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Review Article

# An overview of small satellites in remote sensing\*

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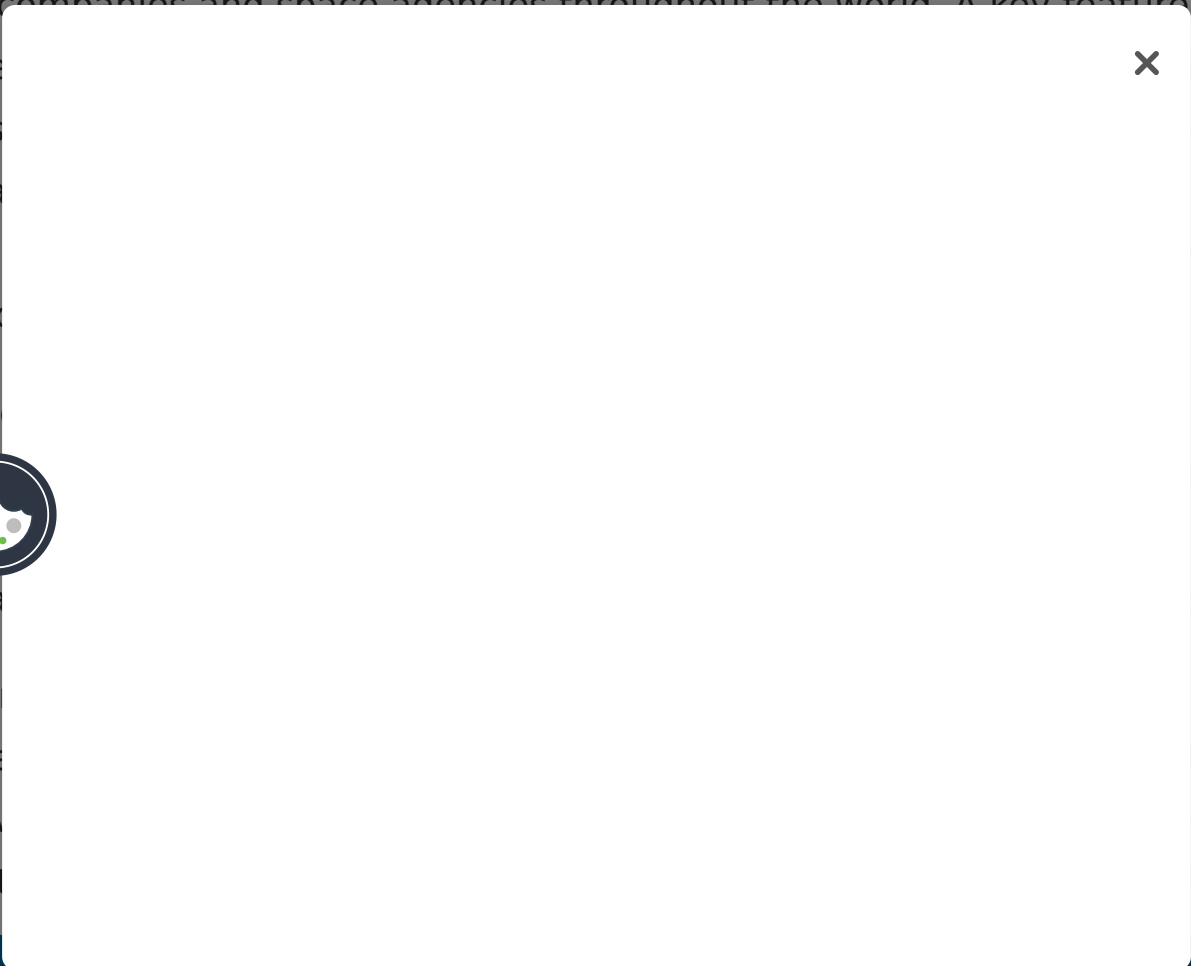
The future is likely to see more small satellites, each of which is dedicated to a particular mission objective and carries a single instrument. Through this approach more and more countries around the world are becoming involved in Earth observation from space, not just in using the data from the major established systems but also in constructing their own systems.

There were some small, low-cost satellites in the early days, but they were overlooked or considered toys by the space community. The first microsatellites were built by enthusiasts of the amateur radio community and launched in the early 1960s. The invention/introduction of the microprocessor in the 1970s represented a quantum jump for the onboard capabilities of a spacecraft. This technology introduction represented a prime catalyst in the development of microsatellites since it enabled small physical structures in support of sophisticated data handling applications. The engineering of microsatellites, which emerged in the early 1980s, took a radical change of approach from the custom design of traditional spacecraft, namely a design-to-capability scheme to achieve cost reductions by focusing on available, and existing technologies using a general purpose bus and ‘off-the-shelf’ components and instruments.

The new approach of small satellite design was pioneered by Surrey Satellite Technology Ltd (SSTL) of Surrey University, UK. SSTL's lead has now been followed by various companies and space agencies throughout the world. A key feature of this work is the development of small satellite technology in partnership with international organizations. This approach has enabled SSTL to develop a wide range of small satellite technology not in a traditional development position but in a development position of their own.

In addition to the development of small satellite technology, SSTL has been involved in the development of small satellite technology in the field of remote sensing. This has led to the development of small satellite technology in the field of remote sensing, and small satellite technology in the field of remote sensing.

Today, small satellite technology is becoming increasingly important in the field of remote sensing. This is due to the fact that small satellite technology is becoming increasingly important in the field of remote sensing, and small satellite technology is becoming increasingly important in the field of remote sensing.



# 1. Introduction

The fact that we have just been celebrating the 50th anniversary of the beginnings of space flight in October 2007 means that it is a fitting occasion to give an overview of small satellite developments in Earth observation/remote sensing and other fields of space flight. In particular, this involves the history of small satellites with reliance on remote sensing.

At the start of the space age, all satellites were small – not by choice, but by necessity. The world's first artificial satellite, Sputnik-1 (which was launched on 4 October 1957), was a 58.0 cm diameter aluminium sphere with a mass of 83 kg and it carried four whip-like antennas that were 2.4–2.9 m long. The first successful US satellite, Vanguard-1 (which was launched on 17 March 1958), was a sphere with a diameter of 16 cm and a mass of 1.6 kg (Meurer [2006](#)).

Practically all the satellites of the first two decades of the space age featured custom designs (in shape, size, stabilization methods, power provision, instrument mounting techniques, onboard data handling, data communications, mass, etc.) to suit the requirements of the specific mission. This was true for the first generation of spacecraft builders, who were often government agencies or universities, and for a specific purpose, such as Earth observation or scientific research. In the 1970s, the first commercial satellites were launched, and these were designed for a specific purpose, such as Earth observation or scientific research. These custom designs were often expensive and time-consuming, and the definition of a satellite was often very broad. The industry was often to design a satellite for a specific purpose, such as Earth observation or scientific research. However, the requirements for a satellite were often very broad, and the industry was often to design a satellite for a specific purpose, such as Earth observation or scientific research. The industry was often to design a satellite for a specific purpose, such as Earth observation or scientific research. The industry was often to design a satellite for a specific purpose, such as Earth observation or scientific research.



After a number of early spacecraft or subsystem failures were experienced, the reliability issue became a big hurdle for spacecraft designers due to the requirement of space-qualified components. Electronic devices had to be radiation-hardened to sustain the hostile environment of space. This was another cost driver as well as a performance killer, since the so-called Commercial Off-The-Shelf (COTS) products of newer designs provided much better processing power than the much older space-qualified products. In addition, the critical subsystems of a spacecraft had to be designed in a redundant or dual-redundant configuration (alternate path selection capability) to guarantee operational service in case of a single-point failure.



bureaucracy and large organizations. As a consequence, overall creativity suffered considerably while costs increased rapidly.

At the end of the Cold War (in the early 1990s), there was a reduction in launches with longer in-between periods. Large and complex projects of NASA and ESA encountered planning and re-planning phases alone that came close to a decade or longer. Some examples are:

The planning for the Hubble Space Telescope (HST) started in the early 1970s (and it was launched in 1990). After launch, the spacecraft required a repair mission to start operations (the primary mirror suffered from spherical aberration). This was followed by several servicing missions requiring Space Shuttle flights.

The International Space Station (ISS) programme was started in 1984. The ISS station build-up began in 1998 until 2010; this is to be followed by regular operations.

