A. Theoretical Fundamentals of Airborne Gravimetry, Parts I and II (Monday, 23 May 2016)
I. Introduction - Airborne Gravity Data Acquisition
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VI. Theoretical Fundamentals of Airborne Gradiometry

## I. Introduction - Airborne Gravity Data Acquisition

- A very brief history of airborne gravimetry
- Why airborne gravimetry?


## A Brief History of Airborne Gravimetry

- Natural evolution of successes in $1^{\text {st }}$ half of $20^{\text {th }}$ century with ocean-bottom, submarine, and shipboard gravimeters operating in dynamic environments
- airborne systems promised rapid, if not highly accurate, regional gravity maps for exploration reconnaissance and military geodetic applications
- Special challenges
- critical errors are functions of speed and speed-squared
- difficulty in accurate altitude \& vertical acceleration determination
- trade accuracy for acquisition speed
- 1958: First fixed-wing airborne gravimetry test (Thompson and LaCoste 1960)
- 5-10 minute average, 10 mgal accuracy
- high altitude, 6-9 km
- Further tests by exploration concerns
- LaCoste \& Romberg, Austin TX
- Gravity Meter Exploration Co., Houston, TX
- 10 mGal accuracy, $\mathbf{3}$ minute averages (Nettleton et al. 1960)


## First Airborne Gravity Test - Air Force Geophysics Lab

 1958

Instruction Manual LaCoste Romberg Model "S" Air-Sea Dynamic Gravity Meter, 2002; with permission

- The first LaCoste-Romberg
- KC-135 jet tanker Model "S" Air-Sea Gravimeter
- Doppler navigation system - elevation above mean sea level determined from the tracking range data
- flights over an Askania camera tracking range at Edwards Air Force Base


## First Successful Helicopter Airborne Gravimetry Test 1965



- Carson Services, Inc. (Carson Helicopter)
- gimbal-suspended LaCoste and Romberg Sea gravimeter
- 5 mGal accuracy, hovering at 15 m altitude (Gumert 1998)
- Navy sponsored
- Further tests and development by exploration companies
- principally, Carson Services throughout the 1960s and 1970s

Rapid Development with Advent of GPS (1980s and 1990s)

- Naval Research Laboratory
- John Brozena
- National Survey and Cadastre of Denmark (DKM) - Rene Forsberg
- Academia (in collaboration with industry and government)
- University of Calgary (K.P. Schwarz)
- University FAF Munich (G. Hein)
- Swiss Federal Institute of Technology (E.E. Klingele)

Olesen (2003)


Twin-Otter Aircraft

- Lamont-Doherty Earth (Geological) Observatory (R. Bell)
- Industry ...



## The Need for Global Gravity Data

- Gravity data until the early 1960s were obtained primarily by point measurements on land and along some ship tracks.
- map of data archive of 1963 (Kaula 1963)



## 1990s - More Data, Still Many Gaps

- Greater uniformity, but only at relatively low resolution
- map of terrestrial $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ anomaly archive of 1990 (Rapp and Pavlis 1990)


Fig. 3. Location of $45,1261^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ free-air anomalies in the OSU July 1989 file excluding geophysically predicted values.

## Why Airborne Gravimetry?

Satellite Resolution vs Mission Duration and Integration Time

- Satellite-derived gravitational models are limited in spatial resolution because of high inherent satellite speed
- Only airborne gravimetry yields higher resolution efficiently



## Gravity Resolution vs Accuracy Requirements in Geophysics

Satellite Gravimetry/Gradiometry Airborne Gravimetry/Gradiometry


## Geodetic Motivation



## GNSS and Geopotential

- Traditional height reference surface: equipotential surface (geoid)
- needed for determining and monitoring the flow of water, from flood control to sea level rise
- replace arduous spirit leveling with GNSS: $\quad H=h-N$



## II. Elemental Review of Physical Geodesy

- Gravitational potential, gravity
- Normal gravity
- Disturbing potential, gravity anomaly, deflection of the vertical
- Geoid determination aspects


## Basic Definitions

- Gravitational potential, $V$
- due to mass attraction
- gravitational acceleration: $\boldsymbol{g}=\nabla V$
- Centrifugal "potential", $\phi$
- due to Earth's rotation
- centrifugal acceleration: $\boldsymbol{a}_{\text {cent }}=\nabla \phi$

- Gravity potential, $W=V+\phi$
- gravity acceleration: $\quad \overline{\boldsymbol{g}}=\boldsymbol{g}+\boldsymbol{a}_{\text {cent }}$

Physical geodesy makes the distinction between gravitation and gravity, especially in terrestrial gravimetry

## Normal Gravitational Potential

- Mathematically simple potential and boundary
- approximates Earth's potential and geoid to about 5 ppm
- approximates Earth's gravity to about 50 ppm
- rotates with the Earth



