by Captain P. V. H. WEEMS, U.S. Navy

Extracts from a lecture prepared for the Astronautics Seminar, Southampton, 12-19 July 1961

We restrict this study to cislunar navigation and assume that the astronaut will have sufficient power to change the course and altitude of his craft in space by making minor adjustments in speed.

We do not here consider biological and other problems outside the field of actual space navigation. Minimum equipment will be considered, since up to 1 000 pounds of fuel will be required to orbit a payload of one pound. If or when additional aids are needed, these inventions will doubtless be mothered by necessity and experience.

Since re-entry and atmospheric friction pose special problems, we restrict our study to areas outside about 500 miles from the earth's surface. Unfortunately, we do not have generally accepted units for speed, force or distance, but we do have accurate and generally accepted time units. Since the guild of air navigators will provide the principal source for space navigators, and since air navigators are required to use the nautical mile, we select it and the knot as the most suitable units for distance and speed. It is unfortunate that the natural unit of one minute of arc on the earth's surface is not exactly 6 000 feet, for convenient use with both the sexagesimal and decimal systems.

As stated by Dr. G. W. LITTLEHALES, author of the marine navigation tables, H. O. 203, "The architect does not press his own bricks, but uses the material at hand for the construction of his edifice". In this sense we use the building blocks provided us by NEWTON, KEPLER, and the many unnamed astronomers and mathematicians who provide us with not only suitable *material*, but also remarkably efficient *tools* — even ready-to-use *lighthouses* in space.

We could contribute little to the monumental work of astronomers, but we are encouraged by history to make free use of the material they provide us. For example, when the astronomer first tabulated the declination of the sun, the early navigators could easily find, and would " run down their latitude " and accomplish practical navigation with simple equipment, and with little knowledge of longitude which involved time. When in about 1734 the marine sextant and the chronometer were invented, navigation was revolutionized and brilliant navigators soon drew handsome dividends from bank deposits of celestial data made by astronomers in past centuries.

With these lessons before us, we propose to investigate what may be done with an accurate timepiece, a marine sextant or its equivalent, and suitable star charts. We propose to make principal use of the remarkable combination "scanner-computer" sitting on the shoulders of every intelligent astronaut. The necessary base for cislunar navigation is the earth itself. Projected plans for near-earth navigation involve the use of computers, surface detection systems, and electro-magnetic communication and data links. These are very complex systems which involve either two or three coordinate transformations to obtain knowledge of position or velocity. They are not 100 % reliable.

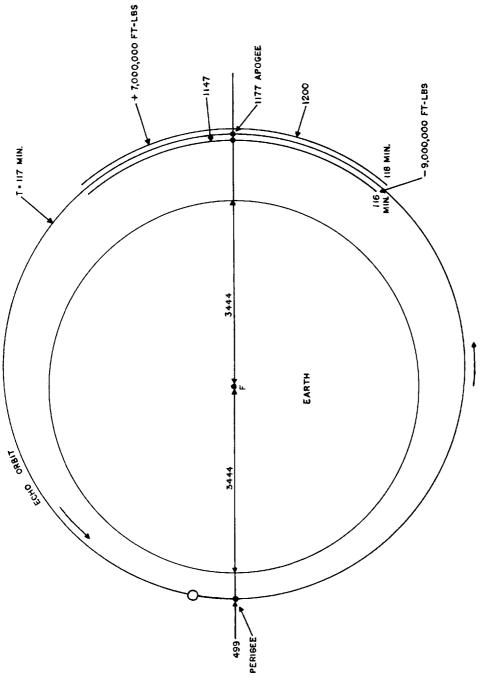
Assuming that we have perfect equipment, what would it do? Suppose we call for the display of the observer's geographical position in terms of latitude and longitude, and of his altitude in nautical miles above this position. If our ground-support system gives us the *planned* path of our vehicle in the form of a special ephemeris, and our equipment displays the *actual* path of the observer continuously, our sole navigation problem would be to have the displayed data follow the pre-computed data. Unfortunately, space navigation is not so simple. In the first place, it takes a lot of doing to produce such a fool-proof and failure-proof system. In any case, it would add to the cost and weight of the space vehicle. Therefore, we should first try the simplest and minimum equipment, and then add items when their need is determined.