The Earth Observing System (EOS) programme planning of NASA started in the early 1980s, and was rescoped in 1992. Eventually the spacecraft in this system were finally launched – Terra in 1999, Aqua in 2002 and Aura in 2004.

The planning for the National Polar-orbiting Operational Environmental Satellite System (NPOESS) programme started in 1993 with the intention of combining the

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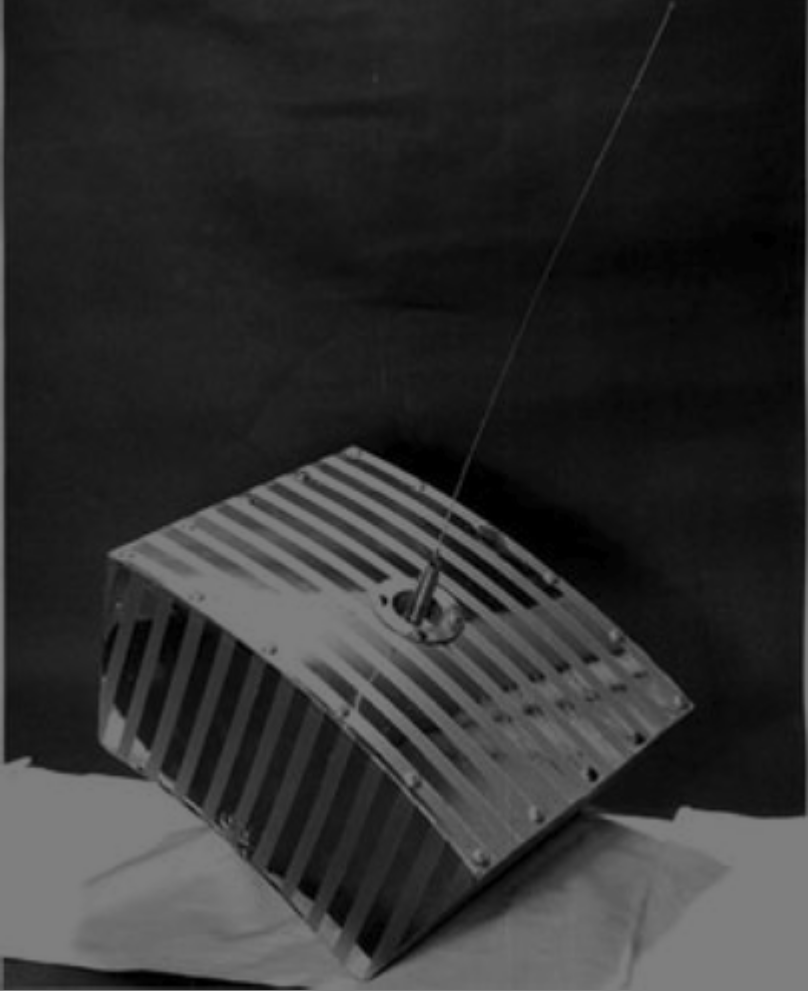
to gain first-hand experience of space before moving to larger projects' (Sweeting [1991](#)).

Already in the early 1960s, the first spacecraft of a family of tiny communication satellites, referred to as OSCAR (Orbiting Satellite Carrying Amateur Radio), was designed and developed by a California-based group of amateur radio enthusiasts. OSCAR-1 (figure 1), the first battery-powered amateur satellite with a mass of 4.5 kg, was launched on 12 December 1961 (piggyback to the Discover-36 spacecraft of the USAF) from Vandenberg Air Force Base (VAFB), California (orbit of 372 km×211 km, inclination of 81.2°, period of 91.8 min). OSCAR-1 orbited for 22 days, and over 570 amateur radio operators in 28 countries reported receiving its simple 'HI-HI' Morse code signals in VHF (A Brief History of Amateur Satellites, URL: <http://www.amsat.org/amsat/sats/n7hpr/history.html>).

In 1969 the Radio Amateur Satellite Corporation (AMSAT) was founded in Washington DC as an educational organization to give amateur radio satellites an international base. Some OSCAR family advancements include the launch of the very first satellite voice transponder (on OSCAR-3, which was launched on 9 March 1965), and the development of highly advanced digital S&F (store and forward) (on OSCAR-9, alias UoSat-1, which was launched on 6 October 1981) messaging transponder techniques.

Figure 1





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Like many new developments, the small satellites of the early space age were simply overlooked by the media. The Soviet Union's first satellite, Sputnik 1, was launched in 1957, and the first satellite to orbit the Moon in 1960.

The interest in small satellites must be regarded as a very real consequence of the pragmatic approach to space exploration. The interest in small satellites must be regarded as a very real consequence of the pragmatic approach to space exploration.

## 2. Small Satellites

The term "small satellite" (SS) is used to describe a satellite that is smaller than a typical satellite (AT-NA). The term "small satellite" (SS) is used to describe a satellite that is smaller than a typical satellite (AT-NA). The term "small satellite" (SS) is used to describe a satellite that is smaller than a typical satellite (AT-NA).

when compared with the established spacecraft missions of the time. Most experts in the field had a smile when asked about the objectives and the future of such toys in space, which became eventually known as ‘microsatellites’. Could these toys do anything worthwhile? There were many prejudices in the space community when the topic of ‘microsatellites’ was mentioned.

Martin Sweeting of SSTL wrote in his paper of 1991: ‘It may come somewhat as a surprise to learn that some 20 microsatellites have been placed into orbit in the amateur satellite service over the last 25 years! Within Europe, the University of Surrey and its technology transfer company Surrey Satellite Technology Ltd leads research into microsatellite engineering techniques through its UoSat microsatellite programme.’(Sweeting [1991](#))

In the same paper Sweeting proposed also the first known classification of small satellites, as shown in table 1. Views on what constitutes a small satellite depend on the perspective of the beholder. A small satellite to NASA or to Roskosmos may be considered a monster to a university department. Naturally, there are many different ways to classify artificial satellites – by function, type of orbit, cost, size, performance, and so forth. However, a classification by mass turns out to be quite useful because it has a direct bearing on the launch cost of a spacecraft, representing a considerable hurdle for every mission. Since ‘microsatellite’ was the only term in use in the time frame prior to the late 1980s, it was used in the paper. However, at the time, established terms were not used to describe the various classes of small satellites. Then he proposed a classification system for decimal terms. Hence, the various terms used in the paper. The various mass classes



500 kg to the 100–1000 kg range, to keep to the logic of magnitude orders. The revised version is given in table 2. Within this classification, the term ‘small satellite’ class is used to cover all spacecraft with a launch mass of less than 1000 kg.

Table 2. Satellite classification by mass criterion.

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Various authors/organizations have advocated these changes in the recent past. An upper limit of 1000 kg for ‘minisatellites’ was for instance adopted at UNISPACE III (Third United Nations Conference on the Exploration and Peaceful Uses of Outer Space), Vienna, Austria, 19–30 July 1999. At this conference, the cost for developing and manufacturing a typical minisatellite was indicated to be in the order of US\$ 5–20 million, while the price tag for microsatellites was estimated as between US\$ 2–5 million and for nanosatellites could be below US\$ 1 million (all at 1999 price levels) (Sandau [2006a](#); Sandau et al. [2006](#)).

In particular, the small satellite mission philosophy at UNISPACE III was described to require a design-to-cost approach, within strict cost and schedule constraints, mostly combined with a single mission objective. This focused approach was noted to be supported

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more rapid expansion of the technical and/or scientific knowledge base;  
greater involvement of local and small industry.

An early survey on the phenomenon and rationale of small satellites was also conducted by such organizations as the Committee on Small Satellites of IAA (International Academy of Aeronautics) in the late 1980s (IAA Position Paper [1993a,b](#)).

