up the cost of launches (Johnson & McKnight, 1987). The posed research question is what are the responsibilities of an engineer in the context of orbital debris from the perspectives of classical ethical theories?

A conclusion is to be reached by analyzing the impending orbital debris crisis using Utilitarianism, then Deontology, followed by Virtue Ethics and Rights Ethics. These ethical theories were selected because they were deemed to have the potential to contribute to the formulation of a recommended action despite their limitations. Other theories such as Act, Justice, Common Good, Democratic, or Least Harm were considered to have limitations and ambiguity that would not provide relevant contribution to later discussion. With engineering being a profession centered around service to the public, ethics must be at the core. From viewing the consequences and implications of inaction in removing orbital debris with the lenses of Utilitarianism, Deontology, Virtue Ethics, and Rights Ethics, an engineer acting ethically cannot ignore the matter

Utilitarianism

Taking up Utilitarianism as defined by John Stuart Mill (Baura, 2006), whether an action is moral or not depends on to what degree it maximizes happiness and minimizes suffering. Utilitarianism features the relative quantification of happiness in the form of hedons and dolors. Hedons are units of happiness while dolors represent suffering. If an individual is attempting to make the most moral decision as defined by Utilitarianism, they should act in a matter where the ratio of hedons to dolors is greatest (Baura, 2006).

Forty-one countries have conducted business in space. The population of these countries combined totals 4.7 billion people. The world population stands at about 7.6 billion. It could be said that at minimum, 4.7 billion have a stake in Earth's finite orbital resource. However, it is imagined that the number of stakeholders is closer to that of the world population than 4.7 billion. A remarkable amount of infrastructure depends on satellites. Without satellites there would be no television or global communications. International news would be lost, and military operations would be endangered. Air Traffic Control would not be able to reach any of the 93,000 flights that happen daily on average. Nor could the usual amount of weather data be collected and communicated. In the absence of Global Positioning Systems (GPS) not only would less efficient navigation slow down travel, deliveries, and Emergency Services but timekeeping would begin to slip. Consequently, inconsistent timekeeping would negatively impact the internet, power-grid, computerized civil infrastructures (such as water and traffic lights), railways, and mobile phone services (Hollingham, 2013). As shown, space-based technologies are tied to many everyday lives. Ergo it is argued that there are significantly more hedons tied to the preservation of artificial satellites in Earth's orbit.

The scenario presented is extreme and it is unlikely that all satellites would experience downtime at the same time but does illustrate their importance. If the orbital debris

risk can remain, the risk of an important satellite being struck increases. Then there is a chance that the lost satellite cannot be replaced because the orbit is too cluttered with debris. On a long timescale is argued that hedons would significantly outweigh the dolors overall if the matter of orbital debris is addressed now. However, the timescale selected is the pillar of the argument. If a short timescale were selected there would be more suffering in that if the space industry were put on hold to solve the orbital debris crisis, jobs would be loss and there may be tension between spacefaring nations. On the matter of what timescale is appropriate for utilitarian evaluation, it is dependent on where an engineer's personal duty lies, the humans of the past, present, or future.

Deontology

To further explore the role of duty in an engineer's approach to the orbital debris crisis, Deontology is applied to the situation. Deontology or Duty Ethics was put forward by Immanuel Kant where moral actions serve others, are morally just, and not self-serving in a fashion that universally would be considered a dutiful act. In 2019, India conducted an anti-satellite test in which India destroyed one of its own satellites with a rocket. Despite assurances that the test would not create orbital debris, four hundred pieces of debris were identified after the test. It was determined that the debris' orbit would eventually decay, and the debris would burn up in the atmosphere. However, the process takes time. For example, debris from China's 2007 antisatellite test remain. Not only is the process of orbital debris decay lengthy, but it also threatens other satellites in the meantime. India's 2019 antisatellite test posed a threat to the International Space Station, which at the time had six crew members aboard. The then acting NASA administrator, Jim Bridenstine, stated that India's test was "... not compatible with the future of human spaceflight that we need to see have happen" (Schultz, 2019). On the other hand, India's Prime Minister of the time, Narendra Modi, considered the antisatellite test to be

means for India becoming a space power and grouped with the United States, China, and Russia as a country that can eliminate space-based targets (Schultz, 2019).