The observer's vertical coincides with his line of sight to the earth's center. The position of the earth's center relative to star positions as viewed by the astronaut gives directly the observer's nadir which, when turned 180°, gives his geographical position in terms of sidereal hour angle and declination. For any instant of time this position may be converted quite simply to a position in terms of latitude and longitude. The distance from the observer to his geographical position may be found stadimetrically, by using the earth's diameter as a baseline. The latitude, longitude, and altitude (or distance) thus determined gives the three-dimension position required by the astronaut.

Position finding in space is only part of the space navigator's problem. He must also be able to predict future positions — to run his DR. This means that he must keep his space vehicle on its proper schedule as shown by its ephemeris. The space navigator cannot "see" his own position relative to that of the earth's center, but he can see the position of the earth's center relative to himself — which is the same thing.

To summarize this, the astronaut is provided with an ephemeris of the earth's position relative to the observer, and also with a means for finding his distance from his geographical position. He then so directs or navigates his craft as to cause the earth to follow its scheduled path. When this procedure is followed, the space navigator is doing practical navigation.

We shall now consider a specific satellite, *Echo*, which is a plastic bag 100 feet in diameter, weighing 166 pounds. The U.S. Naval Weapons Laboratory, Dahlgren, Virginia, computed the orbit of satellite Echo at five minute intervals for 5 January 1961 (see figs. 1 and 6).





For any known or scheduled satellite path, ground support facilities can supply the astronaut with the *earth's apparent path* relative to the satellite, by shifting the latter's celestial coordinates, sidereal hour angle and declination  $180^{\circ}$ . This concept assumes the observer to be at the center of the universe — a reasonable assumption so long as the astronaut remains in the solar system, as is demonstrated in fig. 2. Since the solar system itself may be considered to be a point in the universe, our assumed restriction in range to cislunar navigation should cause no appreciable errors of position *relative to stars*. At the same time the relatively short distance from a moving satellite to the earth causes the latter's *apparent* position to change rapidly, so that the satellite's position, relative to the earth, is sharply defined in the star field.

While we have considered and illustrated in fig. 6 the position of the earth relative to a satellite as the preferred technique, it is possible to use the direct tabulation of the satellite's position *relative* to the earth's center, as we now do with the moon, sun, planets and stars, as shown in the Air Almanac (originally designed by the author in 1933). To use the satellite ephemeris direct, it is necessary for the observer to fix the position of the satellite relative to zenithal stars. Figure 3 illustrates how this may be done. In fact, this method has the advantage that some reference stars are not obscured by the earth, but it requires the use of a two-way telescope, with its added weight.

Heretofore, to judge by published material on the subject, it was generally assumed that the astronaut must either have the ability to work intricate problems of celestial mechanics, or else have substitute electronic equipment to solve these problems automatically. Isn't this about the same as asking the airman to compute the sun's ephemeris ?

Why not have ground support facilities double for "space observatories" and supply precomputed ephemerides of the earth and of the moon relative to any desired satellite paths? If the astronaut is supplied with such precomputed data, and this data proves to be correct, his duties as navigator will consist largely of verifying the earth's position as it seems to move through the heavens like a large Sputnik, while in fact the observer on the satellite is moving in his own self-ordained path in space.

In practice, the satellite will not indefinitely follow its precomputed path. Errors of computation will be experienced, especially when extrapolated far into the future. On occasions the astronaut will change his intended destination. Unless he has the ability to make such changes, he

