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ICS 49.140

Entwurf

Einsprüche bis 2021-03-08
Vorgesehen als Ersatz für
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**Raumfahrttechnik –
Raumfahrtumweltbedingungen;
Englische Fassung prEN 16603-10-04:2020**

Space engineering –
Space environment;
English version prEN 16603-10-04:2020

Ingénierie spatiale –
Environnement spatial;
Version anglaise prEN 16603-10-04:2020

Anwendungswarnvermerk

Dieser Norm-Entwurf mit Erscheinungsdatum 2021-01-08 wird der Öffentlichkeit zur Prüfung und Stellungnahme vorgelegt.

Weil die beabsichtigte Norm von der vorliegenden Fassung abweichen kann, ist die Anwendung dieses Entwurfs besonders zu vereinbaren.

Stellungnahmen werden erbeten

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Nationales Vorwort

Dieses Dokument (prEN 16603-10-04:2020) wurde vom Technischen Komitee CEN-CENELEC/JTC 5 „Raumfahrt“ erarbeitet, dessen Sekretariat von DIN (Deutschland) gehalten wird.

Das zuständige deutsche Normungsgremium ist der Arbeitsausschuss NA 131-06-02 AA „Interoperabilität von Informations-, Kommunikations- und Navigationssystemen“ im DIN-Normenausschuss Luft- und Raumfahrt (NL).

Dieses Dokument (prEN 16603-10-04:2020) basiert auf ECSS-E-ST-10-04C Rev.1.

Dieses Dokument wird DIN EN 16603-10-04:2015-05 ersetzen.

Dieses Dokument enthält unter Berücksichtigung des DIN-Präsidialbeschlusses 1/2004 nur die englische Originalfassung von prEN 16603-10-04:2020.

Dieses Dokument wurde speziell zur Behandlung von Raumfahrtssystemen erarbeitet und hat daher Vorrang vor jeglicher Europäischen Norm, die denselben Anwendungsbereich hat, jedoch über einen größeren Geltungsbereich (z. B. Luft- und Raumfahrt) verfügt.

Aktuelle Informationen zu diesem Dokument können über die Internetseiten von DIN (www.din.de) durch eine Suche nach der Dokumentennummer aufgerufen werden.

Änderungen

Gegenüber DIN EN 16603-10-04:2015-05 wurden folgende Änderungen vorgenommen:

- a) Aktualisierung der Begriffe und Abkürzungen in Abschnitt 3;
- b) Hinzufügung des neuen Abschnitts B.9 „MOBE-DIC“ in Anhang B;
- c) Hinzufügung des neuen Abschnitts I.7 „Atmosphärische Albedo-Neutronenmodelle“ in Anhang I.

Nationaler Anhang NA (informativ)

Begriffe und Abkürzungen

Reihenfolge und Inhalt der folgenden Begriffe sind identisch mit denen im Abschnitt „Begriffe“ der Englischen Fassung.

3 Begriffe

3.1 Begriffe aus anderen Normen

- a) Für die Anwendung dieser Norm gelten die Begriffe nach ECSS-S-ST-00-01, insbesondere die folgenden Begriffe:

- 1) Verunreinigung
- 2) Umgebung
- 3) Mission
- 4) Weltraummüll

3.2 Für diese Norm spezifische Begriffe

3.2.1

Ap-, Kp-Indizes

Indizes der geomagnetischen Aktivität zur Beschreibung von Schwankungen des geomagnetischen Felds

ANMERKUNG *Ap*-Werte reichen von 0 bis 400 und werden in Einheiten von nT (Nanotesla) angegeben. *Kp* ist im Wesentlichen der Logarithmus von *Ap*.

3.2.2

Energiedosis

Energie, die durch Strahlenbelastung infolge Ionisation und Anregung je Masseneinheit örtlich absorbiert wird

ANMERKUNG Ein Teil der Energieabsorption kann aufgrund einer Verrückung von Atomen zu einer Beschädigung der Gitterstruktur von Feststoffen führen, und das wird gewöhnlich als nicht-ionisierender Energieverlust (NIEL) bezeichnet.

3.2.3

Albedo

Teil des Sonnenlichts, der von einem Planeten reflektiert wird

3.2.4

atmosphärische Albedo-Neutronen

Neutronen, die durch die Wechselwirkung von kosmischer Strahlung und Sonnenteilchen entstehen und anschließend die Erdatmosphäre verlassen

ANMERKUNG Albedo-Neutronen können auch durch andere Planetenatmosphären und Oberflächen erzeugt werden.

3.2.5

Bremsstrahlung

hochenergetische elektromagnetische Strahlung im Energiebereich von Röntgen- bis Gammastrahlung, die durch Abbremsen geladener Teilchen infolge Streuung an Atomkernen emittiert werden

ANMERKUNG Das Primärteilchen wird schließlich absorbiert, während die Bremsstrahlung hoch durchdringend ist. In der Raumfahrt ist die üblichste Quelle für Bremsstrahlung die Elektronenstreuung.

3.2.6

Verunreinigung

molekulare oder teilchenförmige Substanz, die die Wirksamkeit eines Bauteils beeinflussen oder verschlechtern kann, wenn sie sich in Sicht zu diesem Bauteil oder sich auf diesem befindet

3.2.7

Vertrauensniveau

Wahrscheinlichkeit, mit der ein Vertrauensintervall einen unbekannten Parameter enthält

ANMERKUNG 1 Zum Beispiel bedeutet ein CL von 95 %, dass eine Möglichkeit von 5 % besteht, dass die festgelegte Umgebung entsprechend dem Modell überschritten wird.

ANMERKUNG 2 Statistische Umgebungsmodelle liefern häufig Ergebnisse als Funktion des Vertrauensniveaus (CL).

ANMERKUNG 3 Beim CL werden keine systematischen Unsicherheiten im Zusammenhang mit Umgebungsmodellen berücksichtigt.

ANMERKUNG 4 Das Vertrauensniveau ist normalerweise ein gewählter Parameter, der den Unsicherheitsgrad festlegt, der annehmbar ist.

3.2.8

Strom

Geschwindigkeit des Teilchentransports durch eine Grenzfläche

ANMERKUNG Im Gegensatz zur Flussdichte hängt der Strom von der Richtung des Durchgangs der Teilchen durch die Grenzfläche ab (sie ist ein Vektorintegral). Eine isotrope ungerichtete Flussdichte f , die auf eine Ebene einfällt, führt gewöhnlich zu einem Strom von $1/4 f$ in jeder Richtung durch die Ebene. Strom wird häufig bei der Untersuchung des Strahlungstransports verwendet.

3.2.9

Verteilungsfunktion

$f(x,v)$

Funktion, die die Teilchendichte eines Plasmas im 6-D-Raum beschreibt, der aus den drei Raumvektoren und den drei Geschwindigkeitsvektoren gebildet wird, in $s^3 \cdot m^{-6}$

ANMERKUNG Für räumlich gleichmäßige und isotrope Verteilungen wird sie oft mit $f(v)$, einer Funktion der skalaren Geschwindigkeit, in $s \cdot m^{-4}$, oder mit $f(E)$, einer Energiefunktion, in $J^{-1} \cdot m^{-3}$, bezeichnet und kann wie folgt in die Flussdichte umgewandelt werden:

$$Flux = \int V f(v) dv \quad (3-1)$$

oder

$$Flux = \int \frac{f(E)}{m} dE \quad (3-2)$$

Dabei ist

v die skalare Geschwindigkeit;

E die Energie;

m die Teilchenmasse.

3.2.10

Dosis

an eine Stelle übertragene Strahlungsenergiemenge

ANMERKUNG Im weitesten Sinne kann hierzu die Teilchenflussdichte gehören, jedoch bezieht sie sich üblicherweise im Zusammenhang mit den Wirkungen der energiereichen Teilchenstrahlung des Weltraums auf die Energie, die je Masseneinheit infolge von Strahlenbelastung absorbiert wird.

3.2.11

Staub

Teilchen von einem spezifischen Körper des Sonnensystems, das gewöhnlich in der Nähe der Oberfläche dieses Körpers auftritt,

ANMERKUNG Z. B. Mond-, Mars- oder Kometenstaub.

3.2.12

Infrarotstrahlung der Erde

von der Erde emittierte Wärmestrahlung

ANMERKUNG Auch ausgesandte Langwellenstrahlung genannt.

3.2.13

energiereiches Teilchen

Teilchen, das hinsichtlich der Wirkung von Strahlung auf Raumfahrtsysteme die Außenflächen des Raumfahrzeugs durchdringen kann

ANMERKUNG Bei Elektronen tritt dies üblicherweise oberhalb von 100 keV auf, bei Protonen und anderen Ionen oberhalb von 1 MeV. Neutronen, Gammastrahlen und Röntgenstrahlen werden in diesem Zusammenhang ebenfalls als energiereiche Teilchen betrachtet.

3.2.14

Äquivalentfluenz

Größe, mit der versucht wird, die Schädigung bei verschiedenen Energien und von verschiedenen Spezies darzustellen

ANMERKUNG 1 Beispiel: Für den Güteabfall von Solarzellen wird oft verwendet, dass ein 10-MeV-Proton 3 000 1-MeV-Elektronen „äquivalent“ ist. Dieses Konzept wird auch bei der Betrachtung von Effekten von nichtionisierenden Energieverlusten (NIEL) verwendet.

ANMERKUNG 2 Güteabfallkoeffizienten werden benutzt, um den Schaden einzuschätzen, der durch ein gegebenes Teilchen relativ zu einem Normteilchen und einer Normenergie verursacht wird.

3.2.15

Exosphäre

Teil der Erdatmosphäre, der sich an die Thermosphäre anschließt, bei der die mittlere freie Weglänge die Skalenhöhe überschreitet und innerhalb der sehr wenige Zusammenstöße zwischen Atomen und Molekülen auftreten

ANMERKUNG 1 Im unteren Bereich der Exosphäre ist üblicherweise atomarer Sauerstoff der hauptsächliche Bestandteil.

ANMERKUNG 2 Mit zunehmender Höhe steigt der Anteil an atomarem Sauerstoff; bei mehr als etwa 1 000 km wird Wasserstoff üblicherweise der hauptsächliche Bestandteil. Unter eher besonderen Bedingungen (d. h. während der Winter in Polargebieten) können He-Atome die hauptsächlichen Bestandteile oberhalb eines begrenzten Höhenbereichs werden.