The question now posed is whether the Indian government acted ethically in its execution of the antisatellite test. However, the limitations of the framework of deontology seem to prevent any certain conclusion from being reached. To begin, there does not seem to be a universally accepted standard yet in interacting with the matter of orbital debris. International space law does not cover orbital debris – meaning that a universally accepted standard is far off. Though it is argued that such a standard is taking shape in how the Indian government felt the need to assure other countries that orbital debris would be minimal prior to the test, even if it was not necessarily true. Furthermore, the negative reactions toward the debris from other interested parties also suggests that a standard is developing. Regardless, the duty aspect of India's actions cannot be ignored. If universal standards are set aside, one could argue that whether India acted ethically or unethically is a question that does not exist but that the question is where India's duty lies. India signed the Outer Space Treaty that states "that space activities are for the benefit of all nations (Space Foundation Editorial Team)." Conversely, the Indian government has a duty to uphold for its citizens. Who is to say that becoming a spacefaring nation and developing antisatellite technology are not a part of the government fulfilling its duty towards its citizens?

Rights Ethics

Such a question can be reframed as what rights those operating in space to fulfill their duties are in the context of orbital debris. Under Rights Ethics, morality is determined by whether the actions respect the duty imposed by the rights held by others and under these duties, have permission to be carried out (Baura, 2006). The Outer Space Treaty states that any country is free to explore orbit and beyond (Space Foundation Editorial Team). From the perspective of

Rights Ethics, the ethical action would be to not halt the development of space because in doing so the rights of countries, and thus the individuals within them, would be denied.

Virtue Ethics

In Virtue Ethics, morality does not lie in one's actions but in virtue. Aristotle defined virtue as one's character in behaving and feeling for a balance between excess and shortage (Baura, 2006). Virtue results in happiness and flourishing. In addressing the impending orbital debris crisis, one must find balance between overexaggerating the effects of orbital debris and not addressing the issue until orbital debris affects the space industry. In contrast to utilitarianism in which happiness is sought to be maximized, virtue is looking for balance. Instead of deciding whether to halt space development or continue, virtue may direct one to utilize less crowded orbits. While putting material into less traveled orbits only delays the need to clean up orbital debris, it does appear to imitate a balance between the cons of putting a hold on the industry and continuing at the current rate of debris creation.

Limitations

Limitations of Utilitarianism include the lack of consideration for what is morally just versus unjust and the possible personal suffering of the actor. Additionally, Utilitarianism fails to provide accurate guidance when there is a lack of information. Deontology does not offer an approach when there are conflicting duties. Rights ethics is limited in that it is not applicable if a party's rights are considered nonexistent by the actor. Limitations of virtue ethics is that reasoning is the only unique characteristic of humans which ignores the role of emotions in morality, virtue is for the upper class, and because virtue ethics heavily leans on character it does not provide guidance on actions. Limitations lie in the scope of this paper in that classical

theories are not factored into everyday decisions. The scope of this paper is only to develop a framework for analysis of the ethics of contribution to orbital debris to influence future international space law and codes of ethics. Finally, the theories and conclusion do not account for an individual's personal threshold for action, such as loss of a career.

Conclusion

Orbital debris is a matter that cannot be ignored indefinitely. The dangers of orbital debris are inevitable – ceasing to launch material would not reverse the situation. As a result, the debris must be cleaned up if the problem were to be properly addressed. This leaves the question of the ethics of launching material knowing the impending situation. The ethical theories of Utilitarianism, Deontology, Rights Ethics, and Virtue Ethics offer different perspectives.

Utilitarianism dictates that the moral action optimizes the ratio of happiness to suffering. If the Utilitarianism system is followed, assuming a relatively long timescale is used for reasoning, the space industry would pause to clean up existing orbital debris and put measures into place to prevent further accumulation. However, in addressing the problem in this fashion, there will be suffering – jobs will be lost, the technologies of everyday life will seem to slow or halt in progression, and a generation or more of potential future STEM professionals will be lost due to a lack of inspiring space-based events during their upbringing. The industry will suffer but less than if the amount orbital debris is allowed to grow. The results of analysis via Deontology were inconclusive in that engineers have conflicting duties and there is not yet a universal standard for what is morally just in the protection of finite resources. Rights ethics finds the restriction of space development a violation of countries', and by extension the inhabitant engineers', rights to explore space. Thus, to act ethically in this system, business in space should proceed as usual which will one day lead to the loss of humankind's finite orbital resource.

Virtue ethics seeks an alternative that finds a balance between the pros and cons of removing orbital debris and continuing space development. Virtue ethics might suggest the alternative of using less crowded orbits and having environmentally friendly decommission plans. If virtue ethics were adopted in addressing orbital debris, the crisis would only be delayed.