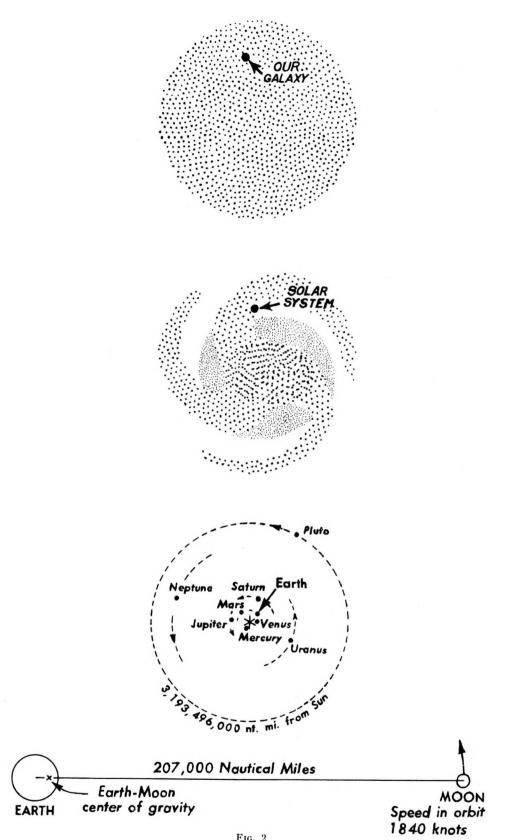
FIG. 2. — Relative distances in space.

Note : Earth and Moon shown at double size in proportion to distance.

<sup>(1)</sup> The Universe. — Observable distance from our galaxy in any direction about 4 billion light years.

<sup>(2)</sup> Our galaxy (the Milky Way System). — Estimated as 80 000 light years in diameter; Sun is approximately 26 000 light years from center.

<sup>(3)</sup> Solar system. — Sun moving in space at approximately 420 000 knots. Orbit of Pluto about 11 light hours in diameter. Distance from Sun to Earth about 8 light minutes. Earth moving around Sun at 58 000 knots.



F1G. 2

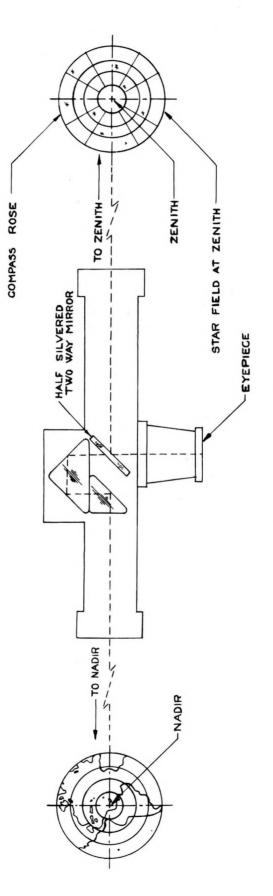


Fig. 3. — Zenith viewing telescope.

is not navigating in the full sense of being able to *direct* his craft. The ability to make considerable changes in the orbital plane, or in the elliptical orbit within its plane, will for the present be severely restricted. Present space power limitations might be compared with a battleship powered with an outboard motor. However, the prediction is made that power engineers will keep abreast of progress made in the fields of biology and navigation.

Earth Diameter	Distance Nautical Miles	Moon Diameter
121°39.2′	500	81°25.3′
	1 000	57 53.2
101 35.0		
88 17.2		45 14.9
78 27.8	2 000	37 13.8
70 47.6	2 500	31 39.6
64 35.4	3 000	27 33.3
59 26.7	3 500	24 23.9
55 05.7	4 000	21 53.8
51 21.8	4 500	19 51.7
48 07.2	$5 \ 000$	18 10.4
42 45.3	6 000	15 32.2
35 00.7	8 000	12 02.7
29 40.3	10 000	9 50.2
25 45.4	12 000	8 18.8
22 45.6	14 000	7 11.9
18 55.1	17 500	5 49.8
16 53.1	20 000	5 08.0
13 54.0	$\bar{25}$ $000$	4 08.6
11 48.8	30 000	3 28.4
9 05.3	40 000	2 37.5
7 23.1	50 000	2 06.6
6 13.2	60 000	1 45.8
5 22.3	70 000	1 30.9
4 43.7	80 000	1 19.7
4 13.3	90 000	1 10.9
3 48.8	100 000	1 03.9
3 28.6	110 000	
3 11.7	120 000	0 53.3
2 57.3	130 000	0 49.2
2 45.0	140 000	0 49.2
$     2  43.0 \\     2  34.2 $	140 000	0 43.7
$     \begin{array}{c}       2 & 34.2 \\       2 & 24.8     \end{array} $		
	160 000	
2 16.4	170 000	0 37.7
2 09.0	180 000	0 35.6
2 02.3	190 000	0 33.8
1 56.3	200 000	0 32.1
1 50.9	210 000	0 30.6
1 45.9	220 000	0 29.2
1 41.4	230 000	0 27.9

TABLE S-1

FIG. 4. - Table S-1, stadimetric distances from the Sun and from the Moon.