ANMERKUNG 3 Ein geringer Anteil an H- und He-Atomen kann Fluchtgeschwindigkeiten innerhalb der Exosphäre erreichen.

3.2.16

externes Feld

Teil des gemessenen geomagnetischen Feldes, der durch außerhalb der festen Erde befindliche Quellen erzeugt wurde

ANMERKUNG Die externen Quellen sind hauptsächlich: elektrische Ströme in der Ionosphäre, der Magnetosphäre und Koppelströme zwischen diesen Bereichen.

3.2.17

$F_{10,7}$ -Flussdichte

solare Flussdichte bei einer Wellenlänge von 10,7 cm in Einheiten von 10^4 Jansky (1 Jansky entspricht $10^{-26} \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{Hz}^{-1}$)

3.2.18

Fluenz

zeitliches Integral der Flussdichte

3.2.19

Flussdichte

Strahlungsmenge, die eine Fläche je Zeiteinheit durchsetzt

ANMERKUNG 1 Die gerichtete Flussdichte ist das Differential, bezogen auf den Raumwinkel (z. B. Teilchen $\text{cm}^{-2} \cdot \text{Steradian}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$), während die „differentielle“ Flussdichte das Differential, bezogen auf die Energie (z. B. Teilchen $\text{cm}^{-2} \cdot \text{MeV}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$), ist. In manchen Fällen werden Flussdichten auch als Differential, bezogen auf das lineare Energieübertragungsvermögen, behandelt (siehe 3.2.28).

ANMERKUNG 2 Die Flussdichte ist oft in „integraler Form“ als Teilchen je Flächeneinheit je Zeiteinheit (z. B. Elektronen $\text{cm}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$) über einer bestimmten Schwellenenergie angegeben

3.2.20

sonnenorientierte, geozentrische Koordinaten der Erdmagnetosphäre

GSM

Elemente eines rechtshändigen kartesischen Koordinatensystems (X, Y, Z), dessen Ursprung der Erdmittelpunkt ist

ANMERKUNG X weist zur Sonne; Z verläuft senkrecht zu X und liegt in der Ebene, die die X- und die geomagnetische Dipolachse enthält; Y verläuft senkrecht zu X und Z und weist in etwa in Richtung der magnetischen Ortszeit (MLT) der Abenddämmerung.

3.2.21

GNSS-Umlaufbahnen

Umlaufbahnen mit Höhen zwischen 20 500 km und 24 000 km in einem Neigungsbereich von $55^\circ \pm 5^\circ$

3.2.22

Heterosphäre

Erdatmosphäre oberhalb 105 km, wo wegen des Diffusionsgleichgewichts artenweise neutrale Konzentrationsprofile auftreten

ANMERKUNG N_2 -Dominanz tritt normalerweise unter etwa 200 km, O -Dominanz zwischen etwa 200 km und 600 km und He -Dominanz bei sehr großen Höhen auf. Diese Bedingungen hängen von den solaren und geomagnetischen Aktivitäten ab; in großen Höhen können die Situationen während großer geomagnetischer Störungen wesentlich voneinander abweichen.

3.2.23

Homosphäre

Erdatmosphäre unter 105 km, wo eine vollständige vertikale Durchmischung zu einer nahezu homogenen Zusammensetzung von etwa 78,1 % N_2 , 20,9 % O_2 , 0,9 % Ar und 0,1 % CO_2 und von Spurenbestandteilen führt

ANMERKUNG Die Homopause (oder Turbopause) kennzeichnet den oberen Abschluss der Homosphäre.

3.2.24

internes Feld

Teil des gemessenen geomagnetischen Feldes, der durch innerhalb der festen Erde befindliche Quellen erzeugt wurde, vorrangig aufgrund des im äußeren Kern der Erde zeitlich variierend betriebenen Dynamos

3.2.25

Interplanetares Magnetfeld, en: interplanetary magnetic field

koronales Magnetfeld der Sonne, das durch den Solarwind nach außen getragen wird und das Solarsystem durchdringt

3.2.26

isotrop

Eigenschaft einer Verteilung von Teilchen, bei der die Flussdichte über alle Richtungen konstant ist

3.2.27

L oder L -Schale

Parameter des geomagnetischen Felds, der häufig zur Beschreibung von Positionen im erdnahen Weltraum verwendet wird

ANMERKUNG Die L oder L -Schale hat einen komplizierten Ursprung, der auf einer Invarianten der Bewegung geladener Teilchen im Erdmagnetfeld beruht (siehe Anhang E). Bei der Definition von Plasmaregimen innerhalb der Magnetosphäre ist sie jedoch sinnvoll, weil sie für ein Dipolmagnetfeld gleich der geozentrischen Höhe in Erdradien der örtlichen Magnetfeldlinie ist, wo sie den Äquator kreuzt.

3.2.28

lineares Energieübertragungsvermögen

LET

Energie, die von einem abgebremsten energiereichen Teilchen beim Durchlaufen eines Wegs dem Material zugeführt wird

ANMERKUNG Der Begriff wird gewöhnlich zur Beschreibung der Ionisierungsspur infolge eines durchlaufenden Ions verwendet. Das LET ist materialabhängig und weiterhin eine Funktion der Teilchenenergie. Bei Ionen, die an Strahlenwirkungen bei der Raumfahrt beteiligt sind, erhöht es sich mit abnehmender Energie (es erhöht sich auch bei hohen Energien über die Mindestionisierungsenergie). Das LET ermöglicht es, unterschiedliche Ionen durch einfaches Darstellen der Ionenumgebung als Summe der Flussdichten aller Ionen als Funktionen ihrer LET gemeinsam zu

betrachten. Dies vereinfacht die Berechnung der Störung durch ein Einzelereignis. Die Energieverlustrate eines Teilchens, die auch emittierte Sekundärstrahlungen umfasst, wird als Bremsvermögen bezeichnet.

3.2.29

magnetische Ortszeit

MLT

Parameter, der analog zum Längengrad häufig zur Beschreibung von Positionen im erdnahen Weltraum verwendet wird

ANMERKUNG Der Druck des Sonnenwinds verformt das Erdmagnetfeld in eine kometenähnliche Form. Diese Struktur bleibt fest mit ihrem Vorderteil auf die Sonne und mit dem Schweif von ihr abgewandt gerichtet, wobei die Erde sich in ihr dreht. Somit ist der sich mit der Erde drehende Längengrad kein sinnvoller Weg zur Beschreibung der Position in der Magnetosphäre. Stattdessen wird die magnetische Ortszeit verwendet. Sie hat den Wert 0 (Mitternacht) in der von der Sonne abgewandten Richtung, 12 (Mittag) in der auf die Sonne weisenden Richtung und 6 (Morgendämmerung) und 18 (Abenddämmerung) in Richtung senkrecht zur Sonnen-/Antisonnen-Linie. Sie bedeutet im Grunde eine Ausdehnung der solaren Ortszeit auf der Erde vertikal aufwärts in den Weltraum, wobei die Neigung des Dipols berücksichtigt wird.

3.2.30

Maxwell-Verteilung

Plasmaverteilungsfunktionen können als Funktion der skalaren Geschwindigkeit v durch die Maxwell-Verteilung beschrieben werden:

$$f(v) = 4\pi n \left(\frac{m}{2\pi kT} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} v^2 \exp \left(-\frac{v^2 m}{2kT} \right) \quad (3-3)$$

Dabei ist

n die Dichte;

k die Boltzmann-Konstante;

T die Temperatur.

ANMERKUNG Die vollständige Verteilung ist somit durch ein Zahlenpaar aus Dichte und Temperatur beschrieben. Diese Verteilung gilt im thermischen Gleichgewicht. Auch Verteilungen, die sich nicht im Gleichgewicht befinden, können häufig durch die Kombination von zwei Maxwell-Verteilungen sinnvoll beschrieben werden.

3.2.31

Meteoroide

Teilchen natürlichen Ursprungs im Weltraum

ANMERKUNG Nahezu alle Meteoroiden haben ihren Ursprung in Asteroiden oder Kometen.

3.2.32

Meteoroidstrom

Meteoroide, die die Umlaufbahn ihrer Elternekörper beibehalten und zeitweise hohe Flussdichten bewirken können

3.2.33

Nanotesla

genormte Einheit des Geomagnetismus

ANMERKUNG Eine ältere Einheit, die heutzutage nicht sehr oft angewendet wird, ist Gauss, das sind 10^5 nT.

3.2.34

ungerichtete Flussdichte

skalares Integral der Flussdichte über alle Richtungen

ANMERKUNG Dies besagt, dass eine Richtungsverteilung der Teilchen, die auch nicht-isotrop sein kann, nicht berücksichtigt wird. Die Flussdichte an einem Punkt ist die Anzahl der Teilchen, die eine Kugel mit Einheitsquerschnittsfläche (d. h. mit dem Radius $1/\sqrt{\pi}$) durchdringen. Eine ungerichtete Flussdichte darf nicht mit einer isotropen Flussdichte verwechselt werden.

3.2.35

Teilchenverunreinigung

feste oder flüssige Verunreinigungsteilchen

3.2.36

Plasma

teilweise oder vollständig ionisiertes Gas, dessen Teilchen eine gemeinsame Reaktion auf Magnet- und elektrische Felder aufweisen

ANMERKUNG Coulomb-Kraft zwischen geladenen Teilchen. Diese bewirkt eine Neuordnung der Teilchen, um elektrischen Feldern innerhalb einer Entfernung in der Größenordnung der Debye-Länge entgegenzuwirken. Bei räumlichen Abmessungen größer als die Debye-Länge ist ein Plasma elektrisch neutral.