### 3. UoSat family of small satellites

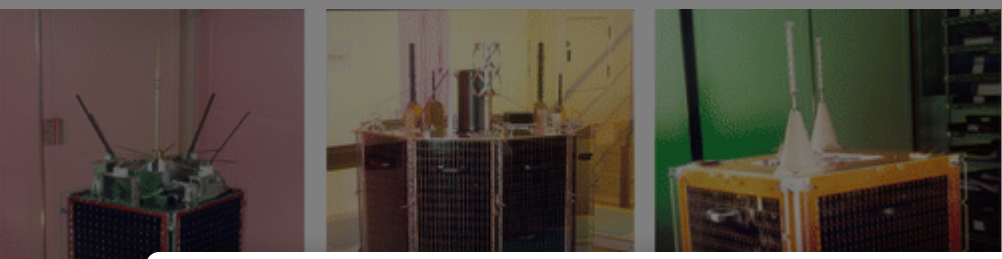
A new approach to small-satellite design was started in the latter part of the 1970s at the University of Surrey in Guildford, Surrey, UK. An early guiding principle was to make space flight affordable to a larger community of interested parties. This required in particular a design-to-capability approach to achieve cost reductions by focusing on available and existing technologies. A small project should only have a small set of goals (requirements) that could be developed by small engineering teams. Each mission under consideration had to adapt to these constraints. Next to low costs, higher risks were taken again with the introduction of more advanced concepts or new technologies into mission designs. More COTS products were used, either to space-qualify these components or subsystems for other missions, or to demonstrate new capabilities.



more flexibility to spacecraft and subsystem manufacturing, integration and testing. In particular, the new approach favoured quick response times of all aspects of satellite manufacturing. This modular design has since been used successfully on all microsatellites of SSTL and is being widely adopted for microsatellite designs worldwide.

The launch industry reacted to the launch requirements of these new small satellites as secondary payloads by providing newly developed launch structures. For example, Ariane Structure for Auxiliary Payloads (ASAP) by ArianeSpace was ready for launch in 1989 offering launch opportunities for multiple small satellites. The ASAP-5 ring structure can accommodate up to eight microsatellites with a volume restriction of 60 cm×60 cm×80 cm. UoSat-3 and UoSat-4 were the first microsatellites, plus four nanosatellites of AMSAT, launched into low Earth orbit with ASAP (22 January 1990), along with the primary payload SPOT-2.

Figure 2 Typical satellites of the SSTL family(image credit: SSTL).



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microsatellites as well as for larger-class satellites, depending on applications and required performance.

Table 3. SSTL-developed small satellites.

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#### 4. Small satellite initiatives in the USA

The SMEX (Small Explorer) programme of NASA started in 1988 to provide frequent opportunities for highly focused and relatively inexpensive space science missions on minisatellites (SAMPEX, FAST, TRACE, SWAS, and WIRE). The basic approach was to use a modular design for multiple missions (or a class of missions). Modular designs became possible because the satellite industry had reached a state of maturity and has a large heritage of past satellite designs to learn from and build upon (Reid et al. [1998](#)).

SAMPEX (Solar Anomalous and Magnetospheric Particle Explorer) was designed to monitor the magnetospheric particle populations which occasionally plunge into the middle atmosphere of the Earth. With a spacecraft mass of 161 kg, it was launched on 3 July 1996. The mission was approved by the NASA Consultative Committee on Small Satellites (CCSSS) in 1988.

FAST (Fast Auroral Snapshot Explorer) was designed to study the rapidly varying auroral electron precipitation. It was launched on 21 August 1996. The mission was approved by the NASA Consultative Committee on Small Satellites (CCSSS) in 1988.

TRACE (Transition Region and Coronal Explorer) was designed to study the solar transition region and corona. It was launched on 7 August 1997. The mission was approved by the NASA Consultative Committee on Small Satellites (CCSSS) in 1988.

SWAS (Solar Wind Anisotropy and Structure) was designed to study the solar wind. It was launched on 12 August 1997. The mission was approved by the NASA Consultative Committee on Small Satellites (CCSSS) in 1988.

WIRE (Wide-Field Infrared Explorer) of NASA was launched on 4 March 1999 (launch mass of 259 kg). WIRE is also an astronomy mission to study the evolution of galaxies. The main instrument, WIRE, consists of a cryogenically cooled, 30 cm imaging telescope. However, WIRE was unable to carry out its primary science mission due to attitude problems.

NASA also started a Small Spacecraft Technology Initiative (SSTI) programme in 1994 with the objective of demonstrating technologies and new approaches for reducing the cost and time of getting civil and commercial space missions from the drawing board to orbit. The programme permitted the spacecraft builder to incorporate commercial standards in the design and qualification process. The first SSTI projects were the spacecraft 'Lewis' and 'Clark' named after the leaders of the early 19th century US expedition to the Pacific northwest (<http://www.sti.nasa.gov/tto/spinoff1996/17.html>).

The Lewis minisatellite was designed and built by the team led by TRW, Redondo Beach, California. The spacecraft had a launch mass of 288 kg and was launched on 23 August 1997 carrying a sensor complement of three instruments: HSI (Hyperspectral Imager), LEISA (Linear Etalon Imaging Spectrometer Array), and UCB (Extreme Ultraviolet Cosmic Background Explorer). The spacecraft was lost after 3 days due to an attitude control failure.

The Clark minisatellite was designed and built by the team led by TRW, Redondo Beach, California. The spacecraft had a launch mass of 288 kg and was launched on 23 August 1997 carrying a sensor complement of three instruments: HSI (Hyperspectral Imager), LEISA (Linear Etalon Imaging Spectrometer Array), and UCB (Extreme Ultraviolet Cosmic Background Explorer). The spacecraft was lost after 3 days due to an attitude control failure.

The TOM (Total Observing Mission) was designed and built by the team led by TRW, Redondo Beach, California. The spacecraft had a launch mass of 288 kg and was launched on 23 August 1997 carrying a sensor complement of three instruments: HSI (Hyperspectral Imager), LEISA (Linear Etalon Imaging Spectrometer Array), and UCB (Extreme Ultraviolet Cosmic Background Explorer). The spacecraft was lost after 3 days due to an attitude control failure.

OCO (Orbiting Carbon Observatory) was designed and built by the team led by TRW, Redondo Beach, California. The spacecraft had a launch mass of 288 kg and was launched on 23 August 1997 carrying a sensor complement of three instruments: HSI (Hyperspectral Imager), LEISA (Linear Etalon Imaging Spectrometer Array), and UCB (Extreme Ultraviolet Cosmic Background Explorer). The spacecraft was lost after 3 days due to an attitude control failure.

The Department of Defense (DoD) is the primary agency responsible for the development and operation of the WIRE mission.



the costs and development time of small spacecraft in the 50–1000 kg range. The first microsatellite developed under this programme within less than a year was GLOMR (Global Low-Orbit Message Relay), a digital store-and forward un-stabilized communications satellite (mass of 62 kg) with a launch on Space Shuttle (STS-61-A, 30 October 1985). GLOMR collected sensor data from the ground segment and re-entered the atmosphere after 14 months in orbit.

The MightySat programme of AFRL (Air Force Research Laboratory) started in 1994 with the objective of providing an environment for frequent, inexpensive, on-orbit demonstrations of emerging space system technologies and to accelerate their transition into operational use. MightySat-1 was a spin-stabilized microsatellite of 63 kg launched on 14 December 1998 on the Space Shuttle and ejected. The spacecraft carried several advanced experiments to demonstrate the new technologies. MightySat-1 re-entered the atmosphere on 16 November 1999 due to its relatively low orbital altitude. All objectives were accomplished. MightySat-2 was a technology demonstration mission US Defense Space Test Program (test of high-risk, high-payoff space system technologies), initiated in 1996. The three-axis stabilized small satellite had a mass of 121 kg (payload mass of 37 kg) and was launched on 19 July 2000. The main sensor was the FTHSI (Fourier Transform HyperSpectral Imager). The S-band downlink permitted only a low duty cycle of the instrument. The spacecraft re-entered the atm

Starting in 1994, AFRL developed a concept, called OASAT (Orbiting Air Force Research Laboratory Satellite) and launched the first OASAT satellite in 1998. Major partners in the programme were AFRL, AFRL, and AFRL. The goal is to develop new technologies for small satellites. The goal is to develop new technologies for small satellites.

drum, and a small satellite. The goal is to develop new technologies for small satellites. The goal is to develop new technologies for small satellites. The goal is to develop new technologies for small satellites.

In July 2000, AFRL launched a broad range of technologies derived from a number of sources, including AFRL, AFRL, and AFRL.



spacecraft nodes that together act like a single satellite. In its solicitation, DARPA has identified a number of key technologies needed for an F6 system to be successful. These include networking and wireless communications capabilities among the spacecraft nodes, distributed computing, wireless power transfer, cluster flight operations, and the development of a spacecraft black box for each node to diagnose and recover from failures. DARPA is looking for innovative proposals for the performance of research, development, design, and testing to support the agency's System F6 concept ([http://www.darpa.mil/TTO/solicit/BAA07-31/F6\\_BAA\\_Final\\_07-16-07.doc](http://www.darpa.mil/TTO/solicit/BAA07-31/F6_BAA_Final_07-16-07.doc)).