Figure 4 shows the angle subtended by the earth's diameter, and by the moon's diameter for various distances in the earth-moon system. Values from this table are tabulated as the last column of fig. 5. A light, accurate marine sextant, with perhaps special features added, should provide a

# INTERNATIONAL HYDROGRAPHIC REVIEW

suitable means of finding the stadimetric distances, although several other methods are available, such as a variable iris telescope or a series of concentric circles on a transparent sheet with the eye at the proper focal point.

Date	Тіме	SHA	DECL.	RANGE
DATE	Hr Min	Deg Min	N/S Deg Min	MILES
January 1961	00 00	190 43	0 08 45	0771
	00 05	178 53	0 20 20	0871
	00 10	165 50	0 30 34	0976
	00 15	150 - 43	0 38 55	1077
	00 20	132 59	0 44 40	1170
	00 25	113 17	0 47 11	1247
•	00 30	093 32	0 46 13	1306
	00 35	075 48	0 42 12	1343
	00 40	060 53	0 35 52	1356
	00 45	048 25	0 28 01	1346
	00 50	037 40	0 19 06	1312
	00 55	027 52	0 09 28	1255
1	01 00	018 24	1 00 41	1180
	01 05	008 34	1 11 08	1089
1	01 10	357 34	1 21 38	0988
	01 15	344 19	1 31 40	0884
	01 20	327 22	1 40 21	0783
	01 25	305 33	1 46 04	0694
1	01 30	280 10	1 46 55	0626
	01 35	255 55	1 42 11	0585
	01 40	236 08	1 33 06	0576
	01  45	220 32	1 21 34	0599
	01 50	207 35	1 09 03	0653
	01 55	195 51	1 03 34	0731
	02  00	184 16	0 15 33	0826
	02  05	171 50	0 26 26	0930
	02 10	157 40	0 35 40	1034
	02 15	141 03	0 42 36	1131
	02 20	121 59	0 46 33	1215

FIG. 5. — Sample page of second Echo Ephemeris.

To summarize :

- 1) the ephemeris gives the earth's scheduled positions;
- 2) the observer *sees* his geographical position and measures his altitude, or distance from geographical position;
- 3) the astronaut *navigates* by comparing 1) and 2).

# PROPOSED SPACE ALMANAC

Prior to 1929, the Nautical Almanac tabulated the positions of heavenly bodies, except the sun, in terms of right ascension and declination. For the sun, the right ascension of mean sun, equation of time, and declination were tabulated. The Air Almanac gives the Greenwich hour angle and declination for all bodies except the stars, and also the Greenwich hour angle of the first point of Aries, and the sidereal hour angle and declination for selected navigation stars.

Since the astronaut will be primarily interested in the earth's apparent position *relative* to *himself*, and since this may be determined by noting visually the earth's position relative to known stars, it is proposed that the Space Almanac give, for selected satellite orbits, the positions of the earth's center in terms of sidercal hour angle and declination, and also give altitude, or distance in nautical miles from the observer's geographical position, or sub-satellite position. For space navigation near the earth, and for re-entry, the Greenwich hour angle of Aries will be needed, since it may be combined with sidercal hour angle of any point for any selected instant to find the longitude of the observer's geographical position.

The first faltering space penetration will be near the earth. The astronaut should therefore, at this early stage, be supplied with tabulated selected low orbits calculated to fit his needs. At low orbits satellite velocities and kinetic energy are relatively high. The total energy of a satellite is the sum of its kinetic and potential energy. The higher the orbit, the greater the energy required to boost the satellite to that orbit.

Heretofore, it has been customary to compute by celestial mechanics the selected satellite orbits. This is possible for un-manned satellites, since the intricate calculation may be done at leisure on the ground, and with considerable assistance from elaborate electronic computers. It will not be feasible, and fortunately it is not necessary, for the space navigator to do complicated problems in celestial mechanics. To require the astronaut to compute his position in space would be comparable to having the mariner navigate without the Nautical Almanac, or the aeronaut navigate without the Air Almanac. We must supply the astronaut with a *Space Almanac*.