3.2.37

Strahlung

Energieübertragung durch Teilchen (einschließlich Photonen)

3.2.38

Störung durch ein Einzelereignis

SEU, (en: single-event upset)

Auswirkung durch ein Einzelereignis

SEE, (en: single-event effect)

permanenter Schaden durch ein Einzelereignis

SEL, (en: single-event latch-up)

Effekte, die das Ergebnis einer örtlich eng begrenzten Energiedeposition durch einzelne Teilchen oder deren Reaktionsprodukte sind, wobei die Energiedeposition ausreicht, um sichtbare Effekte hervorzurufen

3.2.39

sporadische Flussdichte

zufällige Flussdichte ohne deutliches Muster

3.2.40

Gesamtbestrahlungsstärke

TSI, (en: total Solar irradiance)

mittlere Sonnenstrahlung, die je Zeiteinheit auf eine über der Erdatmosphäre bei einem AU vom Sonnenzentrum entfernt liegende, senkrecht zu den einfallenden Sonnenstrahlen gerichtete, Flächeneinheit fällt

ANMERKUNG 1 1 AU = 149 597 870 700 m.

ANMERKUNG 2 Die Gesamtbestrahlungsstärke ist historisch als „Solarkonstante“ bekannt.

3.2.41

Sonneneruption

Emission optischer, UV- und Röntgenstrahlung infolge eines energiereichen Ereignisses auf der Sonne

ANMERKUNG Es gibt kontroverse Ansichten über den kausalen Zusammenhang von Sonneneruptionen und dem Eintreffen großer energiereicher Teilchenströme auf der Erde. Somit ist es günstiger, sich allein auf die Ereignisse durch energiereiche Sonnenteilchen (SEPE, en: Solar Energetic Particle Events) zu beziehen.

3.2.42

Thermosphäre

Erdatmosphäre zwischen 120 km und 250 km bis etwa 400 km (abhängig vom Aktivitätswert), wo die Temperatur exponentiell bis zu einem Grenzwert T_{∞} bei der Thermopause ansteigt (dabei ist T_{∞} die Temperatur der Exosphäre)

3.2.43

verfolgbare Objekte

Objekte, die regelmäßig von Bodensensoren eines Weltraumüberwachungssystems verfolgt und katalogisiert werden

ANMERKUNG Verfolgbare Objekte sind üblicherweise Objekte, die größer als etwa 5 cm bis 10 cm in der LEO sind und die größer als etwa 50 cm bis 1 m in der GEO sind.

3.2.44

World Magnetic Model

alle fünf Jahre überarbeitet durch ein amerikanisch-britisches geomagnetisches Konsortium; dient vorwiegend militärischen Zwecken

3.3 Abkürzungen

Für die Anwendung dieser Norm gelten die Abkürzungen nach ECSS-S-ST-00-01 und die folgenden:

Abkürzung	Bedeutung
ASTM	American Society for Testing and Materials
AE	Polarer Elektrojet (en: auroral electrojet)
AO	Atomarer Sauerstoff (en: atomic oxygen)
BIRA	Belgisch Instituut voor Ruimte-Aeronomie
CIRA	COSPAR Internationale Bezugsatmosphäre (en: COSPAR International Reference Atmosphere)
COSPAR	Committee on Space Research
DISCOS	Datenbank und Informationssystem der ESA zur Charakterisierung von Objekten im Weltraum (en: ESA's database and information system characterizing objects in space)
DTM	Dichte- und Temperaturmodell (en: density and temperature model)
ESP Model	Modell der Sonnenprotonenemission (en: Emission of Solar Protons Model)
GCR	Galaktische kosmische Strahlung (en: galactic cosmic ray)
GEO	Geostationäre Erdumlaufbahn (en: geostationary Earth orbit)
GNSS	Globales Navigationssatellitensystem (en: global navigation satellite system)
GRAM	Globales Bezugsatmosphärenmodell (en: global reference atmosphere model)
GSM	Sonnenorientierte, geozentrische Koordinaten der Erdmagnetosphäre (en: geocentric solar magnetospheric co-ordinates)

Abkürzung	Bedeutung
HEO	Umlaufbahn mit großer Exzentrizität (en: highly eccentric orbit)
HWM	Horizontales Windmodell (en: horizontal wind model)
IAGA	International Association for Geomagnetism and Aeronomy
IASB	Institute d'Aeronomie Spatiale de Belgique
IERS	Internationaler Dienst für Erdrotation und Referenzsysteme (en: international earth rotation service)
IGRF	Internationales Geomagnetisches Referenzfeld (en: international geomagnetic reference field)
IMF	Interplanetares Magnetfeld (en: interplanetary magnetic field)
JB-2006	Halbempirisches Modell von Jacchia-Bowman (2006) (en: Jacchia-Bowman semi-empirical model (2006))
JB-2008	Halbempirisches Modell von Jacchia-Bowman (2008) (en: Jacchia-Bowman semi-empirical model (2008))
LDEF	Langzeit-Bestrahlungseinrichtung (en: long duration exposure facility)
LEO	Erdnahe Umlaufbahn (en: low Earth orbit)
LET	Lineares Energieübertragungsvermögen (en: linear energy transfer)
MASTER	Referenzmodell der Erdumgebung für Meteoroiden und Weltraummüll (en: meteoroid and space debris terrestrial environment reference model)
MEO	Mittlere Erdumlaufbahn (Höhe) (en: medium (altitude) Earth orbit)
MLT	Magnetische Ortszeit (en: magnetic local time)
MSIS	Massenspektrometer und inkohärente Rückstrahlung (en: mass spectrometer and incoherent scatter)
NIEL	Nicht-ionisierender Energieverlust (en: non-ionizing energy loss)
nT	Nanotesla (en: nano-Tesla)
R	Fleckenrelativzahl (en: sunspot number)
R_c	Orts- und richtungsabhängiger Mindestimpuls für die geomagnetische Abschirmung (en: rigidity cut-off for geomagnetic shielding)
R_E	Erdradius (en: Earth radius)
RHU	Thermoelektrischer Radioisotopgenerator (en: radioisotope heater unit)
R_j	Radius von Riesenplaneten (en: jovian radius)
r.m.s.	Effektivwert (en: root-mean-square)
RTG	Thermoelektrischer Radioisotopgenerator (en: radioisotope thermo-electric generator)
SEU	Störung durch ein Einzelereignis (en: single-event upset)
SEE	Auswirkung durch ein Einzelereignis (en: single-event effect)
SEL	Energiekonzentration durch ein Einzelereignis (en: single-event latch-up)
SEPs	Energiereiche Sonnenteilchen (en: solar energetic particles)
SEPE	Ereignisse durch energiereiche Sonnenteilchen (en: solar energetic particle events)
sfu	Solar flux unit (en: solar flux unit)

Abkürzung	Bedeutung
SPE	Ereignisse durch Sonnenteilchen (en: solar particle events)
SRP	Sonnenstrahlungsdruck (en: solar radiation pressure)
SPIDR	Space Physics Interactive Data Resource
SW	Sonnenwind (en: solar wind)
URSI	Union Radio Science Internationale
WMM	World Magnetic Model

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English version

Space engineering - Space environment

Ingénierie spatiale - Environnement spatial

Raumfahrttechnik - Raumfahrtumweltbedingungen

This draft European Standard is submitted to CEN members for enquiry. It has been drawn up by the Technical Committee CEN/CLC/JTC 5.

If this draft becomes a European Standard, CEN and CENELEC members are bound to comply with the CEN/CENELEC Internal Regulations which stipulate the conditions for giving this European Standard the status of a national standard without any alteration.

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Table of contents

European Foreword	13
Introduction	14
1 Scope	15
2 Normative references	16
3 Terms, definitions and abbreviated terms	19
3.1 Terms defined in other standards	19
3.2 Terms specific to the present standard	19
3.3 Abbreviated terms	27
4 Gravity	29
4.1 Introduction and description	29
4.1.1 Introduction	29
4.1.2 Gravity model formulation	29
4.1.3 Third body gravitation	31
4.1.4 Tidal effects	31
4.2 Requirements for model selection and application	31
4.2.1 General requirements for gravity models	31
4.2.2 Selection and application of gravity models	32
5 Geomagnetic fields	33
5.1 Introduction and description	33
5.1.1 The geomagnetic field and its sources	33
5.1.2 The internal field	33
5.1.3 External field: ionospheric components	33
5.1.4 External magnetic field: magnetospheric components	34
5.1.5 Models of the internal and external geomagnetic fields	34
5.2 Requirements for model selection and application	35
5.2.1 The internal field	35
5.2.2 The external field	36
5.3 Tailoring guidelines	37

6 Natural electromagnetic radiation and indices	38
6.1 Introduction and description	38
6.1.1 Introduction	38
6.1.2 Electromagnetic radiation and indices	38
6.2 Requirements	41
6.2.1 Electromagnetic radiation	41
6.2.2 Reference index values	41
6.2.3 Tailoring guidelines	42
6.3 Tables	42
7 Neutral atmospheres	44
7.1 Introduction and description	44
7.1.1 Introduction	44
7.1.2 Structure of the Earth's atmosphere	44
7.1.3 Models of the Earth's atmosphere	44
7.1.4 Wind model of the Earth's homosphere and heterosphere	45
7.2 Requirements for atmosphere and wind model selection	45
7.2.1 Earth atmosphere	45
7.2.2 Earth wind model	46
7.2.3 Models of the atmospheres of the planets and their satellites	47
8 Plasmas	48
8.1 Introduction and description	48
8.1.1 Introduction	48
8.1.2 Ionosphere	48
8.1.3 Plasmasphere	49
8.1.4 Outer magnetosphere	49
8.1.5 Solar wind	50
8.1.6 Magnetosheath	50
8.1.7 Magnetotail and L2	50
8.1.8 Planetary environments	51
8.1.9 Induced environments	51
8.2 Requirements for model selection and application	51
8.2.1 General	51
8.2.2 Ionosphere	52
8.2.3 Auroral charging environment	52
8.2.4 Plasmasphere	53
8.2.5 Outer magnetosphere	54
8.2.6 The solar wind (interplanetary environment)	54