Table 4 provides an (incomplete) overview of small satellite missions over the last three decades launched in the USA.

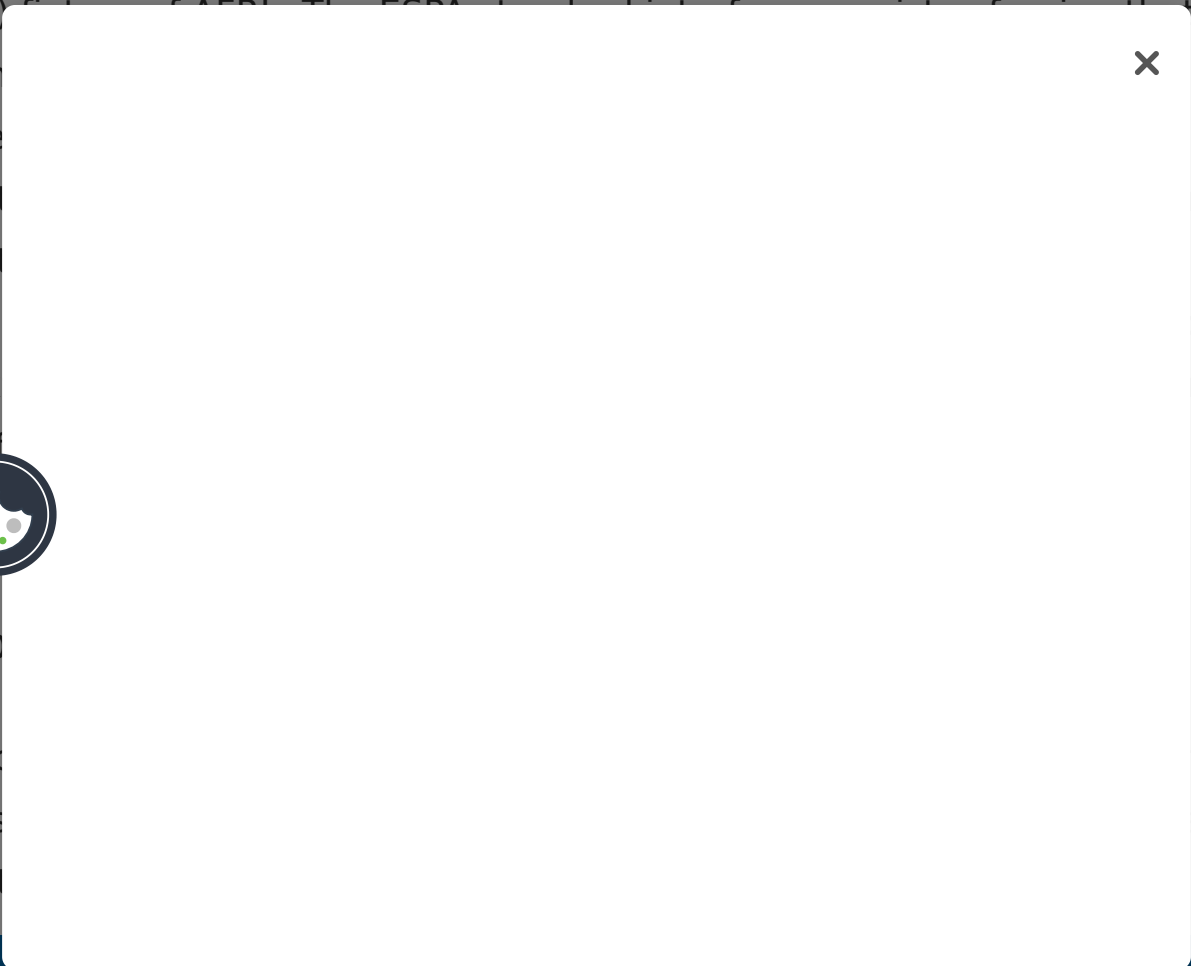
Table 4. Small satellites of the USA (chronological order of missions).

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A fairly recent development in the USA to increase multiple secondary launch opportunities at affordable costs was provided with the ESPA (EELV Secondary Payload Adapter) first stage (ASPD). The ESPA is a cylindrical structure that is installed between the main stage and the secondary payload stage. It allows for the launch of multiple small satellites (each) sequentially. The first demonstration mission was the DARPA, the first mission was the and Next successful



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appropriate for the objective, COTS component technology was introduced to keep costs within bounds. Up to the 1980s, missions in Earth observation or in space science of the space agencies had been designed using the most advanced technology available (and standards based on space-qualified components only, delaying the introduction of new technology by several years); multiple instrument payloads were generally flown on large platforms. Only the wealthiest nations could afford such huge investments (Smithies et al. [2002](#)).

These developments must be seen in the light of the global political scene of the time. With the end of the Cold War in the early 1990s, the political world changed dramatically in many respects as well. The improved climate among nations generated in turn more cooperation on many levels, and the field of space flight benefited from this. But the aftermath of the Cold War meant also much tighter budgets on all levels for many national governments. In particular, the research budgets of many nations in East and West experienced great pressures due to the enormous investments needed for the new infrastructures (Germany alone invested hundreds of billions of dollars in the unification process of the country). The entire space sector of Russia and its former satellite states suffered most in the first decade of rearrangement – experiencing a devastating shrinkage in all space programmes. Today, an increasing economic recovery in Russia permits again more investments into its space activities.

The tight budgetary constraints forced the space agencies to re-evaluate their perspectives and institutional structures. In the early 1990s, many space agencies started to reorganize their structures and to focus on their core competences. In the future space exploration, the magnitude of the challenges will be enormous. The development of new technologies provided a new perspective on the possibilities of space exploration. The development of new technologies provided a new perspective on the possibilities of space exploration.

## 6. Mission

### 6.1 SSTL

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other member in the consortium in case of a disaster event. This innovative proposal provided opportunities, especially to developing countries. The DMC consortium comprises a partnership between organizations in Algeria, China, Nigeria, Turkey and the UK. Again, cooperative projects with effective know-how transfer to the customer were realized by SSTL; the DMC satellites include:

- AlSat-1 of CNTS (Centre National des Techniques Spatiales), Arzew, Algeria.
- NigeriaSat-1, which was built in partnership with NASRDA (National Space Research and Development Agency) and funded by the Government of Nigeria.
- BILSAT-1, which is an Earth observation and technology demonstration mission of BILTEN TUBITAK-ODTU (Science Board of Scientific and Technical Research Council) of Ankara, Turkey.
- UK-DMC, which was funded by BNSC (British National Space Centre).
- Beijing-1, which was built in partnership with MOST (Ministry of Science and Technology) of China.
- NigeriaSat-2, which is under development as of 2007. The NASRDA contract with SSTL specifies the development and building of NigeriaSat-2, including the related ground infrastructure, and a training programme to further develop an indigenous space capability in the Federal Republic of Nigeria.

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(Algerian National Space Technology Centre). In February 2006 CNTS signed an agreement with EADS Astrium SAS to design and built two satellites. The first of these, AlSat-2A, will be integrated and tested in France at EADS Astrium, whereas the second one, AlSat-2B, will be integrated in Algeria within the small satellite development centre (UDPS) in Oran. The cooperation agreement makes provision for 20 Algerian engineers to work side-by-side with the EADS Astrium development team, with intensive training given in space technology over a period of 2 years.

Table 5. EADS Astrium partnerships with institutions of foreign countries.



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### 6.3 TUB (Technical University of Berlin)

In 1995 a collaborative agreement was signed between CRTS (Centre Royal Télédétection Spatiale) of Rabat, Morocco, and the Institute of Aeronautics and Astronautics (ILR) at the TUB, Berlin, Germany. The contract called for on-the-job training of Moroccan engineers along with the design and development of Maroc-TUBSAT (launched on 10 December 2001).

In 2003, the TUB signed a memorandum of understanding (MOU) with LAPAN, the Indonesian National Aeronautics and Space Agency, involving a training program for Indonesian engineers at the Institut für Luft- und Raumfahrt (ILR) at the TUB, Berlin, Germany. The contract called for on-the-job training of Indonesian engineers along with the design and development of Maroc-TUBSAT (launched on 10 December 2001).