## Normal Gravity Potential

- Expressed as spherical harmonic series in spherical coordinates

$$
\begin{aligned}
U(r, \theta) & =V(r, \theta)+\phi(r, \theta) \\
& =\frac{G M}{a} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\left(\frac{a}{r}\right)^{2 n+1} C_{2 n}^{N} P_{2 n}(\cos \theta)+\frac{1}{2} \omega_{e}^{2} r^{2} \sin ^{2} \theta
\end{aligned}
$$

- closed expression exists in ellipsoidal coordinates
- $C_{2 n}^{N}$ depends on only 4 parameters: $\omega_{e}, C_{2}^{N}, a, G M$
- (e.g., WGS84 parameters)
- Normal gravity vector: $\gamma=\nabla U$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \omega_{e}=7.292115 \times 10^{-5} \mathrm{rad} / \mathrm{s} \\
& C_{2}^{N}=-0.484166774985 \times 10^{-3} \\
& a=6378137 . \mathrm{m} \\
& G M=3.986004418 \times 10^{14} \mathrm{~m}^{3} / \mathrm{s}^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Gravity Disturbance and Anomaly

- Disturbing potential: $\quad T=W-U \quad$ ( $W=$ total gravity potential)
- Gravity disturbance vector: $\delta \boldsymbol{g}=\nabla W-\nabla U=\boldsymbol{g}-\gamma$
- gravity disturbance: $\quad \delta g=|g|-|\gamma|$
- in $n$-frame (North-East-Down): $\quad \delta \boldsymbol{g}^{n}=\left(\begin{array}{c}g_{N}-\gamma_{N} \\ g_{E} \\ g_{D}-\gamma_{D}\end{array}\right) \approx\left(\begin{array}{c}g_{N} \\ g_{E} \\ g_{D}-\gamma_{D}\end{array}\right)$
${ }^{\circ}$ near Earth's surface, $\gamma_{\mathrm{N}} \approx 0$
- Gravity anomaly vector: $\Delta \boldsymbol{g}_{P}=\nabla W_{P}-\nabla U_{Q}=\boldsymbol{g}_{P}-\gamma_{Q}$
- $P$ and $Q$ are points on the ellipsoid normal such that $W_{P}=U_{Q}$
- gravity anomaly: $\quad \Delta g_{P}=\left|g_{P}\right|-\left|\gamma_{Q}\right|$


## Deflection of the Vertical


$\xi=$ north deflection
$\eta=$ east deflection
$\nabla T=\delta \boldsymbol{g}^{n} \approx\left(\begin{array}{c}-\xi g \\ -\eta g \\ \delta g\end{array}\right) \approx\left(\begin{array}{c}g_{N} \\ g_{E} \\ g_{D}-\gamma_{D}\end{array}\right)$

- linear approximation
- signs agree with convention of astronomic deflection of the vertical


## Geoid Determination

- Bruns's Formula: $\quad N_{P_{0}}=\frac{1}{\gamma_{Q_{0}}} T_{P_{0}}+N_{0} \quad$ where $N_{0}$ is a height datum offset
- Boundary-value Problem: $\quad \nabla^{2} T=0$ above geoid (by assumption)

$$
\begin{gathered}
\Delta g_{P^{\prime}}, \Delta g_{P_{a}^{\prime}} \\
+
\end{gathered}
$$

gravity reductions

$$
\begin{gathered}
\| \\
\Delta g_{P_{0}^{\prime}}
\end{gathered}
$$

- Stokes's formula

$$
N_{P_{0}}=N_{0}+\frac{R}{4 \pi \gamma_{Q_{0}}} \iint_{\Omega} \Delta g_{P_{0}} S\left(\psi_{P_{0}, P_{0}}\right) d \Omega
$$


+
gravity redu
$\|$
$\Delta g_{P_{0}^{\prime}}$

## Details

- Gravity reductions to satisfy the boundary-value conditions
- re-distribution of topographic mass; consequent indirect effect
- downward continuation (various methods)
- Ellipsoidal corrections
- account for spherical approximation of geoid, boundary condition
- Include existing spherical harmonic model (satellite-derived)
- remove-compute-restore techniques
- Back to Motivation
- use airborne gravimetry to improve spatial resolution of data (boundary values) - few km to 200 km wavelengths


## III. Basic Theory of Moving-Base Scalar Gravimetry

- Fundamental laws of physics and the gravimetry equation
- Coordinate frames
- Mechanizations and methods of scalar gravimetry
- Rudimentary error analyses


## Fundamental Physical Laws

- Moving-Base Gravimetry and Gradiometry are based on 3 fundamental laws in physics
- Newton's Second Law of Motion
- Newton's Law of Gravitation