8.2.7	Other plasma environments	54
8.2.8	Tables	55
9	Energetic particle radiation	56
9.1	Introduction and description	56
9.1.1	Introduction	56
9.1.2	Overview of energetic particle radiation environment and effects	56
9.2	Requirements for energetic particle radiation environments	59
9.2.1	Trapped radiation belt fluxes	59
9.2.2	Solar particle event models	61
9.2.3	Cosmic ray models	63
9.2.4	Geomagnetic shielding	63
9.2.5	Neutrons	63
9.2.6	<<deleted>>	63
9.2.7	L2 and the Deep Magnetotail Environment	63
9.3	Preparation of a radiation environment specification	63
9.4	Tables	65
10	Space debris and meteoroids	66
10.1	Introduction and description	66
10.1.1	The particulate environment in near Earth space	66
10.1.2	Space debris	66
10.1.3	Meteoroids	67
10.2	Requirements for impact risk assessment and model selection	67
10.2.1	General requirements for meteoroids and space debris	67
10.2.2	Model selection and application	67
10.2.3	<<deleted>>	70
10.2.4	The meteoroid model	71
10.2.5	Impact risk assessment	71
10.2.6	Margins	72
11	Contamination	73
11.1	Introduction and description	73
11.1.1	Introduction	73
11.1.2	Description of molecular contamination	73
11.1.3	Transport mechanisms	74
11.1.4	Description of particulate contamination	74
11.1.5	Transport mechanisms	74
11.2	Requirements for on-orbit contamination assessment	75

Annex A (normative) Natural electromagnetic radiation and indices	76
A.1 Solar activity values for complete solar cycle	76
A.2 Tables.....	77
Annex B (normative) Energetic particle radiation	81
B.1 Historical dates of solar maximum and minimum	81
B.2 GEO model (IGE-2006)	81
B.3 ONERA MEOv2 model	81
B.4 FLUMIC model	82
B.4.1 Overview	82
B.4.2 Outer belt ($L > 2,5 R_E$)	82
B.4.3 Inner belt ($L < 2,5 R_E$)	83
B.5 NASA worst case GEO spectrum	83
B.6 ESP solar proton model specification.....	84
B.7 Solar ions model	84
B.8 Geomagnetic shielding (Størmer theory)	85
B.9 MOBE-DIC.....	85
B.9.1 Overview	85
B.9.2 Spectral form.....	85
B.9.3 L-shell profile.....	86
B.9.4 Magnetic latitude profile	87
B.10 Tables.....	88
Annex C (normative) Space debris and meteoroids.....	100
C.1 Flux models	100
C.1.1 <<deleted>>	100
C.1.2 <<deleted>>	100
C.1.3 <<deleted>>	100
C.1.4 Meteoroid streams	100
C.1.5 Grün meteoroid model	102
C.2 Tables.....	105
Annex D (informative) Gravitation	109
D.1 Gravity models: background	109
D.2 Guidelines for use.....	110
D.3 Availability of models	112
D.4 Tables.....	112
D.5 Figures	113
Annex E (informative) Geomagnetic fields.....	114

E.1	Overview of the effects of the geomagnetic field	114
E.2	Models of the internal geomagnetic field	114
E.3	Models of the external geomagnetic field	115
E.4	Magnetopause boundary	115
E.5	Geomagnetic coordinate system – B and L	116
E.6	Tables.....	118
E.7	Figures	120

Annex F (informative) Natural electromagnetic radiation and indices 122

F.1	Solar spectrum	122
F.2	Solar and geomagnetic indices – additional information	122
F.2.1	E10.7	122
F.2.2	F10.7.....	122
F.2.3	S10.7	122
F.2.4	M10.7.....	123
F.3	Additional information on short-term variation	123
F.4	Useful internet references for indices.....	124
F.5	Earth electromagnetic radiation	124
F.5.1	Earth albedo.....	124
F.5.2	Earth infrared	125
F.6	Electromagnetic radiation from other planets	126
F.6.1	Planetary albedo	126
F.6.2	Planetary infrared.....	126
F.7	Activity indices information.....	126
F.8	Tables.....	126
F.9	Figures	127

Annex G (informative) Neutral atmospheres..... 130

G.1	Structure of the Earth's atmosphere	130
G.2	Development of models of the Earth's atmosphere.....	130
G.3	NRLMSISE-00 and JB-2006 - additional information	131
G.4	The GRAM series of atmosphere models.	132
G.5	Atmosphere model uncertainties and limitations	132
G.6	HMW07 additional information.....	132
G.7	Planetary atmospheres models.....	133
G.7.1	Jupiter	133
G.7.2	Venus.....	133
G.7.3	Mars.....	134
G.7.4	Saturn	134

G.7.5	Titan.....	134
G.7.6	Neptune	134
G.7.7	Mercury.....	134
G.8	Reference data	135
G.9	Tables.....	136
G.10	Figures	140
Annex H (informative) Plasmas		144
H.1	Identification of plasma regions.....	144
H.2	Plasma effects on spacecraft.....	144
H.3	Reference data	144
H.3.1	Introduction	144
H.3.2	Ionosphere.....	145
H.3.3	Plasmasphere	145
H.3.4	Outer magnetosphere	146
H.3.5	Magnetosheath	147
H.3.6	Magnetotail and distant magnetosheath.....	147
H.3.7	Planetary environments	147
H.3.8	Induced environments.....	148
H.4	Tables.....	149
H.5	Figures	152
Annex I (informative) Energetic particle radiation		153
I.1	Trapped radiation belts	153
I.1.1	Basic data	153
I.1.2	Tailoring guidelines: orbital and mission regimes	153
I.1.3	Existing trapped radiation models	154
I.1.4	The South Atlantic Anomaly	156
I.1.5	Dynamics of the outer radiation belt	157
I.1.6	Internal charging	157
I.2	Solar particle event models.....	158
I.2.1	Overview	158
I.2.2	ESP model.....	158
I.2.3	JPL models	158
I.2.4	Spectrum of individual events	159
I.2.5	Event probabilities.....	160
I.2.6	Other SEP models	161
I.3	Cosmic ray environment and effects models.....	161
I.4	Geomagnetic shielding	161

I.5	<<deleted>>	162
I.6	Planetary environments	162
I.6.1	Overview	162
I.6.2	Existing models	162
I.7	Atmospheric albedo neutron models	163
I.8	Interplanetary environments	164
I.9	Tables	165
I.10	Figures	167
Annex J (informative)	Space debris and meteoroids	173
J.1	Reference data	173
J.1.1	Trackable space debris	173
J.1.2	Reference flux data for space debris and meteoroids	173
J.2	Additional information on flux models	174
J.2.1	Meteoroids	174
J.2.2	Space debris flux models	175
J.2.3	Model uncertainties	177
J.3	Impact risk assessment	177
J.3.1	Impact risk analysis procedure	177
J.3.2	<<deleted>>	178
J.3.3	Damage assessment	178
J.4	Analysis tools	180
J.4.1	General	180
J.4.2	Deterministic analysis	180
J.4.3	Statistical analysis	181
J.5	Tables	182
J.6	Figures	188
Annex K (informative)	<<deleted>>	190

Figures

Figure D-1	: Graphical representation of the EIGEN-GLO4C geoid (note: geoid heights are exaggerated by a factor 10 000)	113
Figure E-1	: The IGRF-12 field strength (nT, at 2015) and predicted change in intensity between 2015 and 2020 at the mean Earth radius. (Mercator projection from [RN.38])	120
Figure E-2	: The general morphology of model magnetospheric field lines, according to the Tsyganenko 1989 model, showing the seasonal variation, dependent on rotation axis tilt	121

Figure F-1 : Solar spectral irradiance (in red, AM0 (Air Mass 0) is the radiation level outside of the Earth's atmosphere (extraterrestrial), in blue, AM1,5 is the radiation level after passing through the atmosphere 1,5 times, which is about the level at solar zenith angle 48,19°s, an average level at the Earth's surface (terrestrial)).....	127
Figure F-2 : Daily solar and geomagnetic activity indices over the last two solar cycles.....	128
Figure F-3 : Monthly (27-day) mean solar and geomagnetic activity indices over the last two solar cycles.....	129
Figure G-1 : Temperature profile of the Earth's atmosphere.....	140
Figure G-2 : Variation of the JB-2006 mean air density with altitude for low, moderate, high long and high short term solar and geomagnetic activities.....	141
Figure G-3 : Variation of the NRLMSISE-00 mean atomic oxygen with altitude for low, moderate and high long solar and geomagnetic activities	142
Figure G-4 : Variation of the NRLMSISE-00 mean concentration profile of the atmosphere constituents N_2 , O, O_2 , He, Ar, H, N and anomalous O with altitude for moderate solar and geomagnetic activities ($F10.7 = F10.7_{avg} = 140$, $A_p = 15$)	143
Figure H-1 : Profile of electron density for solar magnetic local time = 18 hr, solar magnetic latitude=0, $K_p = 0$ and 9 from the GCPM for 1/1/1999.....	152
Figure I-1 : Contour plots of the proton and electron radiation belts.....	167
Figure I-2 : Electron (a) and proton (b) omnidirectional fluxes, integral in energy, on the geomagnetic equator for various energy thresholds	168
Figure I-3 : Integral omnidirectional fluxes of protons (>10 MeV) and electrons (>10 MeV) at 400 km altitude showing the inner radiation belt's "South Atlantic anomaly" and, in the case of electrons, the outer radiation belt encountered at high latitudes	169
Figure I-4 : Comparison of POLE with AE8 (flux vs. Energy) for 15 year mission (with worst case and best case included).....	170
Figure I-5 : Comparison of ONERA/GNSS model from 0,28 MeV up to 1,12 MeV (best case, mean case and worst case) with AE8 (flux vs. Energy) for 15 yr mission (with worst case & best case).....	170
Figure I-6 : Albedo neutron spectra at 100 km altitude at solar maximum.....	171
Figure I-7 : Albedo neutron spectra at 100 km altitude at solar minimum.....	171
Figure I-8 : Jupiter environment model (proton & electron versions).....	172
Figure J-1 : Time evolution of the number of trackable objects in orbit (as of May 2018). Regular updates available online: https://discosweb.esoc.esa.int/web/guest/statistics	188
Figure J-2 : Semi-major axis distribution of trackable objects in LEO orbits (as of May 2018).....	188
Figure J-3 : Distribution of trackable objects as function of their inclination (as of May 2018).....	189
Figure J-4 : The HRMP velocity distribution for different altitudes from the Earth surface	189