### 6.4

The Formosa Space Project (launched in 2003) is a project between the Formosa Space Organization (FSO) and the Formosa Space Agency (FSA). The project involves the development of a small satellite (FSO-Sat) and its launch. The project is a joint effort between the FSO and the FSA, and it is supported by the Formosa Space Agency.

took place on 26 January 1999

(<http://www.nspo.org.tw/2005e/projects/project1/intro.htm>).

## 6.5 SaTReCi (SaTReC Initiative Co. Ltd)

In 2001 ATSB signed a cooperative agreement with SaTReCi of Daejeon, Korea, for the RazakSat project of ATSB, Malaysia. The contract included on-the-job training of ATSB engineers. RazakSat is due for launch in 2008.

DubaiSat-1 is an initiative of EIAST (Emirates Institution for Advanced Science and Technology), a UAE (United Arab Emirates) government entity to build and operate a remote sensing imaging satellite. To this effect a cooperative agreement was signed with SaTReCi of Daejeon, Korea, in April 2006 which includes an on-the-job training programme of a team of UAE engineers in Korea at SaTReCi. The launch of DubaiSat-1 is planned for 2008.

## 6.6 Yuzhnoye (Ukraine)

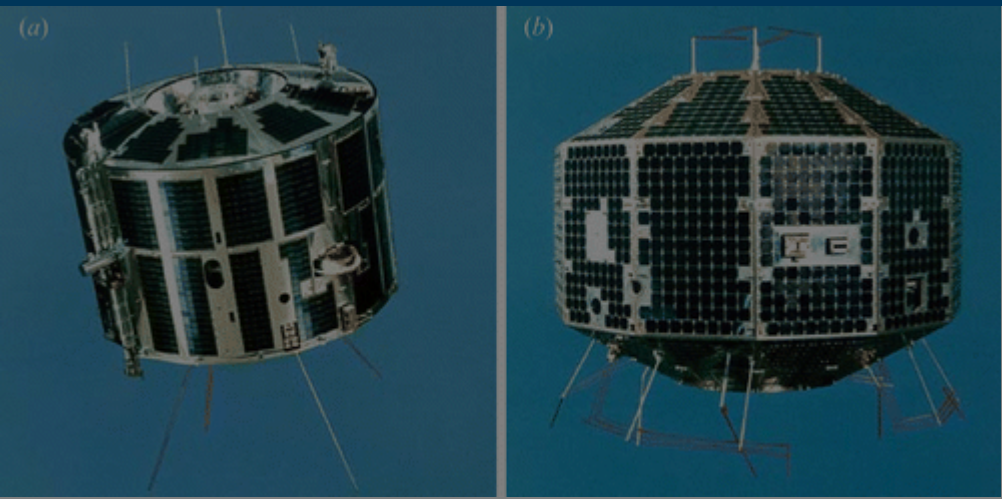
In 2001, the EgyptSat-1 project agreement was signed between NARSS (National Authority for Remote Sensing and Space Science) of Egypt and the State Design Office Yuzhnoye, Dnepropetrovsk, Ukraine. Yuzhnoye designed and developed the spacecraft. The contract included also technical expertise and on-the-job training to Egyptian engineers (figure 7).

## 7. Sm

The EXO (Institute for Space and Astronautics) (launched on 4 1978, mass 92 kg, figure 3).

Figure 3 (credit: ISAS).





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EXOS-B carried out coordinated observations with EXOS-A. Investigations of correlated mechanisms between particles and fields and plasma turbulence were made with in situ measurement techniques using electrostatic particle analysers. The EXOS series spacecraft are in effect good examples in the class of small satellites of their period. Each one of them represented a custom design as well as a corresponding manufacturing process.

Table 6 provides an (incomplete) overview of small satellite missions over the last three decades launched by the rest of the world.

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STSat-2 (~100 kg, launch due in 2008) is being developed by SaTReC. It carries a payload of DREAM (Dual-channel Radiometers for Earth and Atmosphere Monitoring), LRA (Laser Retroreflector Array), DHST (Dual Head Star Tracker), PPT (Pulsed Plasma Thruster) and FDSS (Fine Digital Sun Sensor) and is a technology demonstration experiment.

CNES (Centre National d'Etudes Spatiales, France) started with the development of a small satellite series family called Myriade in 1999 (see table 9). Satellite AIT (Assembly, Integration and Test) is performed by CNES or French industry. There is a partnership between CNES, Thales Alenia Space (TAS, formerly Alcatel Alenia Space), and EADS Astrium SAS. The partnership agreement permits TAS and EADS to use the Myriade bus design and products for their own applications/missions (figure 5).

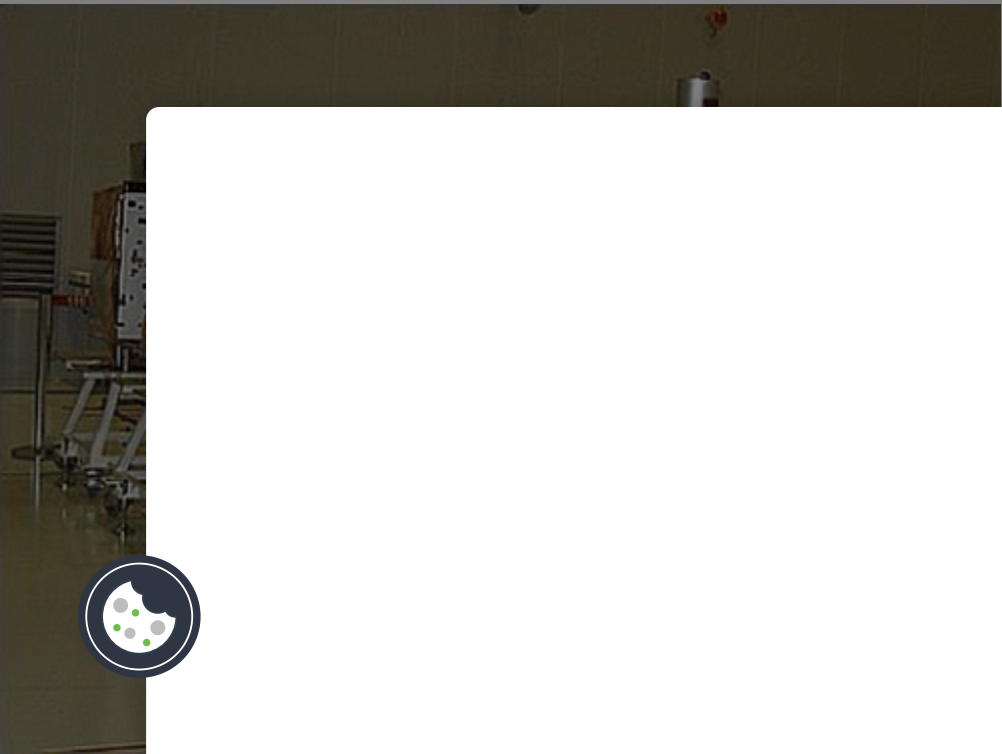
Table 9. Some smallsats of the Myriade family of CNES.

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Figure 5 Myriade series spacecraft(image credit: CNES, Astrium).



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## 8.1 Nanosatellites and picosatellites

The early microsatellites of the 1980s were simple spacecraft, serving in such niches as S & F (Store and Forward) communications. These spacecraft were for instance built without a propulsion system, due to the cost and complexity of such a system. Attitude control was typically performed using magnetic torquers and gravity stabilization; at a later time, reaction or momentum wheels were introduced. Also, propulsion for attitude control using tiny thrusters could be implemented using cold pressurized gas. However, for orbit changes, such a cold gas system remained simply inadequate. Small satellite projects also have small budgets. Thus, by their very nature, they depend on launch opportunities as secondary payloads which are offered in association with larger satellites. As a consequence, a microsatellite project is, in general, constrained to take the same orbit as the main satellite payload.

The first spaceborne microprocessor (Intel 8080) in Earth observation was flown on the Seasat mission of NASA in 1978. This technology introduction represented a prime catalyst in the development of microsatellites since it enabled the use of small physical structures in support of sophisticated data handling applications. All microsatellites of SSTL (as well as of other developers) featured a microprocessor as onboard computer. The UoSAT-1 primary onboard computer was based on the RCA CDP 1802 microprocessor (launched in 1981).



observations or for communication purposes in low Earth orbits). The early nanosatellites and picosatellites are listed in table 10.

Table 10. Chronology of early nanosatellite and picosatellite launches.