No one action can satisfy the views of all four theories but the common theme among two of the three systems that yielded a conclusion is that it would be unethical to continue to not address orbital debris. At minimum, an ethically acting engineer needs to actively engage with not further contributing to orbital debris during design. With countries beginning to hold each other accountable for excessive debris generation, the development of reusable rockets, and implementation of deorbit plans but lack of removal of existing orbital debris, the world appears to be following the path of virtue ethics in which a balance is pursued. It is believed that this will continue to be the case as there are no large-scale orbital debris removal plans on the horizon. The limitations of these theories also revealed that progress needs to be made in international space law and the establishment of common ground between countries on the matter of orbital debris.

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Delivering Real-Time Weather Data to Individual Drivers to Improve Driver Safety in Adverse Weather Conditions (Technical Paper)

The Role and Responsibility of an Engineer in Preventing Further Accumulation of Orbital Debris

(STS Paper)

A Thesis Prospectus Submitted to the

Faculty of the School of Engineering and Applied Science University of Virginia • Charlottesville, Virginia

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements of the Degree Bachelor of Science, School of Engineering

> Rikia Freeman Fall, 2020

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On my honor as a University Student, I have neither given nor received unauthorized aid on this assignment as defined by the Honor Guidelines for Thesis-Related Assignments

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Introduction

The health of transportation in Virginia directly impacts the quality of life and economic development of the state. When traffic on the roads does not flow as efficiently as possible, the congestion results in economic loss, the loss of life, and a decrease in the quality of life for drivers. A commercial company, MITRE, and Virginia Universities formed the University Innovation Exchange (UIX)-MITRE Space Initiative that has identified three problems leading to the congestion of Virginia's roadways (Goyne, 2020). Three teams worked on solutions to the problems of delivering real-time weather data to individual drivers, non-destructively evaluating roadway infrastructure, and managing and tracking truck parking. However, stakeholders constrained the solution to a remote-sensing a spacecraft.

In managing the congestion on Virginia's roadways with the constraint that the solution must be a spacecraft, there will be a contribution to the exponential growth of congestion of orbital debris around the Earth. The orbital space around Earth is a finite natural resource (Johnson & McKnight, 1987). Ground-based observation can detect objects at least four inches wide (American Institute of Aeronautics and Astronautics [AIAA], 1992). Collisions among debris create more debris and are causing an exponential growth of debris in space. In 1995, the number of detected objects in Earth-orbit was over 8,000; over 10,000 in 2007; over 19,000 in 2009; and over 23,000 in 2016 (NASA, 2009). Additionally, millions of undetectable debris are estimated to be in orbit. The fear around orbital debris is that in time, Kessler Syndrome will occur. Kessler Syndrome is the state where there is so much debris that launches are nearly impossible, and vehicles entering space would be quickly destroyed (Broad, 2007). Even if nations stopped launching material into space, a chain reaction of uncontrollable collisions is

inevitable (Broad, 2007). Currently, spacefaring nations are generating debris faster than natural forces can remove it (National Research Council (U.S.) Committee on Space Debris 1995). While Kessler Syndrome is an extreme scenario, the conditions of Earth's orbits leading up to Kessler Syndrome are damaging enough to the space industry to demand action. Projections predict that some of Earth's orbits will be unusable within a few decades (AIAA, 1992). Additionally, as orbits become cluttered, spacecraft design will fundamentally change with the need for more protection from debris – driving up the cost of launches (Johnson & McKnight, 1987).

The proposed project's technical component is developing an effective solution that delivers real-time data on adverse weather conditions for use by individual drivers. The project's environmental impact is to be studied through an STS lens focused on ethics. In this study, the STS topic aims to determine the team's ethical responsibility in further congesting an Earth orbit, especially when many ground-based solutions are available.

Technical Topic

The team works under the UIX-MITRE Space Initiative to develop solutions to the initiative's crucial transportation problems. The initiative's identified areas of improvement included: 1. Using real-time weather data to improve roadway safety; 2. Using remote sensing to evaluate roadway infrastructure without damaging the roadway; 3. Tracking and managing truck parking. Each transportation area was assigned a team. A fourth subarea to be addressed by all the teams is: retrieving data from multiple sources, using predictive analysis, and effectively interpreting and applying the open data to connect it to an organizational response to solve one of

the three aforementioned problems. This Prospectus addresses the first transportation problem of utilizing real-time weather data to improve roadway safety.

After conducting a literature review and engaging with key stakeholders and subject matter experts, the team refined the problem. The team refined the problem into six questions: 1. What adverse weather affects Virginia drivers the most?; 2. How does one develop a system that drivers will consult and heed over current sources?; 3. What data should be collected and at what frequency and resolution?; 4. Given other available open data sources, what gaps in data collection are acceptable?; 5. What are the limitations in current technology?; 6. Is there a specific piece of the larger problem that the team can focus on to meet current needs?