Tables

Table 6-1: Conversion from K_p to a_p	42
Table 6-2: Electromagnetic radiation values	43
Table 6-3: Reference fixed index values	43
Table 6-4: Reference index values for variations of a_p	43
Table 8-1: Worst-case bi-Maxwellian environment	55
Table 8-2: Solar wind parameters	55
Table 9-1: Standard field models to be used with AE8 and AP8	65
Table 11-1: Contamination levels - interaction with the space environment components	75
Table A-1 : Solar cycle 23 solar activity indices averaged over 30-day (1 month) intervals	77
Table B-1 : A and E_0 for three confidence levels	86
Table B-2 : Minima and maxima of sunspot number cycles	88
Table B-3 : IGE-2006 GEO average model – electron flux ($\text{kev}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}\text{sr}^{-1}$) according to year in the solar cycle (referred to solar min: 0) and for different energies for a mission duration of 1 year.	89
Table B-4 : IGE-2006 GEO upper case model - maximum electron flux ($\text{kev}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}\text{sr}^{-1}$) according to year in the solar cycle (referred to solar min: 0) and for different energies for a mission duration of 1 year.	90
Table B-5 : MEOv2 average case model - average electron flux ($\text{Mev}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}\text{sr}^{-1}$) according to year in the solar cycle (referred to solar min: 0) and for different energies for a mission duration of 1 year.	92
Table B-6 : MEOv2 upper case model - maximum electron flux ($\text{Mev}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}\text{sr}^{-1}$) according to year in the solar cycle (referred to solar min: 0) and for different energies for a mission duration of 1 year.	92
Table B-7 : Worst case spectrum for geostationary orbits	93
Table B-8 : Values of the parameters for the ESP model	93
Table B-9 : Values to scale fluence from >100 MeV to >300 MeV	94
Table B-10 : CREME-96 solar ion worst 5-minute fluxes in an interplanetary environment	94
Table B-11 : CREME-96 solar ion worst day fluxes in an interplanetary environment ..	96
Table B-12 : CREME-96 solar ion worst week fluxes in an interplanetary environment	98
Table C-1 : Normalized meteoroid velocity distribution	105
Table C-2 : The annual meteor streams	107
Table D-1 : Degree power attenuation for an orbit at 25 000 km altitude	112
Table D-2 : Coefficients of the EIGEN-GL04C model up to degree and order 8×8 ..	113
Table E-1 : Magnetic pole positions since 1900 as determined from IGRF-12 in WGS84 geodetic latitude (taken from [RN.38])	118

Table E-2 : Sibeck et al. Magnetopause model	119
Table F-1 : Reference values for average planetary albedo and infra-red radiation ...	126
Table G-1 : Altitude profiles of the atmosphere constituents N ₂ , O, O ₂ , He, Ar, H, N and anomalous O for low solar and geomagnetic activities (NRLMSISE-00 model - $F10.7 = F10.7_{avg} = 65$, $A_p = 0$).....	136
Table G-2 : Altitude profiles of the atmosphere constituents N ₂ , O, O ₂ , He, Ar, H, N and anomalous O for mean solar and geomagnetic activities (NRLMSISE-00 model - $F10.7 = F10.7_{avg} = 140$, $A_p = 15$).....	137
Table G-3 : Altitude profiles of the atmosphere constituents N ₂ , O, O ₂ , He, Ar, H, N and anomalous O for high long term solar and geomagnetic activities (NRLMSISE-00 model - $F10.7 = F10.7_{avg} = 250$, $A_p = 45$)	138
Table G-4 : Altitude profiles of total density ρ [kg m ⁻³] for low, moderate, high long and high short term solar and geomagnetic activities (JB-2006 model).....	139
Table H-1 : Worst-case 3-Maxwellian environment.....	146
Table H-2 : Regions encountered by different mission types	149
Table H-3 : Main engineering concerns due to space plasmas.....	149
Table H-4 : Ionospheric electron density profiles derived from IRI-2016 for date 01/01/2016, lat=0, long=0.....	150
Table H-5 : Profile of densities for solar magnetic local time = 18 hr, solar magnetic latitude=0, Kp = 5,0 from the GCPM for 1/1/1999.....	150
Table H-6 : Typical plasma parameters at geostationary orbit	151
Table H-7 : Typical magnetosheath plasma parameters.....	151
Table H-8 : Typical plasma parameters around L2	151
Table H-9 : Worst-case environments for eclipse charging near Jupiter and Saturn ..	151
Table H-10 : Photoelectron sheath parameters	152
Table H-11 : Some solar UV photoionization rates at 1 AU	152
Table I-1 : Example albedo neutron environment at 450 km altitude [RD.151].....	164
Table I-2 : Characteristics of typical radiation belt particles	165
Table I-3 : Recommended updated values of the parameters of the JPL model	165
Table I-4 : Proton fluence levels for energy, mission duration and confidence levels from the ESP model with the NASA parameters from Table B-8.	166
Table I-5 : Parameters for the fit to the peak fluxes from the October 1989 events.	166
Table J-1 : Approximate flux ratios for meteoroids for 400 km and 800 km altitudes..	182
Table J-2 : Cumulative number of impacts, N , to a randomly tumbling plate for a range of minimum particle sizes using the MASTER-8 model (version 8.0.0)....	183
Table J-3 : Cumulative number of impacts, N , to a randomly tumbling plate for a range of minimum particle sizes using the MASTER-8 model (version 8.0.0)....	184
Table J-4 : Cumulative number of impacts, N , to a randomly tumbling plate for a range of minimum particle sizes using the MASTER-8 model (version 8.0.0)....	185
Table J-5 : Cumulative number of impacts, N , to a randomly tumbling plate for a range of minimum particle masses	186

Table J-6 : Parameters (appearing in Eq.) to account for modified meteoroid fluxes
encountered by spacecraft in circular Earth orbits at various altitudes.....187

European Foreword

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This document is currently submitted to the ENQUIRY.

This document will supersede EN16603-10-04:2015

The main changes with respect to EN16603-10-04:2015 are listed below:

- ECSS-E-ST-10-04C Rev.1

15 June 2020

Second issue, Revision 1

Changes with respect to ECSS-E-ST-10-04C (15 November 2008) are identified with revision tracking.

Main changes are:

- Implementation of Change requests
- Update of Terms, definitions and abbreviated term in clause 3
- Addition of new Annex B.9 “MOBE-DIC”
- Addition of new Annex I.7 “Atmospheric albedo neutron models”

This document has been developed to cover specifically space systems and will therefore have precedence over any EN covering the same scope but with a wider do-main of applicability (e.g. : aerospace).

Introduction

This standard forms part of the System Engineering branch (ECSS-E-10) of the Engineering area of the ECSS system. As such it is intended to assist in the consistent application of space environment engineering to space products through specification of required or recommended methods, data and models to the problem of ensuring best performance, problem avoidance or survivability of a product in the space environment.

The space environment can cause severe problems for space systems. Proper assessment of the potential effects is part of the system engineering process as defined in ECSS-E-ST-10. This is performed in the early phases of a mission when consideration is given to e.g. orbit selection, mass budget, thermal protection, and component selection policy. As the design of a space system is developed, further engineering iteration is normally necessary with more detailed analysis.

In this Standard, each component of the space environment is treated separately, although synergies and cross-linking of models are specified. Informative annexes are provided as explanatory background information associated with each clause.

1

Scope

This standard applies to all product types which exist or operate in space and defines the natural environment for all space regimes. It also defines general models and rules for determining the local induced environment.

Project-specific or project-class-specific acceptance criteria, analysis methods or procedures are not defined.

The natural space environment of a given item is that set of environmental conditions defined by the external physical world for the given mission (e.g. atmosphere, meteoroids and energetic particle radiation). The induced space environment is that set of environmental conditions created or modified by the presence or operation of the item and its mission (e.g. contamination, secondary radiations and spacecraft charging). The space environment also contains elements which are induced by the execution of other space activities (e.g. debris and contamination).

This standard may be tailored for the specific characteristic and constraints of a space project in conformance with ECSS-S-ST-00.

Normative references

The following normative documents contain provisions which, through reference in this text, constitute provisions of this ECSS Standard. For dated references, subsequent amendments to, or revision of any of these publications do not apply, However, parties to agreements based on this ECSS Standard are encouraged to investigate the possibility of applying the more recent editions of the normative documents indicated below. For undated references, the latest edition of the publication referred to applies.

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Terms, definitions and abbreviated terms

3.1 Terms defined in other standards

- a. For the purpose of this Standard, the terms and definitions from ECSS-S-ST-00-01 apply, in particular for the following terms:
 - 1. contamination
 - 2. environment
 - 3. mission
 - 4. space debris

3.2 Terms specific to the present standard

3.2.1 **Ap, Kp indices**

geomagnetic activity indices to describe fluctuations of the geomagnetic field

NOTE Values of A_p range from 0 to 400 and they are expressed in units of nT (nanotesla). K_p is essentially the logarithm of A_p .

3.2.2 **absorbed dose**

energy absorbed locally per unit mass as a result of radiation exposure which is transferred through ionization and excitation

NOTE A portion of the energy absorption can result in damage to the lattice structure of solids through displacement of atoms, and this is now commonly referred to as Non-Ionizing Energy Loss (NIEL).

3.2.3 **albedo**

fraction of sunlight which is reflected off a planet

3.2.4 **atmospheric albedo neutrons**

neutrons escaping from the earth's atmosphere following generation by the interaction of cosmic rays and solar particles

NOTE Albedo neutrons can also be produced by other planetary atmospheres and surfaces.

3.2.5 **bremsstrahlung**

high-energy electromagnetic radiation in the X- γ energy range emitted by charged particles slowing down by scattering of atomic nuclei

NOTE The primary particle is ultimately absorbed while the bremsstrahlung can be highly penetrating. In space, the most common source of bremsstrahlung is electron scattering.

3.2.6 contaminant

molecular and particulate matter that can affect or degrade the performance of any component when being in line of sight with that component or when residing onto that component

3.2.7 confidence level

probability with which a confidence interval contains an unknown parameter

NOTE 1 For example a 95 % CL means that there is a 5 % chance that the specified environment can be exceeded according to the model.

NOTE 2 Statistical environment models often provide outputs as a function of confidence level (CL).

NOTE 3 The CL does not account for systematic uncertainties associated with environment models.

NOTE 4 The confidence level is typically a chosen parameter which stipulates the level of uncertainty one is willing to accept.