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In most nanosatellite designs up to the end of the 20th century, the primary attitude sensor has been a magnetometer which measured the amplitude and direction of the magnetic field vector relative to the spacecraft coordinate system. This measurement was then compared with that of a model of the geomagnetic field for the specific orbital location and the attitude between the spacecraft axes and the inertial reference frame is evaluated (Michalareas et al. 2002).

## 8.2 ADCS (Attitude Determination and Control Subsystems)

Early microsatellite attitude control subsystems were rather limited in their control capabilities. In the early 1990s, the common attitude stabilization modes were to leave the spacecraft unstabilized, magnetically locked to the Earth's magnetic field, or gravity-gradient controlled. Only a few experimental systems would use something more advanced.

Generally, the attitude control subsystems were limited in their control capabilities and direction. This measurement was then compared with that of a model of the geomagnetic field for the specific orbital location and the attitude between the spacecraft axes and the inertial reference frame is evaluated. The primary actuator was a magnetometer.

In the early 1990s, the common attitude stabilization modes were to leave the spacecraft unstabilized, magnetically locked to the Earth's magnetic field, or gravity-gradient controlled. Only a few experimental systems would use something more advanced. It was not until after the early 1990s that the use of microsatellites has improved as well as other applications.



Tables 11 and 12 provide an overview of Attitude Determination and Control Subsystems (ADCS) technology introduction into small satellites (Michalareas et al. 2002, Borrien et al. 2006, Davies et al. 2007).

Table 11. Introduction of ADCS technology into small satellites.

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Table 12. Common actuation techniques for attitude control.

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The CAN (Controller Area Network) bus technology, providing a distributed data handling architecture, was first introduced by SSTL on the FaSat-Alfa microsatellite (launched 31 August 1995). In the meantime, this bus standard has been implemented in many small satellite missions.

In the late 1990s the miniaturization technology was considered viable for integration of electric propulsion systems onto small satellites to obtain orbit manoeuvrability. For example, STRV-1a (launched on 17 June 1994), a DERA microsatellite (spacecraft mass 52 kg), incorporated a 10 N class ion thruster for the UK-10 IPS (Ion Propulsion System) developed by DERA and JPL. The thruster was used for orbit actuating and attitude control. The microsatellite was used to demonstrate deep space manoeuvres. In April 1999, the microsatellite was used to demonstrate the use of electric propulsion for orbit manoeuvres. The microsatellite, which used a 10 N class ion thruster, was used to demonstrate the use of electric propulsion on small satellites.



## Table techn

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## 9.1 Universities worldwide

During the 1990s, satellite and payload development projects became the programme of choice for challenging (multi-year) training courses in quite a few engineering departments at universities throughout the world. The intent was (and is) always to enrich the student training programme, to stimulate interest in a problem-solving multi-disciplinary technical environment, to be imaginative and resourceful, and to take some risks – with ample and essential help from mentors and partners (industry, institutional, or otherwise). Cooperation on many levels and active participation/publication within the international space science community are important ingredients in the overall objectives of research and development. In some instances, project-sharing among engineering departments of several universities is being practised in order to handle the demanding and complex project goals in a certain time frame. In general, plenty of enthusiasm and much volunteer work by all parties involved are needed to bring such low-cost programme activities to maturity – an invaluable amount of professionalism is gained by all students in such programmes.

The advantages universities bring to spacecraft development can be summed in one word: failure. Student projects have the luxury of failure, something that workers in the professional space industry must avoid. In fact, failing and learning from failure are some of the most important parts of a student's education. Students in a university

setting a goal and approaching it with a variety of methods, solving problems, and learning from failure are the student's primary responsibility. The student's appreciation of the value of failure is a key to success. Small satellite projects are a good example of this.

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One of the most important parts of a student's education is the opportunity to learn from failure. Students in a university setting a goal and approaching it with a variety of methods, solving problems, and learning from failure are the student's primary responsibility. The student's appreciation of the value of failure is a key to success. Small satellite projects are a good example of this.

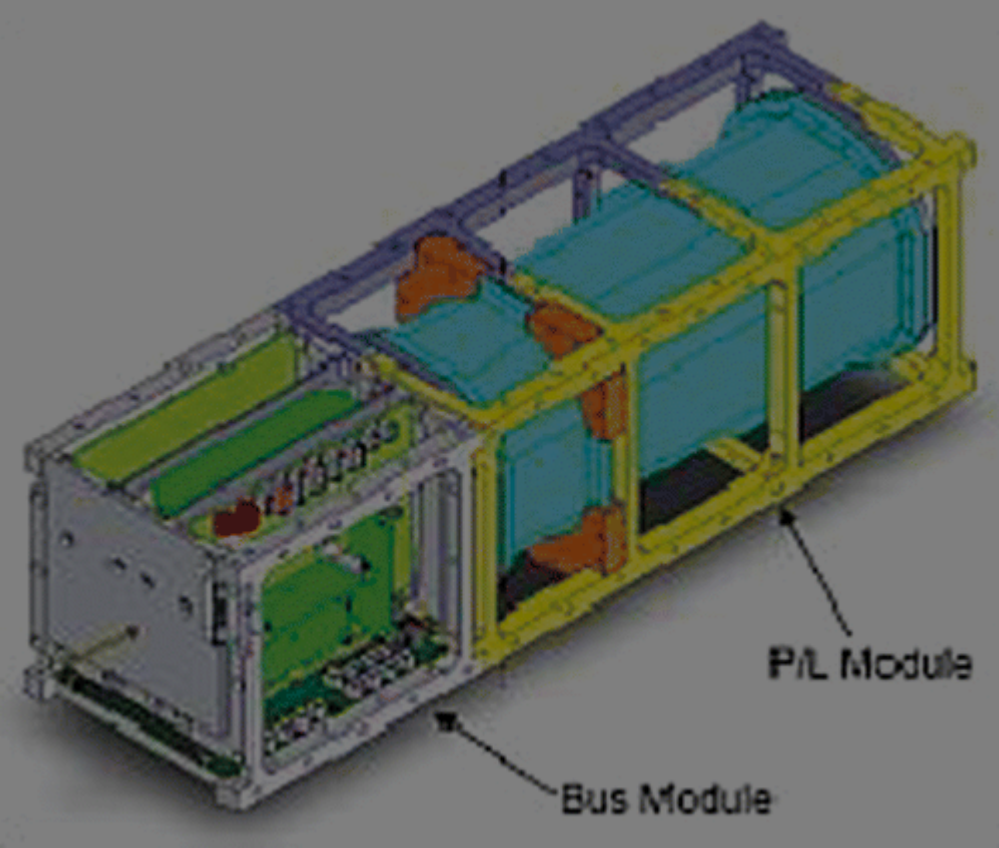
Table 14.1 shows the number of small satellite launches in the last 2.5 decades. The number of launches has increased significantly in this area.





biological cultures (bacteria, genetic and biological probes to detect gene expression), hence the label of GeneSat mission due to the biological payload.

Figure 7 The GeneSat-1 spacecraft (image credit: Stanford University).