After refining the problem, the team furthered its literature review and continued engagement with key stakeholders. One such engagement included interviewing Dr. Michael D. Fontaine, Associate Director for Safety, Operations, and Traffic Engineering at the Virginia Department of Transportation. The team found that Virginians are most affected by snow and rain, but current technologies lack capabilities in measuring the results of snow and rain. In Virginia, snow and rain features, such as depth, have to be manually measured by dispatching human labor. There are chronically affected regions of Virginia where the state has deployed a commercial company's, Vaisala, ground sensors to monitor conditions such as fog and ice. However, the cost of maintenance continues to increase for the state as the sensors age. Vaisala's service's high cost forces the state only to deploy the sensors where roadway managers have identified a chronic problem; thus, coverage is limited. Such information has constrained the team's initial solution to provide more coverage and be cheaper than Virginia's current capabilities.

After having the solution constrained to be a remote-sensing solution in the form of a spacecraft, the team applied the Space Mission Engineering (SME) process to commence solution design. The spacecraft will need to observe road-impacting weather data from space with a resolution between 12 and 24 feet. The data collected must be able to be integrated with existing data sources and be delivered at a frequency of 1 hour or less. The mission's primary objectives are to detect and identify wet, flooded, snow-covered, ice-covered, or dry roadways in the United States of America; to effectively distribute measured data to roadway users, first responders, and roadway managers in order to improve roadway efficiency and safety.

Secondary objectives are to reduce the long-term costs of roadway monitoring for roadway managers; to measure the effect of climate trends on roadways to help predict required maintenance; to measure how efficacious weather data is in influencing driver behavior and safety.

STS Topic

The STS framework to be relied upon is that of ethics and professional responsibility in engineering. The stakeholders in the ethics question of the engineers' role and responsibility in preventing further accumulation of orbital debris are engineers at the individual level, companies and organizations, governments, and the public. The actor in this framework is all human-made launched material. Intangible actors in this framework are the public's perception, political tensions and need for weaponization, international and domestic law, and policy. Research into the ethics of contributing to orbital debris demands attention to preserve the future of space exploration and the industry. Even before orbits become unusable, the cost of launch and spacecraft will increase to the point where the benefits of doing business will become

outweighed; if the space industry halts, some fields in the sciences will reach an impasse.

Additionally, many functionalities enjoyed by the public on the ground are due to spacecraft in these endangered orbits. Collisions cannot only destroy these essential crafts but keep replacements from being launched. Furthermore, space remains one of the few scenarios in which countries that generally would not cooperate collaborate successfully. Finally, if this disregard to the accumulation of orbital debris is allowed to continue, the public will blame engineers for the problem, and public trust will decrease (Beder, 1998). However, in such an event, maybe a decrease in public trust in engineers is deserved.

Research Question and Methods

The posed research question is "How are organizations preventing engineers from upholding their codes of ethics?" There are explicit standards of ethics and professional responsibility for engineers, but the existence of such a code has not always been enough to hold engineers accountable (Gotterbarn, 2001). However, there are cases in which colleagues or organizations pressure engineers. In other cases, engineers are limited by existing laws and policies. To pursue the stated research question, case studies will be reviewed. Themes will be compiled to determine the shortcomings of engineers and their overarching organizations. These shortcomings will be evaluated using published standards of ethics and professional responsibility along with a philosophical perspective on ethics and service to the public. Finally, solutions to the uncovered shortcomings will be supplied. The supplied solutions' themes will then be compiled to pinpoint the role and responsibility of the engineer. A philosophical approach is presented in the method since the objective code of ethics has not always proven effective in holding engineers accountable.

Conclusion

The team anticipates that the technical project's work will be a strong enough foundation for future classes and professionals to fabricate and scale the solution to make the roadways safer in interested states. The scholarly paper on ethics is hoped to make engineers in the space industry aware of their actions and to act in a manner that shows care for the future of space exploration; and in the case of pressure by external factors, to feel empowered with the knowledge of what they can do to combat pressures.

Timeline

The Prospectus is to be approved by the technical advisor by 1700 on November 24, 2020. On this date, the technical team will have a solution approach developed and selected. From February 2021 to April 2021, the technical team will develop a design for the system of systems, develop a conceptual design for any new technologies needed to fulfill the requirements of the selected approach, prototype any new technologies, refine the solution based on feedback from stakeholders, identify sources of funding, and develop recommendations for solutions to the transportation problem affecting Virginia. Case study review will begin immediately after Prospectus approval and is expected to continue until February 2021. From which STS thesis drafting will begin.

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