3.2.8 current

the rate of transport of particles through a boundary

NOTE In contrast to flux, current is dependent on the direction in which the particle crosses the boundary (it is a vector integral). An isotropic omnidirectional flux, f , incident on a plane gives rise to a current of $\frac{1}{4}f$ normally in each direction across the plane. Current is often used in the discussion of radiation transport.

3.2.9 distribution function $f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v})$

function describing the particle density of a plasma in 6-D space made up of the three spatial vectors and the three velocity vectors, with units $\text{s}^3 \text{m}^{-6}$

NOTE For distributions that are spatially uniform and isotropic, it is often quoted as $f(v)$, a function of scalar velocity, with units s m^{-4} , or $f(E)$ a function of energy, with units $\text{J}^{-1}\text{m}^{-3}$. This can be converted to flux as follows:

$$\text{Flux} = \int V f(v) dv \quad (3-1)$$

or

$$\text{Flux} = \int \frac{f(E)}{m} dE \quad (3-2)$$

where

v is the scalar velocity;

E is the energy;

m is the particle mass.

3.2.10 dose

quantity of radiation delivered at a position

NOTE In its broadest sense this can include the flux of particles, but in the context of space energetic particle radiation effects, it usually refers to the energy absorbed locally per unit mass as a result of radiation exposure.

3.2.11 dust

particulates which have a direct relation to a specific solar system body and which are usually found close to the surface of this body

NOTE For example Lunar, Marian or Cometary dust.

3.2.12 Earth infrared

thermal radiation emitted by the Earth

NOTE It is also called outgoing long wave radiation.

3.2.13 energetic particle

particles which, in the context of space systems radiation effects, can penetrate outer surfaces of spacecraft

NOTE For electrons, this is typically above 100 keV, while for protons and other ions this is above 1 MeV. Neutrons, gamma rays and X-rays are also considered energetic particles in this context.

3.2.14 equivalent fluence

quantity which attempts to represent the damage at different energies and from different species

NOTE 1 For example: For solar cell degradation it is often taken that one 10 MeV protons is “equivalent” to 3 000 electrons of 1 MeV. This concept also occurs in consideration of Non-ionizing Energy Loss effects (NIEL).

NOTE 2 Damage coefficients are used to scale the effect caused by particles to the damage caused by a standard particle and energy.

3.2.15 exosphere

part of the Earth’s atmosphere above the thermosphere for which the mean free path exceeds the scale height, and within which there are very few collisions between atoms and molecules

NOTE 1 Near the base of the exosphere atomic oxygen is normally the dominant constituent.

NOTE 2 With increasing altitude, the proportion of atomic hydrogen increases, and hydrogen normally becomes the dominant constituent above about 1 000 km. Under rather special conditions (i.e. winter polar region) He atoms can become the major constituent over a limited altitude range.

NOTE 3 A small fraction of *H* and *He* atoms can attain escape velocities within the exosphere.

3.2.16 external field

part of the measured geomagnetic field produced by sources external to the solid Earth

NOTE the external sources are mainly: electrical currents in the ionosphere, the magnetosphere and coupling currents between these regions.

3.2.17 *F*_{10.7} flux

solar flux at a wavelength of 10.7 cm in units of 10⁴ Jansky (one Jansky equals 10⁻²⁶ Wm⁻²Hz⁻¹)

3.2.18 fluence

time-integration of the flux

3.2.19 flux

amount of radiation crossing a surface per unit of time

NOTE 1 The directional flux is the differential with respect to solid angle (e.g. particles cm⁻² steradian⁻¹s⁻¹) while the “differential” flux is differential with respect to energy (e.g. particles cm⁻² MeV⁻¹s⁻¹). In some cases fluxes are also treated as a differential with respect to Linear Energy Transfer (see 3.2.28).

NOTE 2 Flux is often expressed in “integral form” as particles per unit area per unit time (e.g. electrons cm⁻²s⁻¹) above a certain threshold energy.

3.2.20 geocentric solar magnetospheric coordinates (GSM)

elements of a right-handed Cartesian coordinate system (X,Y,Z) with the origin at the centre of the Earth

NOTE X points towards the Sun; Z is perpendicular to X, lying in the plane containing the X and geomagnetic dipole axes; Y points perpendicular to X and Z and points

approximately towards dusk magnetic local time (MLT).

3.2.21 GNSS orbits

orbits with altitudes between 20 500 km and 24 000 km within an inclination range of $55^\circ \pm 5^\circ$

3.2.22 heterosphere

Earth's atmosphere above 105 km altitude where the neutral concentration profiles are established due to diffusive equilibrium between the species

NOTE N_2 is normally dominant below approximately 200 km, O is normally dominant from approx 200 km to approx. 600 km, He is dominant above 600 km altitude, and H dominant at very high altitudes. These conditions depend on solar and geomagnetic activity, and the situation may be quite variable at high altitudes during major geomagnetic disturbances.

3.2.23 homosphere

Earth's atmosphere below 105 km altitude where complete vertical mixing yields a near-homogeneous composition of about 78,1% N_2 , 20,9% O_2 , 0,9% Ar , and 0,1% CO_2 and trace constituents

NOTE The homopause (or turbopause) marks the ceiling of the homosphere.

3.2.24 internal field

part of the measured geomagnetic field produced by sources internal to the solid Earth, primarily due to the time-varying dynamo operating in the outer core of the Earth

3.2.25 interplanetary magnetic field

solar coronal magnetic field carried outward by the solar wind, pervading the solar system

3.2.26 isotropic

property of a distribution of particles where the flux is constant over all directions

3.2.27 L or L shell

parameter of the geomagnetic field, often used to describe positions in near-Earth space

NOTE L or L shell has a complicated derivation based on an invariant of the motion of charged particles in the terrestrial magnetic field (see Annex E). However, it is useful in defining plasma regimes within the magnetosphere because, for a dipole magnetic field, it is equal to

the geocentric altitude in Earth-radii of the local magnetic field line where it crosses the equator.

3.2.28 linear energy transfer (LET)

rate of energy deposit from a slowing energetic particle with distance travelled in matter, the energy being imparted to the material

NOTE Normally used to describe the ionization track caused by passage of an ion. LET is material-dependent and is also a function of particle energy. For ions involved in space radiation effects, it increases with decreasing energy (it also increases at high energies, beyond the minimum ionizing energy). LET allows different ions to be considered together by simply representing the ion environment as the summation of the fluxes of all ions as functions of their LETs. This simplifies single-event upset calculation. The rate of energy loss of a particle, which also includes emitted secondary radiations, is the stopping power.

3.2.29 magnetic local time (MLT)

parameter analogous to longitude, often used to describe positions in near-Earth space

NOTE Pressure from the solar wind distorts the Earth magnetic field into a comet-like shape. This structure remains fixed with its nose towards the Sun and the tail away from it as the Earth spins within it. Hence longitude, which rotates with the Earth, is not a useful way of describing position in the magnetosphere. Instead, magnetic local time is used. This has value 0 (midnight) in the anti-sunward direction, 12 (noon) in the sunward direction and 6 (dawn) and 18 (dusk) perpendicular to the sunward/anti-sunward line. This is basically an extension of the local solar time on Earth, projected vertically upwards into space although allowance is made for the tilt of the dipole.

3.2.30 Maxwellian distribution

plasma distribution functions described in terms of scalar velocity, v , by the Maxwellian distribution below:

$$f(v) = 4\pi n \left(\frac{m}{2\pi kT} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} v^2 \exp \left(-\frac{v^2 m}{2kT} \right) \quad (3-3)$$

where

n is the density;
 k is the Boltzmann constant;
 T is the temperature.

NOTE The complete distribution is therefore described by a pair of numbers for density and temperature. This distribution is valid in thermal equilibrium. Even non-equilibrium distributions can often be usefully described by a combination of two Maxwellians.

3.2.31 meteoroids

particles in space which are of natural origin

NOTE nearly all meteoroids originate from asteroids or comets.

3.2.32 meteoroid stream

meteoroids that retain the orbit of their parent body and that can create periods of high flux

3.2.33 nano-Tesla

standard unit of Geomagnetism

NOTE An older unit, not widely used now, is the Gauss, which is 10^5 nT.

3.2.34 omnidirectional flux

scalar integral of the flux over all directions

NOTE This implies that no consideration is taken of the directional distribution of the particles which can be non-isotropic. The flux at a point is the number of particles crossing a sphere of unit cross-sectional surface area (i.e. of radius $1/\sqrt{\pi}$). An omnidirectional flux is not to be confused with an isotropic flux.

3.2.35 particulate contaminant

solid or liquid contaminant particles

3.2.36 plasma

partly or wholly ionized gas whose particles exhibit collective response to magnetic and electric fields

NOTE The collective motion is brought about by the electrostatic Coulomb force between charged particles. This causes the particles to rearrange themselves to counteract electric fields within a distance of the order of the Debye length. On spatial scales larger than the Debye length plasmas are electrically neutral.

3.2.37 radiation

transfer of energy by means of a particle (including photons)

3.2.38 single-event upset (SEU), single-event effect (SEE), single-event latch-up (SEL)

effects resulting from the highly localized deposition of energy by single particles or their reaction products and where the energy deposition is sufficient to cause observable effects

3.2.39 sporadic flux

random flux with no apparent pattern

3.2.40 total Solar irradiance (TSI)

mean level of solar radiation that falls on a unit area normal to the line from the Sun per unit time outside the Earth's atmosphere, at one AU from Sun-centre

NOTE 1 1 AU = 149 597 870 700 m.

NOTE 2 Total Solar Irradiance is historically known as "solar constant".

3.2.41 solar flare

emission of optical, UV and X-radiation from an energetic event on the Sun

NOTE There is some controversy about the causal relationship between solar flares and the arrival of large fluxes of energetic particles at Earth. Therefore, it is more consistent to refer to the latter as Solar Energetic Particle Events (SEPEs).

3.2.42 thermosphere

Earth's atmosphere between 120 km and 250 km to approximately 400 km (depending on the activity level), where temperature has an exponential increase up to a limiting value T_{∞} at the thermopause (where T_{∞} is the exospheric temperature)

3.2.43 trackable objects

objects regularly observed and catalogued by ground-based sensors of a space surveillance network

NOTE Trackable objects are typically objects larger than about 5 cm to 10 cm in LEO and larger than about 50 cm to 1 m in GEO.