With the support of the U.S. Naval Weapons Laboratory at Dahlgren, Virginia, and of the Department of Science at the U.S. Naval Academy, we have attempted to provide a space navigator for Echo satellite with usable data which we hope will grow up to be a Space Almanac.

After a somewhat involved first attempt, our second try is shown in fig. 5 in more readable form; it gives, for 5 January 1961 at five minute intervals, the earth's sidereal hour angle and declination as seen from Echo, together with the distance from Echo to its geographical position. Declination has the numerical value of the latitude, and sidereal hour angle may be combined with the Greenwich hour angle of Aries to find longitude. Normally the space navigator would not require the longitude but would use the sidereal hour angle of the earth's center.

When, in 1929, we shifted from right ascension to Greenwich hour angle to simplify celestial navigation, we stressed the fact that in reality we projected the celestial triangle to the earth and used the terrestrial triangle — a convenience to the earth-bound navigator. However, when the astronaut goes into space he is more interested in celestial positions and will ignore the earth's rotation which determines longitude. Therefore, we might say that the *Space Almanac* will shift terrestrial coordinates back to celestial coordinates. We might even go further in this line of reasoning and say that once the astronaut is clear of the earth's atmosphere, and not involved in re-entry problems, his navigation will be 100 % celestial, in the sense that he will not have such mundane aids to navigation as lighthouses, radio beams, or railroads. FROM ECHO I

### **5 JANUARY 1961**

			Earth			Moon		
Log	GMT	SHA	DEC	RANGE	SHA	Dec	RANGE	v
	hm	o ,	0 /					
	0 00	190 43	N08 45	669				
	05	178 53	N20 20	756			[	
	10	165 50	N30 34	847	j		}	
	15	150 43	N38 55	935				
	20	132 59	N44 40	1015				
	25	113 17	N47 11	1082				
	30	93 32	N46 13	1134		ļ	ļ	
	35	75 48	N42 12	1166				
	40	60 53	N35 52	1177				
	45	$48 \ 25$	N28 01	1168				
	50	37 40	N19 06	1139		i		
	55	27 52	N09 28	1089				
	1 00	18 24	S00 41	1024				
	05	8 34	S11 08	945		Í		
	10	357 34	S21 38	857				
	15	344 19	<b>S31 40</b>	767		[		
	20	$327 \ 22$	S40 21	679				
	25	$305 \ 33$	S46 04	602				
	30	$280 \ 10$	S46 55	543				
	35	255 55	S42 11	507				
	40	236 08	S33 06	500				
	45	220 32	S21 34	520				
	50	207 35	S09 03	567				
	55	195 51	S03 34	634			[	
	$2 \ 00$	184 16	N15 33	717	ļ		]	

a 4283.5 miles T 117.18 min

e 0.07923

This is the proposed layout for the Space Almanac; with two hours of the Earth ephemeris included. The moon ephemeris and velocity (V) to be inserted. Perigee, apogee and other needed data to be put in the Space Log column.

FIG. 6. — Proposed page layout for Space Almanac.

The first Space Almanac will find more use by earth-bound people than by astronauts in orbit. We therefore propose that our first published Space Almanac cater for the needs of teachers and students. One way to help them will be to supplement the ephemeris illustrated in fig. 5 with sufficient data to give the orbital parameters such as velocity, eccentricity, inclination, perigee, apogee, and period.

This layout, while prepared for the ultimate use of the space navigator, caters for the needs of the instructor and of students one or two generations ahead of the astronaut himself. This is based on the assumption that several years will be required to put any considerable numbers of space men in orbit. The plan is to assemble needed data such as accepted constants and to give for selected orbits sufficient data for use in the classroom as well as in space.

A proposed page layout for the Space Almanac is shown in fig. 6. The added data in each line are in reality answers to problems which may be solved by the basic tabulated data and constants. To stress this use of the proposed almanac, we shall include here some computations which are summarized in fig. 7.