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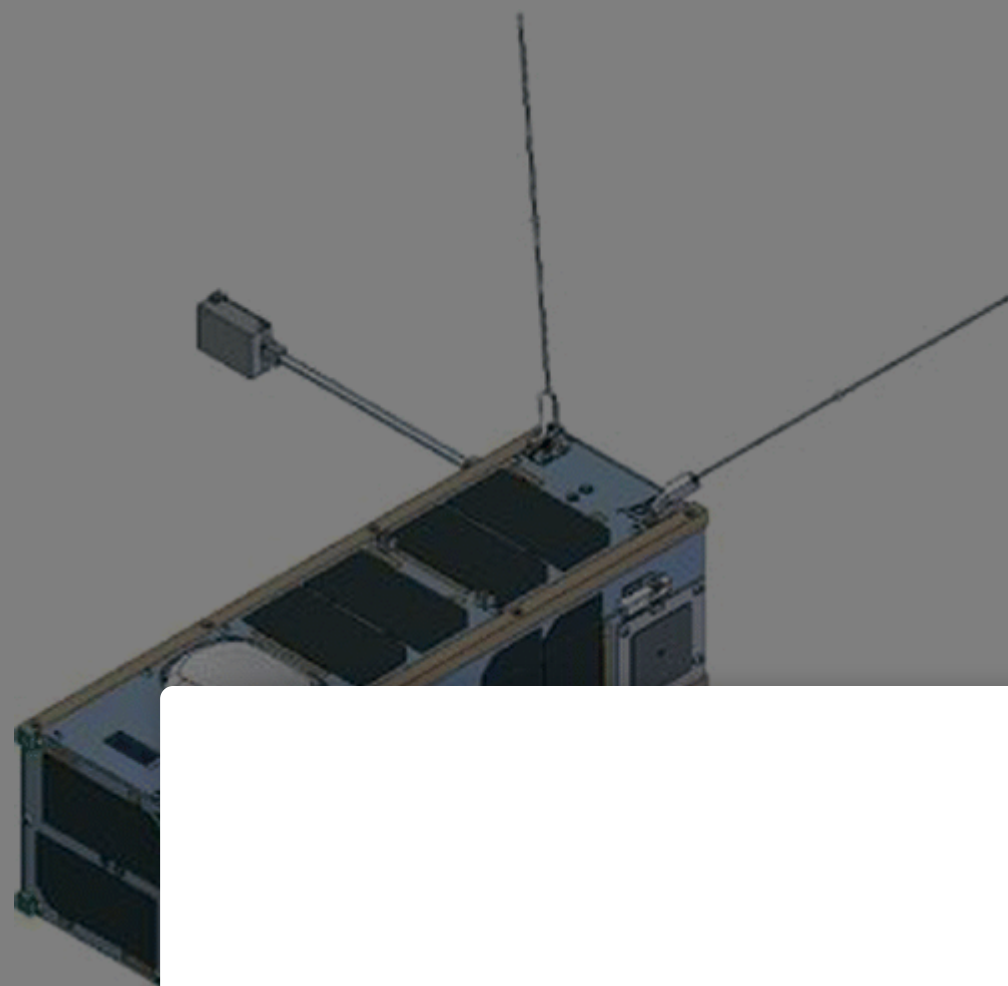
The entire mission was managed by the University of California, Santa Barbara (UCSB) Space Sciences Laboratory (SSL). The mission was launched on November 14, 2006, from the Wallops Island, Virginia, using a Minotaur I rocket. The spacecraft is currently operating in low Earth orbit (LEO) and is expected to remain in orbit for at least one year. After 96 days of operation, the mission was terminated on December 22, 2006. The mission was the first of its kind, as it was the first time a small satellite was launched on a Minotaur I rocket. The mission was a success, as it provided valuable data on the effects of space flight on biological systems. The mission was also a significant milestone for the UCSB Space Sciences Laboratory, as it was the first time the laboratory had launched a satellite. The mission was a testament to the laboratory's commitment to space research and its ability to develop and launch small satellites.

of about 4.6 kg. The mission was managed by the University of California, Santa Barbara (UCSB) Space Sciences Laboratory (SSL). The mission was launched on November 14, 2006, from the Wallops Island, Virginia, using a Minotaur I rocket. The spacecraft is currently operating in low Earth orbit (LEO) and is expected to remain in orbit for at least one year. After 96 days of operation, the mission was terminated on December 22, 2006. The mission was the first of its kind, as it was the first time a small satellite was launched on a Minotaur I rocket. The mission was a success, as it provided valuable data on the effects of space flight on biological systems. The mission was also a significant milestone for the UCSB Space Sciences Laboratory, as it was the first time the laboratory had launched a satellite. The mission was a testament to the laboratory's commitment to space research and its ability to develop and launch small satellites.

planned for 2008 (secondary launch on a PSLV vehicle of ISRO) (<http://www.utias-sfl.net/nanosatellites/CanX2/CanX2Index.html#>).

The standard ADCS (Attitude Determination and Control Subsystem) utilizes three magnetorquer coils. In addition, a momentum nanowheel reaction system provides a momentum-bias three-axis control system (maximum torque of 0.3 mN m and a maximum momentum storage of 10 mN m s).

Figure 8 Illustration of the triple-cube configuration of CanX-2 (image credit: UTIAS/SFL).



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On DST 8 the telescope aperture is 80 mm and is to be flown on a CubeSat (1 kg) in 2008. Imagery of 6 m spatial resolution on a FOV of up to 10 km (600 km orbit) is to be provided. The folded instrument size is 10 cm×10 cm×6 cm; the unfolded instrument size is 10 cm×10 cm×21 cm.

On DST 35 the telescope aperture is 350 mm and is to be flown on a microsatellite in 2010. The imagery resolution is 1.5 m in panchromatic mode and 6 m in multispectral mode on a swath of ~12 km. The folded instrument size is 40 cm×40 cm×25 cm; the unfolded size is 40 cm×40 cm×100 cm.

On DST 50 the telescope aperture is 500 mm and is to be flown on a microsatellite in 2012. The imagery resolution is 1 m in panchromatic mode and 4 m in multispectral mode on a swath of ~12 km. The folded instrument size is 60 cm×60 cm×30 cm; the unfolded size is 60 cm×60 cm×120 cm.

Figure 9 Artist's view of the DST deployment sequence (image credit: TUB/ILR, DST GmbH).

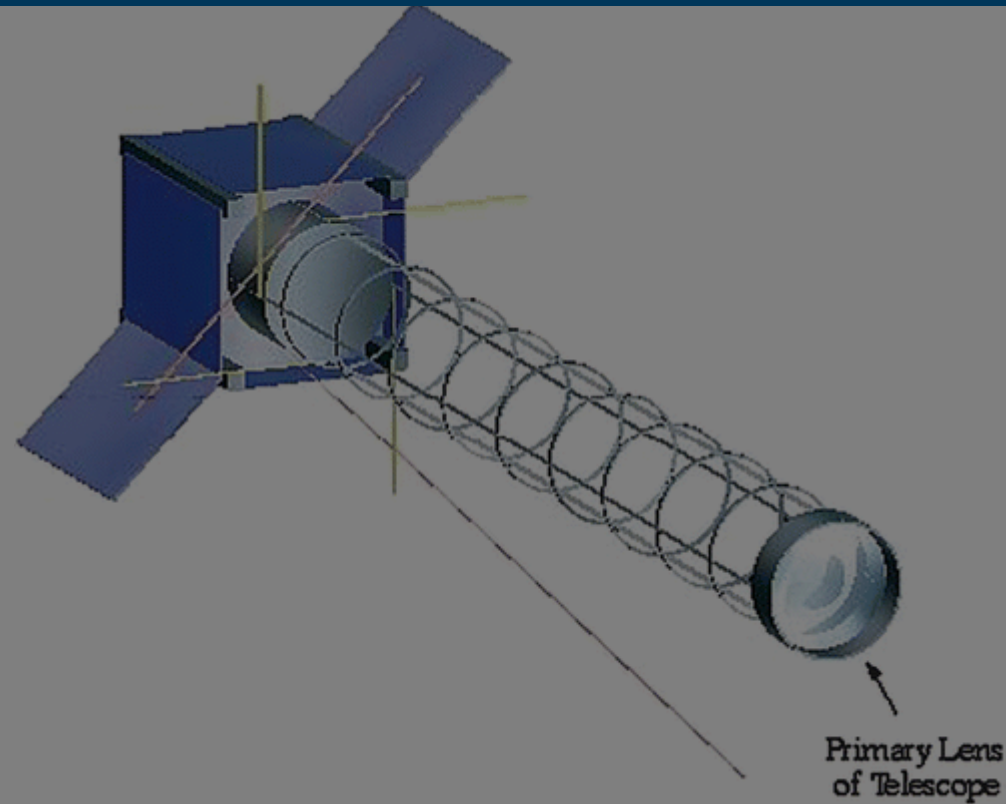


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PRISM (Pathfinder Research and Instrumentation Mission) is a small satellite mission from Japan (of the Japanese Aerospace Exploration Agency) designed for the 2008/9. The mission is a pathfinder mission for the Japanese Aerospace Exploration Agency (JAXA) mission to Tokyo (UT), Japan on imaging and low-cost instrument concepts for the period 2008/9. The mission is a pathfinder mission for the Japanese Aerospace Exploration Agency (JAXA) mission to Tokyo (UT), Japan on imaging and low-cost instrument concepts for the period 2008/9.





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The PRISM spacecraft bus structure is a cuboid of size  $18\text{ cm} \times 18\text{ cm} \times 26\text{ cm}$ . The extensible boom design has a double function – to stabilize the spacecraft (passively), and to function as a placeholder for the primary lens of the optics subsystem (telescope). The extensible boom is deployed (after separation with the launch vehicle) with a length of  $1.5\text{ m}$ . The distance between the lens and the spacecraft body is  $1.4\text{ m}$ . It also takes into account the thermal expansion of the boom under the influence of the solar radiation.