3.2.44 world magnetic model

revised every five years by a US-UK geomagnetic consortium, primarily for military use

3.3 Abbreviated terms

For the purpose of this Standard, the abbreviated terms from ECSS-S-ST-00-01 and the following apply:

Abbreviation	Meaning
ASTM	American Society for Testing and Materials
AE	auroral electrojet
AO	atomic oxygen
BIRA	Belgisch Instituut voor Ruimte-Aeronomie
CIRA	COSPAR International Reference Atmosphere
COSPAR	Committee on Space Research
DISCOS	ESA's database and information system characterizing objects in space
DTM	density and temperature model
ESP Model	Emission of Solar Protons Model
GCR	galactic cosmic ray
GEO	geostationary Earth orbit
GNSS	global navigation satellite system
GRAM	global reference atmosphere model
GSM	geocentric solar magnetospheric co-ordinates
HEO	highly eccentric orbit
HWM	horizontal wind model
IAGA	International Association for Geomagnetism and Aeronomy
IASB	Institute d'Aeronomie Spatiale de Belgique
IERS	international earth rotation service
IGRF	international geomagnetic reference field
IMF	interplanetary magnetic field
JB-2006	Jacchia-Bowman semi-empirical model (2006)
JB-2008	Jacchia-Bowman semi-empirical model (2008)
LDEF	long duration exposure facility
LEO	low Earth orbit
LET	linear energy transfer
MASTER	meteoroid and space debris terrestrial environment reference model
MEO	medium (altitude) Earth orbit
MLT	magnetic local time
MSIS	mass spectrometer and incoherent scatter
NIEL	non-ionizing energy loss
nT	nano-Tesla

Abbreviation	Meaning
R	sunspot number
R _c	rigidity Cut-off for geomagnetic shielding
R _E	Earth radius
RHU	radioisotope heater unit
R _J	jovian radius
r.m.s.	root-mean-square
RTG	radioisotope thermo-electric generator
SEU	single-event upset
SEE	single-event effect
SEL	single-event latch-up
SEPs	solar energetic particles
SEPE	solar energetic particle events
sfu	solar flux unit
SPE	solar particle events
SRP	solar radiation pressure
SPIDR	Space Physics Interactive Data Resource
SW	solar wind
URSI	Union Radio Science Internationale
WMM	world magnetic model

4

Gravity

4.1 Introduction and description

4.1.1 Introduction

Any two bodies attract each other with a force that is proportional to the product of their masses, and inversely proportional to the square of the distance between them (Newton's law):

$$F = G \frac{m_1 m_2}{r^2} \quad (4-1)$$

where

F is the gravitational force

$G = (6,67408 \pm 0,00031) \times 10^{-11} \text{m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1} \text{s}^{-2}$ is the universal gravitational constant

m_1, m_2 are the two point masses

r is the distance between the masses

The simplest case of gravitational attraction occurs between bodies that can be considered as point masses. These are bodies at a relative distance r that is sufficiently large in comparison to the sizes of the bodies to ignore the *shape* of the bodies. For two spherical bodies with a homogeneous mass distribution Newton's law is correct also at all locations above their surface ("2-body problem").

Also third body perturbations and tidal effects are important for an accurate analysis of the gravitational interaction.

4.1.2 Gravity model formulation

Without compromising the general validity of underlying theories, all subsequent gravity model discussions are focused on the Earth. The gravity acceleration acting on a point mass, which is external to the central body, is the gradient of the potential function U of that body. The corresponding geopotential surface satisfies the so called Laplace equation:

$$\nabla^2 U = 0 \quad (4-2)$$

The corresponding perturbing acceleration can be determined from equation (4-3) by means of computationally efficient recursion algorithms (e.g. as in [RD.1]).

$$\ddot{\vec{r}} = \nabla U \quad (4-3)$$

where

$\ddot{\vec{r}}$ is the 2nd time derivative of the position vector.

The solution U of the partial differential equation (4-2) is typically written in the form of a series expansion, in terms of so-called surface spherical harmonic functions, for a location defined in spherical coordinates r, λ, φ .

$$U = \frac{GM}{r} \left\{ 1 + \sum_{l=2}^N \left(\frac{a_e}{r} \right)^l \sum_{m=0}^l [C_{lm} \cos(m\lambda) + S_{lm} \sin(m\lambda)] P_{lm}(\sin\varphi) \right\} \quad (4-4)$$

where

$GM = \mu$ is the gravity constant of the Earth (M being its mass);

$\mu = 3,986004415 \times 10^{14} \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-2}$ for the EIGEN-GL04C model

a_e is the mean equatorial radius of the Earth;

$a_e = 6\,378\,136,460 \text{ m}$ for the EIGEN-GL04C model

r is the radial distance from centre of the Earth to satellite

N is the maximum degree of the expansion

l is the degree of a certain harmonic function

m is the order of a certain harmonic function

C_{lm}, S_{lm} are coefficients that determine amplitude and phase of a certain harmonic function

λ is the geodetic longitude of the sub-satellite point

φ is the geodetic latitude of the sub-satellite point

P_{lm} are associated Legendre functions of the first kind, of degree l and order m ; recurrence relations for these functions are available in the literature (e.g. [RD.1]).

A gravity model consists of adopted values for GM, a_e , and a set of model coefficients C_{lm}, S_{lm} . Practical implementations of gravity models, e.g. for numerical integration of a satellite orbit, are typically interested in the gravity acceleration resulting from the potential function U in (4-4). Corresponding partial derivatives of (4-4) in Cartesian coordinates of an Earth-fixed system x, y, z can be computed recursively (see [RD.1]).

The model coefficients C_{lm}, S_{lm} are typically provided in their normalized versions, according to (4-5) in order to limit their numerical range for higher degrees and orders.

$$\begin{Bmatrix} \overline{C}_{lm} \\ \overline{S}_{lm} \end{Bmatrix} = \sqrt{\frac{(l+m)!}{k(2l+1)(l-m)!}} \begin{Bmatrix} C_{lm} \\ S_{lm} \end{Bmatrix} \quad k = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } m = 0 \\ 2 & \text{for } m \neq 0 \end{cases} \quad (4-5)$$

The Legendre functions $P_{lm}(\sin \varphi)$ in this case are normalized by the inverse of the square root in equation (4-5).

4.1.3 Third body gravitation

When acting as a third-body perturbation, the gravitational attraction by the Sun and its planets can be modelled by means of point mass attractions. This requires knowledge on the masses and positions of the bodies, as well as some guidelines on which effects are important. In general, for orbit computations of Earth-orbiting satellites it is sufficient to include the planetary gravity due to Venus, Mars, Jupiter and Saturn; the other planets are either too small, or too far away to have any significant impact on a satellite orbit around the Earth.

4.1.4 Tidal effects

The gravity potential of a central body only represents the static part of the gravitational acceleration acting on a satellite. There are, however, additional gravity-related effects due to tides that can be important for precise applications. Several tidal effects can be distinguished (see [RD.1]):

- Solid Earth tides associated with the deformations of the Earth's body under the gravitational effects of Sun and Moon and leading to complicated variations in the geopotential coefficients.
- Ocean tides, associated with the displacements of the ocean water masses under the effect of solar and lunar tides. The water displacements in turn modify the geopotential in complicated variational patterns.
- The permanent tide, which is a non-zero constant component of the above tides which nonetheless is not considered part of the static geopotential.
- Pole tides, which are due to the centrifugal effects of polar motion, which in turn is the movement of the Earth's body axis relative to the instantaneous axis of rotation.

4.2 Requirements for model selection and application

4.2.1 General requirements for gravity models

- a. Gravity effects shall be included in all orbit determination and orbit prediction processes, and in attitude determination and prediction processes for Earth and planetary orbiters.
- b. The inclusion of different gravity sources, their associated model details, and corresponding model truncation errors shall be compliant with the requirements on orbit and/or attitude determination accuracy, and be at

least of the same perturbation order as considered perturbing accelerations due to non-gravitational effects.

- c. The retained accuracy level of a gravity model shall be compliant with the accuracy of the position and orientation of the central body.

NOTE Harmonic coefficients can lead to resonance effects, if they have a degree or order close to some integer multiple of the ground track repeat cycle. For orbits that are known to be repetitive, it is then recommendable to include discrete resonant harmonics of degrees that normally fall outside the truncated expansion series.

4.2.2 Selection and application of gravity models

- a. For Earth orbits a gravity model shall be applied that fulfills the following:
 - 1. The model is a global and static model
 - 2. The model is based on Grace or GOCE data
 - 3. The model is published at:
http://icgem.gfz-potsdam.de/tom_longtime
 - 4. The model is described by spherical harmonic coefficients up to at least degree and order of 70.

NOTE 1 For example the EIGEN-GLO4C model [RN.1] fulfills given requirements. It has a spatial resolution in latitude and longitude of $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ (corresponding to degree $\times$ order = 360×360).

NOTE 2 For other planetary environments no standard gravity model exists. Some information for Jupiter is provided in [RD.148].

- b. Data on gravitational effects from tides and on Earth orientation parameters shall be obtained from the International Earth Rotation Service IERS given in **Error! Reference source not found.**
- c. For third body gravitational perturbations the Development Ephemerides data on planets (DE-430) and the Lunar Ephemerides data (LE-430), both given in **Error! Reference source not found.**, shall be used.
- d. For planetary mass values the 2010 standards of the International Earth Rotation Services IERS, as described in IERS Technical Note 36 **Error! eference source not found.**, shall be used.

Geomagnetic fields

5.1 Introduction and description

5.1.1 The geomagnetic field and its sources

Within the magnetopause, the boundary between the influence of the solar wind and embedded IMF of solar origin, the near-Earth environment is strongly influenced by the geomagnetic field. The geomagnetic field is due to a variety of sources, those within the Earth, those within the ionosphere, and those within the magnetosphere.

The Earth's magnetic field is responsible for organizing the flow of ionized plasmas within most regions of the near-Earth environment. Hence, it determines the boundaries of distinct plasma regimes. The magnetic field is also used widely for attitude measurement and for important spacecraft sub-systems such as magneto-torquers.