 $\mathbf{62}$ 

TELLITE	ry 1961
SAT	nuar
<b>ECHO</b>	5 Ja

Area swept per unit time	8 100 8 160 8 150
Area p( unit	81 81 81 81
Velocity at apogee	12 800 kt 12 700 kt 12 600 kt
Velocity at perigee	15 000 kt 14 900 kt 14 800 kt
Apogee	1 147 1 177 1 200
Perigee	475 499 520
Change in energy	$egin{array}{c}9  imes 10^{\circ} \ 0 \ +7  imes 10^{\circ} \end{array}$
Total energy U	$\begin{array}{c c} -1.405 \times 10^{\circ} & -9 \times 10^{\circ} \\ -1.396 \times 10^{\circ} & 0 \\ -1.389 \times 10^{\circ} & +7 \times 10^{\circ} \end{array}$
ed Semi-major Radius vector axis Min/Max	3 919/4 591 3 943/4 621 3 964/4 644
Semi-major axis a	4 255 4 282 4 304
Assumed period T	116 117 118

In the above table, all distances are in nautical miles, speeds in knots, periods in minutes, other times are in seconds, and energies in foot-pounds. The following constant values were used :

Mass of Earth =  $5.976 \times 10^{ar}$  gm Satellite mass = 166 lbs =  $7.54 \times 10^{4}$ Gravitational Constant =  $6.670 \times 10^{-5}$  cm<sup>3</sup>/gm sec<sup>2</sup> ນ ຮູດ

The following orbital parameters were the same for all assumed periods :

Eccentricity = 0.0792Inclination  $= 47^{\circ}16'$ ~. م

Fig. 7. — Echo satellite tabulated data, 5 January 1961.

Commander Frank ANDREWS, Head of the Science Department, U.S. Naval Academy, undertook to work some elementary problems based on the Echo satellite ephemeris. The following remarks are based largely on the results of this work.

### **PROBLEM I**

To define all the parameters of a satellite orbit, given that the satellite has a mass, M = 166 pounds, and an orbital period P = 117 minutes. Other constants which will be used are :

Mass of earth .....  $M_e = 5.98 \times 10^{24}$  kilograms Universal G constant .....  $\gamma = 6.67 \times 10^{-8}$  cm<sup>3</sup> gm<sup>-1</sup> sec<sup>-2</sup>.

1. Calculate semi-major axis a for P = 117

$${
m P}=2\,\pi a\,\sqrt{rac{a}{\gamma\,{
m M}_e}}$$

Solving for a, we get :  $a = 4\ 282$  statute miles.

2. Calculate a for P = 118, p = 116

$$\frac{117}{118} = \left(\frac{4282}{a_{118}}\right)^{3/2} \qquad a_{118} = \left(\frac{118}{117}\right)^{2/3} \times 4282 = 4303 \text{ miles}$$
$$\frac{117}{116} = \left(\frac{4282}{a_{116}}\right)^{3/2} \qquad a_{116} = \left(\frac{116}{117}\right)^{2/3} \times 4282 = 4255 \text{ miles}$$

 Calculate e of Echo given that perigee = 499 miles, apogee = 1 177 miles. See fig. 7.

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 1177 & & 499 \\ 3444 & & & 3444 \\ + & 4621 & = R_{\max} & & + & 3943 & = R_{\min} \\ a & = & \frac{R_{\max} + R_{\min}}{2} & = 4282 \\ c & = & \frac{4621}{-4282} \\ \hline & & - & \frac{4282}{-339} \\ e & = & \frac{c}{a} & = & \frac{339}{4282} & = 0.0792 \ . \end{array}$$

4. Calculate total energy of each orbit

 $U = -\frac{\gamma m M}{2 a}$   $U = -13.96 \times 10^{8} \text{ ft-lbs of energy}$   $U_{116} \cdot a_{116} = U_{117} \cdot a_{117} = U_{118} \cdot a_{118}$   $4255 \ U_{116} = (4282) \ (1396) = 4304 \ U_{118}$   $U_{118} = -1.389 \times 10^{9} \text{ ft-lbs}$  $U_{116} = 1.405 \times 10^{9} \text{ ft-lbs}.$  5. Calculate area swept through per unit time

$$\mathbf{H}_{117} \cdot \mathbf{P} = \pi \, a^2 \sqrt{1 - e^2}$$

P = period, H = rate of sweeping area, <math>e = eccentricity. (Note : Energy of each orbit is determined by one parameter only, i.e., a, the semi-major axis.)