## 9.2 Construction

The Cuboid is made of polycarbonate with a thickness of  $10\text{ mm}$ .

The Cuboid is developed by Robert J. Twiggs. The framework is made of aluminum and is launched by the launch vehicle.



in San Luis Obispo, California (referred to as CalPoly) have combined efforts to develop a means of launching CubeSats. This involves all CubeSats featuring a standard form factor and sharing launches by using standard launch tubes, referred to as P-PODs (Poly Picosatellite Orbital Deployers) (Pranajaya et al. [2003](#)).

The first multiple CubeSat mission, involving half a dozen picosatellites as secondary payloads, took place on 30 June 2003 on a Rockot vehicle (built by the Khrunichev Space Center) of Eurockot (Eurockot Launch Services GmbH, Bremen, Germany) from Plesetsk, Russia. The CubeSat spacecraft were: XI (University of Tokyo), CUTE-I (Tokyo Institute of Technology), CanX-1 of UTIAS/SFL (University of Toronto Institute for Aerospace Studies/Space Flight Laboratory), AAUSat (Aalborg University of Denmark), DTUSat (Technical University of Denmark), QuakeSat (Stanford University, Stanford, California, USA).

The second multiple spacecraft launch, involving three CubeSats (UWE-1, XI-V and nCube-2), was released/deployed from SSETI-Express, a European student microsatellite, and itself a secondary payload on a multiple spacecraft mission. The launch of this spacecraft mission took place on 27 October 2005 (Cosmos-3 M launch vehicle of AKO Polyot from the Plesetsk Cosmodrome, Russia) involving the following spacecraft: TopSat of QinetiQ (UK), and China-DMC+4 (Beijing-1) of SSTL (UK) as primary payloads. The other secondary payloads on this multi-satellite flight were SSETI Express, nCube-5 (OHB, Bremen, Germany).

Figure 1



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Illinois), Sacred (University of Arizona), KUTESat (Kansas University), ICEcube-1, -2 (Cornell University), Rincon (University of Arizona), SEEDS (Nihon University), HAUSat-1 (Hankuk Aviation University), nCube-1 (Norsk Romsenter), Merope (Montana State University), AeroCube-1 (The Aerospace Corporation), PolySat-1, -2 (CalPoly) and Voyager (University of Hawaii).

Additional smallsats on the flight were: Belka (RKK Energia), 250 kg, the first remote sensing satellite of Belarus; Baumanets (NPO Mash), 80 kg; UniSat-4 (University of Rome, Italy), 12 kg; and PicPot (University of Torino, Italy), 3 kg. This launch failure represented a great setback and disappointment to all involved, in particular to the members of the 14 CubeSat projects. Years of work and effort from the many student satellite teams from around the world was lost in a single instant. The launch failure was due to a malfunctioning hydraulic drive unit in a combustion chamber on the booster's first stage. Unfortunately, occasional launch failures are simply part of spaceflight, in spite of careful launch preparations (David [2006](#)).

The fourth multiple-launch CubeSat mission from the territory of the former Soviet Union (today Russia and Kazakhstan) took place on 17 April 2007 from the Baikonur Cosmodrome, Kazakhstan, on a Dnepr launch vehicle (launch provider: ISC Kosmotras). The launch involved seven CubeSats as secondary payloads. The CubeSat launch had been arranged by CalPoly and included three CubeSat P-PODs (Poly-Picosatellite Orbital Deployer) and four CubeSats. The mission was named 'Russian CubeSat Mission 2007' and was the first Russian CubeSat mission. The mission was described in detail in the following link: <http://sp...ch-2.php>;

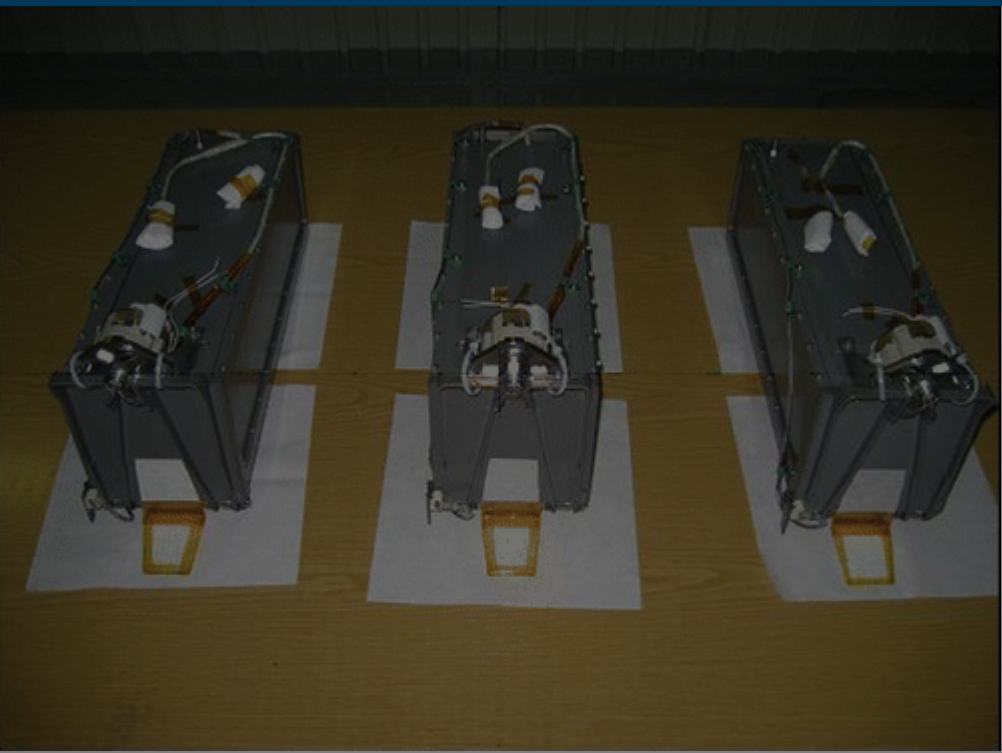
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Figure 1. ... 2007 (image credit: C ...)



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## 10. Current status and outlook in the small satellite service spectrum

Today, small satellites are changing the economics of space. These spacecraft embrace cutting edge technologies, such as miniaturized sensors, to perform meaningful tasks, such as Earth observation, as well as hyperspectral imaging, high-resolution imaging, and thermal stability.

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developed by SSTL.

TacSat-3 is a DoD (USA) technology demonstration minisatellite with a planned launch in 2008. It carries ARTEMIS (Advanced Responsive Tactically Effective Military Imaging Spectrometer), a hyperspectral imager of AFRL and the US Army. An equally important aspect of TacSat-3 represents a first implementation of a demonstration of emerging avionics and interface standards as well as of modular spacecraft bus standards.

The EnMAP (Environmental Mapping and Analysis Program) mission of DLR is a small satellite hyperspectral mission (850 kg) under development with a planned launch in 2010.

ZASat-003 (South African Satellite-003) of SunSpace Ltd employs a multi-sensor imager for hyperspectral imagery in the region of 400–2350 nm. A launch of this minisatellite is expected in 2010.

HERO (Hyperspectral Environment and Resource Observer) is a CSA (Canadian Space Agency) minisatellite mission with a planned launch in 2010 (with 210 spectral bands in the very near and shortwave infrared).

In the early 21st century, the spectrum of microsatellite services is by all means as impressive as that of their bigger brother satellites, but at considerably reduced costs. Overall, microsatellites have experienced an impressive evolution from flying toys or gadgets to open technology platforms for a wide range of applications. This has enabled agencies as well as the private sector to develop and launch microsatellite programs at much lower budgets (Lew et al., 2008).

In their early days, microsatellites were often used for technology demonstration purposes. However, the technology has matured to the point where it is now possible to create microsatellites that are as sophisticated as their larger counterparts. This has led to a new era of microsatellite development, where the focus is on creating affordable, high-performance microsatellites that can be used for a wide range of applications. The vision is to build a fleet of microsatellites that can be used for a wide range of applications, from Earth observation to space exploration.



## Related Research Data

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Source: Acta Astronautica

### A Low-Cost Femtosatellite to Enable Distributed Space Missions

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