5.1.2 The internal field

Under quiet solar and geomagnetic activity conditions, the magnetic field measured at the Earth's surface is primarily (>90%) due to a magneto-hydrodynamic dynamo, operating in the liquid outer core of the Earth. The secular (or time) variation of this field operates on a scale of months to centuries, or more, with position dependent amplitude of anywhere between zero and up to a few hundred nT year⁻¹. The core field morphology is closely dipolar, at least far from the Earth, and is inclined to the Earth's rotation axis by around 11 degrees at the present time (see Figure E-1).

Superimposed on this core field is the static magnetic field of geological sources in the lithosphere and upper mantle. Typically the field from these crustal rocks decays rapidly away from the source. For example, in low Earth orbit, the crustal signature is probably no more than about 20 nT, decaying rapidly with altitude.

Traditionally the combination of the core and crustal field is referred to as the "main field". The mean "main field" as measured at the Earth's surface is depicted in Figure E-1.

5.1.3 External field: ionospheric components

Currents flowing in the ionosphere induce an external magnetic field component. Sources of these currents include wind-driven motion of ionospheric plasma that produces a daily variation field known as *S_q* ('solar quiet'). This takes the form of two vortices, fixed north and south of the Sun-Earth line, on the dayside of the Earth, as the Earth rotates beneath. Along the geomagnetic equator an equatorial electrojet is formed, due to a high conductivity channel related to the near-

horizontal field morphology. Below (or above) this electrojet the field amplitude can be enhanced by several hundred nT, within about five degrees i.e. a few hundred km of the magnetic equator.

At auroral latitudes (approximately 55-65 magnetic degrees), the auroral electrojet is formed at the open/closed field line boundary. This electrojet is fed by field-aligned currents that connect the ionosphere to the magnetospheric flanks and to the night-side tail and partial ring current sheet. The magnitude of the resulting induced fields is very dynamic and can be many hundreds of nT as observed at ground level or in low Earth orbit during periods of disturbed geomagnetic activity.

In the lower magnetosphere there are inter-hemispheric (field-aligned) currents of several nT at around 400 km altitude. Plasma 'bubbles' can also cause localised magnetic variations of a few nT to be measured by low-Earth orbit satellite altitudes. At high and polar latitudes the Earth's field is also open to the solar wind and cusp currents, also known as Region 0 currents flow.

5.1.4 External magnetic field: magnetospheric components

In the magnetosphere, there are several major current systems controlled by the interaction of the Earth's field with the solar wind. The strength of the total magnetospheric field is closely tied to solar and solar wind variations and to plasma outflow from the ionosphere. The major magnetospheric magnetic fields are a result of: magnetopause currents; cross-tail currents, and the symmetric and partial ring currents.

Magnetopause currents flow to shield the internal field from the IMF. And connect to a cross-tail current sheet that separates lobes of opposite magnetic polarity, extending hundreds of Earth radii down-wind from the Earth. An azimuthal drift of plasma (westward for ions, eastwards for electrons) around the Earth produces the symmetric ring current. The partial, or asymmetric, ring current is found on the dusk-side of the Earth and is closed via ionospheric currents. Figure E-2 provides the general morphology of model magnetospheric field lines, according to the Tsyganenko 1989 model [RD.111] showing the seasonal variation, dependent on rotation axis tilt. This figure shows a cut in the noon-midnight plane.

5.1.5 Models of the internal and external geomagnetic fields

The magnetic field is commonly modelled by expressing the field as a series of spherical harmonic terms. There has been much scientific activity in the field modelling community and in source field reconstruction. This is due to several successful satellite magnetometer surveys, such as those of Ørsted, Champ and Swarm.

5.1.5.1 Models of the internal field

Scientific models of the internal field now extend to around spherical harmonic degree 100, equivalent to a minimum wavelength of 400 km at the Earth's surface.

However the effective amplitudes of these high degree terms decrease rapidly with increasing altitude above the Earth's surface. The core field, which dominates for degrees less than about 14 at the Earth's surface, can be readily simplified to that of a simple inclined and offset dipole or a low-degree model for spacecraft operation above a few hundred km altitude.

Although they are by no means the only recognised high quality models, the IGRF models are products of the international community of geomagnetic scientists, updated on a five-year basis, assuming a linear secular variation between updates.

The descriptive annex to this Chapter (Annex E) describes in more detail the current revision of the IGRF, and further information on other internal field models.

5.1.5.2 Models of the external field

There are a number of dynamic models of the external field. These are typically either empirical (in the sense of a simplified mathematical model fit to measured data), analytic (based on physical models of the various external current systems), or magneto-hydrodynamic (or 'general circulation models'). Of the latter type, the science is rapidly evolving and whilst, in principle, they should fully capture the details of magnetospheric processes, such models are judged not yet mature enough to serve as a reliable standard.

Of those models that are currently maintained and updated in the light of new data and new field parameterisations, the model of Tsyganenko (revised repeatedly between 1987 and 2006 [RN.31] [RD.98] [RD.99] [RD.111] [RD.112]) is well used and is empirical in nature. The model of Alexeev *et al* (2001) [RN.30] is described as an analytic model. This model is at the core of an International Standards Organisation (ISO) standard external field model [RD.113].

The availability of suitable inputs to external models is a factor that affects whether they can be useful in common applications. Alexeev *et al* (2001) [RN.30] has inputs of date, time, solar wind density and velocity, and Tsyganenko 1996 [RN.31] has inputs of solar wind pressure, Dst and IMF By and Bz components. Tsyganenko 2002 to 2005 [RD.98] [RD.99] models require a more complex set of inputs.

Further discussion of these models and of their applications are dealt with in Annex E.

5.2 Requirements for model selection and application

5.2.1 The internal field

- a. IGRF-12 [RN.29] shall be used as the Internal Geomagnetic Field Model.

NOTE As a stand-alone model, the inputs required of the IGRF-12 are either position in geodetic coordinates, according to the reference 'World Geodetic Service 84' standard ellipsoid, or position in a geocentric system, with respect to

the centre of the Earth and for which the reference Earth radius is 6 371,2 km. The coordinates are therefore geodetic or geocentric latitude in decimal degrees, longitude (same in both coordinate systems), altitude in km above the reference ellipsoid, or distance in km from the centre of the Earth. Time is input in decimal years, e.g. 2 007,5. It is recommended that geocentric data are used, to avoid errors or confusion in respect of the reference ellipsoid.

- b. If a different model is an inherent part of a specific space environment model, then that specific geomagnetic field model shall be used.

NOTE An example is the AE8 and AP8 radiation flux / belt models (see Clause 9)

5.2.1.1 Application

- a. For times in the past and in the future, IGRF-12 shall be used, in association with its secular variations.

NOTE 1 IGRF-12 and future versions contain revisions of models of earlier epochs.

NOTE 2 Beyond 5 years from the assumed epoch (2015), the precision of the model is considerably reduced. IGRF-13 is expected to be issued for the epoch 2020, and can be used post 2019.

5.2.2 The external field

- a. For modelling the average characteristics of the terrestrial magnetic field and its variation according to geomagnetic and solar activity, one of the following two external magnetic field models shall be used:

1. Alexeev et al 2001, [RN.30]
2. Tsyganenko 1996 [RN.31]

NOTE 1 These models are suitable for assessment of the mean and range of magnetic field strength; for estimation of B and L coordinates (but not for input to radiation belt models created with different field models); and in calculation of geomagnetic shielding of cosmic rays and solar particles.

NOTE 2 Recently, external field models have been created (e.g. Tsyganenko 2001 [RD.98], 2004 [RD.99]) that are used in research environments for dynamic modelling of field variations, e.g. substorm development. These have the capacity to represent more accurately the instantaneous magnetic field, but are not given here as standards because the definition of inputs to the

models is not reasonably achievable in an engineering environment.

5.3 Tailoring guidelines

- a. While the IGRF-12 model should normally be used for internal fields, a low-fidelity dipole model, using aligned, eccentric or tilted dipoles as appropriate, can be sufficient for some engineering applications.
- b. For the external field, the recent Tsyganenko 2001 [RD.98] and 2004 [RD.99] models may be used instead of the reference models defined in clause 5.2.2.

NOTE Most engineering applications do not need the external-source model augmentation of these later Tsyganenko models. These are only useful for certain scientific magnetospheric missions, for instance if data on high latitude or high altitude variability of the fields with respect to local time and solar-geomagnetic activity was important.

Natural electromagnetic radiation and indices

6.1 Introduction and description

6.1.1 Introduction

A spacecraft in LEO receives electromagnetic radiation from three primary external sources. The largest source is the direct solar flux. The mean value of this solar flux at the mean Sun-Earth distance is called the “solar constant”. It is not really a constant but varies by about 3,4 % during each year because of the slightly elliptical orbit of the Earth about the Sun. The two other radiation sources are the fraction of the incident sunlight reflected off the planet, termed albedo, and the Earth infrared radiation.

Solar and geomagnetic activities are often described by indices. The UV radiation of the Sun, which strongly affects the Earth atmosphere, cannot be directly measured from the ground. But it was found to be strongly correlated with e.g. the sunspot number and the cm wavelength Sun radiation. For example, the widely used 10,7 cm radio flux index ($F_{10.7}$) gives an indication of the solar UV radiation output which is highly variable over a solar cycle.

Geomagnetic indices typically describe the variation of the geomagnetic field over a certain time period. They provide a measure of the disturbance of the magnetosphere which has direct consequences for the charged particle space environment, or the external component of the geomagnetic field.

Solar and geomagnetic indices are used as input for upper atmosphere and other models of the near Earth space environment. They are provided for short durations or as long time averages. Predictions for future index values are usually provided at different confidence levels and they are available for complete solar cycles. The given data are mainly average values. For detailed thermal analyses or certain special applications, more detailed data and models are required. These are outside the scope of this Standard.

6.1.2 Electromagnetic radiation and indices

6.1.2.1 Total Solar Irradiance (TSI)

The TSI value and one-sigma uncertainty are presently taken to be $1361 \pm 0,5 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ [RD.149]. In addition, the long-term (yearly) smoothed solar cycle minimum-to-maximum relative variation is approximately $1,3 \text{ W m}^{-2}$, with the (yearly) smoothed solar minimum value being approximately $1360,5 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ and the smoothed solar maximum value being approximately 1362 W m^{-2} .