$$H = \frac{\pi \cdot (4282)^2 \sqrt{1 - (0.08)^2}}{117 \text{ min. 60 seconds}}$$
$$H_{117} = 8\ 160 \text{ sq. miles/sec}$$
$$\frac{H_{118} \cdot 118}{4990} = \frac{H_{117} \cdot 117}{4920}$$
$$H_{118} = 8160 \cdot \frac{117}{118} \cdot \frac{4304}{4282} = 8150$$
$$H_{116} = 8160 \cdot \frac{117}{116} \cdot \frac{4255}{4282} = 8180$$

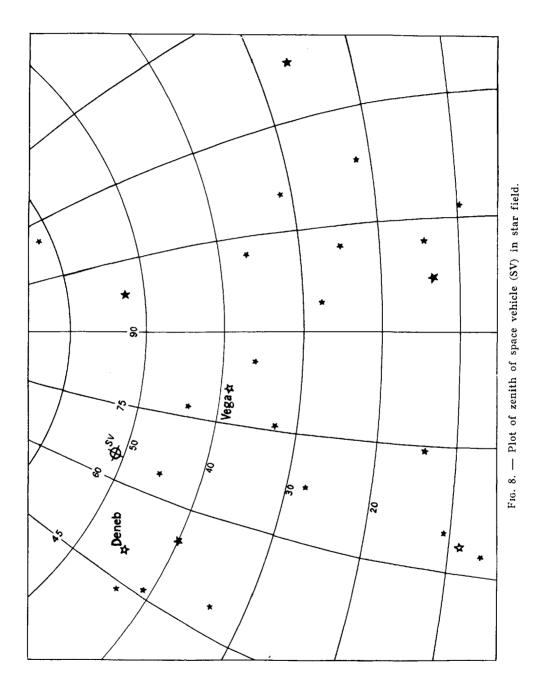
6. Calculate perigee for  $0_{118}$  and  $O_{116}$ , assuming e = .079 for all  $C_{118} = (0.079)$  (4 304) = 340

-	$ \begin{array}{r}     4304 \\     - 340 \\     \overline{3964} \\     - 3444 \\     \overline{520} \end{array} $	R earth perigee	R <sub>max</sub> =		R earth apogee
$C_{116} = (0.079)$ (4	(255) =	336			
$R_{min} =$	4255 336		$R_{max} =$	$\begin{array}{r}4255\\+&336\end{array}$	
less R <sub>earth</sub> -	3919 3444		· less R <sub>earth</sub>	4591 	
	475	perigee		1147	apogee

7. Calculate velocity at apogee

$$H = \frac{1}{2} R^2 \frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} R \cdot V$$
$$V_{117} = \frac{2(8160)}{R_a} = \frac{2(8160)}{1177 + 3444} = \frac{16\ 320}{4621} = 3.53\ \text{nautical miles/sec.}$$

These and other calculations show values that are readily supplied in the ephemeris by the computing machine. Except for instruction, and to provide the astronaut a more complete understanding of the Space Almanac, the space navigator would not find it necessary, nor would it be feasible, for him, to make these detailed calculations. We should provide the space navigator with a suitable Space Almanac which includes short cuts



such as properly designed nomograms as aids for accomplishing efficient space navigation.

### THREE DIMENSION SPACE FIX

*Example*: The space navigator of a space vehicle in orbit 12 July 1961 observes the center of the earth with the type of telescope shown in fig. 3, and at the same time estimates by eye by referring to a star chart of the area that the Zenith cross-wire is at declination  $51 \,^{\circ}$ N, and at a sidereal hour angle of  $65^{\circ}$ . This is in the northern part of the constellation Cygnus, in the area between Deneb and Vega. At the same time he measures the diameter of the earth to be  $21^{\circ} \, 30'.2$ .

*Required*: The space vehicle's position in terms of the latitude and longitude of its geographic position, and of the distance vertically above it.

*Explanation*: From the Air Almanac the star positions are found to be :

Deneb. -- Declination 45° 09' N, Sidereal Hour Angle 49° 58'.

Vega. — Declination 38° 45' N, Sidereal Hour Angle 81° 05'.

Plot these positions and the relative position of the space vehicle's zenith on a chart to suitable scale (fig. 8). This gives the geographical position of the observer to be at latitude  $51^{\circ}$  N, and at sidereal hour angle of  $65^{\circ}$ . Had the Greenwich Mean Time of observation been 0h 26m 55s on 12 July 1961, the Greenwich Hour Angle of Aries would have been, for that instant,  $06^{\circ}$  45' W, which, added to the sidereal hour of the space vehicle ( $65^{\circ}$  00') would place the space vehicle in longitude  $1^{\circ}$  24' W.

The Air Almanac gives for each day the Greenwich Hour Angle of Aries (GHA  $\gamma$ ) at ten minute intervals. Since the annual three-volume Air Almanac totals about 900 pages and since GHA  $\gamma$  and a few pages of star positions from the almanac will fill the principle needs of the astronaut, a separate annual sheet may be used to find GHA  $\gamma$  and replace the Air Almanac. This condensation is possible due to the fact that the GHA  $\gamma$ may be given for 0h each day and the correction for elapsed time may be carried through 24 hours. Figures 9 and 10 give the GHA  $\gamma$ , or Greenwich Sidereal Time, for the entire year.

From table S1, for  $21^{\circ} 30'.2$ , the distance to the geographical position from the space vehicle is found to be 15 000 nautical miles. Therefore, the space vehicle's position is : 15 000 nautical miles vertically above latitude  $51^{\circ}$  N, longitude  $1^{\circ} 24'$  W.

### SOLUTION

# GMT 0h 26m 55s on 12 July 1961

GHA for 0 h ........289° 39' taken from table shown in fig. 10Corr for 0 h 26 m ...6° 31' taken from table shown in fig. 11Corr for 55 s ......0° 14'

GREENWICH HOUR ANGLE OF ARIES OR GREENWICH SIDEREAL TIME (EXPRESSED IN ARC) OF O HIS G. M. T.

# **CALENDAR YEAR 1961**

	34583	383333	555573	*****	19 118 119	13 13 13 13	11
8		422228	88228	882664	88228	\$2868	8
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				00000	54+60 5		-
÷	- 88288	86888	288228	8644	*****	446888	
Ner	• \$4444	<b>ま</b> おおとぬ	& 8 2 2 2 S S	<b>5</b> 555585	88288	423223	
	- 222222	84885	28085	515545	88212	56898	8
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Fig. 9. — Greenwich hour angle of Aries for 0h each day, 1961.

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CORRECTION TO BE ADDED TO TABULATED GREENWICH SIDEREAL TIME FOR ELAPSED GREENWICH MEAN TIME

GHA for 0h 26m 55s	296° 24'
SHA of Zenith	65° 00′
Longitude	1° 24' W (360° subtracted)
Latitude (declination).	51° 00' N

A more direct method, but using the same principle, would be for the observer to view the earth and star field through a transparent star halfglobe with the eye at its center, and with a grid of meridians and parallels projected against the earth and sky. The globe is oriented by placing any two stars on the globe over the corresponding stars in the sky. In this position the observer notes the position of the nadir against the grid. Since the nadir is 180° from the zenith, the globe is marked to show the correct latitude and sidereal hour angle, from which longitude may be found as previously explained.

For greater accuracy, photograph the earth and star field with a polaroid camera and superpose the film on a star chart printed on a transparent sheet at the same scale as the photograph, then scale the declination and sidereal hour angle of the observed nadir, and change this position 180° to get the observer's geographical position. Proceed as explained heretofore to get the longitude of the observer.

The local vertical, determined by the direct viewing of the earth's center, may be used to control the attitude of the space vehicle. This attitude control could of course be made relative to the line of sight to any fixed star, but it appears more logical and more useful to fix the space vehicle's attitude relative to the earth itself.