Issac Newton 1643-1727

- Einstein's Equivalence Principle
- Laws are expressed in an inertial frame
- General Relativistic effects are not yet needed


Albert Einstein 1879-1955

- however, the interpretation of space in the theory of general relativity is used to distinguish between applied and gravitational forces


## Inertial Frame


notation convention:

- axis identified by number
- superscript identifies frame
- The realization of a system of coordinates that does not rotate (and is in free-fall, e.g., Earth-centered)
- Modern definition: fixed to quasars - which exhibit no relative motion on celestial sphere
- International Celestial Reference Frame (ICRF) based on coordinates of 295 stable quasars


## Newton's Second Law of Motion

- Time-rate of change of linear momentum equals applied force, $F$

$$
\frac{d}{d t}\left(m_{i} \dot{\boldsymbol{x}}\right)=\boldsymbol{F}
$$


$-m_{i}$ is the inertial mass of the test body

$$
\left(m_{i}=\text { constant } \rightarrow m_{i} \ddot{\boldsymbol{x}}=\boldsymbol{F}\right)
$$

- In the presence of a gravitational field, this law must be modified:

$$
m_{i} \ddot{\boldsymbol{x}}=\boldsymbol{F}+\boldsymbol{F}_{g}
$$

- $F_{g}$ is a force associated with the gravitational acceleration due to a field (or space curvature) generated by all masses in the universe, relative to the freely-falling frame (Earth's mass and tidal effects due to moon, sun, etc.)
- action forces, $\boldsymbol{F}$, and gravitational forces, $F_{\boldsymbol{g}}$, are fundamentally different


## Newton's Law of Gravitation

- Gravitational force vector

$$
\boldsymbol{F}_{g}=G \frac{M m_{g}}{\ell^{2}} \boldsymbol{n}=m_{g} \boldsymbol{g}
$$

- $G=$ Newton's gravitational constant
- $g$ = gravitational acceleration due to $M$
- $m_{g}$ is the gravitational mass of the test body
- it's easier to work with field potential, $V$

$$
\boldsymbol{g}=\nabla V \quad V=G M / \ell
$$

- Many mass points
- law of superposition:
- mass continuum:

$$
\begin{aligned}
V_{P} & =G \sum_{j} \frac{M_{j}}{\ell_{j}} \\
V_{P} & =G \int_{M} \frac{d M}{\ell}
\end{aligned}
$$



## Equivalence Principle (1)

- A. Einstein (1907): No experiment performed in a closed system can distinguish between an accelerated reference frame or a reference frame at rest in a uniform gravitational field.
- consequence: inertial mass equals gravitational mass

$$
m_{i}=m_{g}=m
$$

- Experimental evidence has not been able to dispute this assumption
- violation of the principle may lead to new theories that unify gravitational and other forces
- proposed French Space Agency mission, MICROSCOPE*, aims to push the sensitivity by many orders of magnitude

TESTS OF THE
WEAK EQUIVALENCE PRINCIPLE


YEAR OF EXPERIMENT Micro-satellite to Observe the Equivalence Principle); Berge et al. (2015) http://arxiv.org/abs/1501.01644

## Equivalence Principle (2)

- Equation of motion in the inertial frame

$$
\ddot{\boldsymbol{x}}^{i}=\frac{\boldsymbol{F}^{i}}{m}+\boldsymbol{g}^{i}
$$

- $\ddot{\boldsymbol{x}}=\frac{d^{2} x}{d t^{2}}, \underset{\text { kinematic acceleration }}{\text { vector of total }}$
$\circ \frac{\boldsymbol{F}^{i}}{m}=\boldsymbol{a}^{i}, \begin{aligned} & \text { specific force, or the } \\ & \begin{array}{l}\text { acceleration resulting from } \\ \text { an action force, e.g., thrust } \\ \text { of a rocket }\end{array}\end{aligned}$ of a rocket


$$
\ddot{\boldsymbol{x}}^{i}=a^{i}+\boldsymbol{g}^{i}
$$

$$
|\boldsymbol{a}| \leq|\boldsymbol{g}| \Rightarrow \text { no lift-off ! }
$$

## What Does an Accelerometer Sense?

gravitational field, $g$ no applied acceleration

accelerometer indicates: 0
gravitational field, $g$ applied acceleration, $a$


- Accelerometer does not sense gravitation, only acceleration due to action force (including reaction forces!)


## What Does Accelerometer (or Gravimeter) on Rocket Sense?



## Static Gravimetry - Special Case

- Assume non-rotating Earth (for simplicity) $\quad g=\ddot{\boldsymbol{x}}-a$
- Relative (spring) gravimeter: $\ddot{\boldsymbol{x}}=\mathbf{0} \Rightarrow a=-\boldsymbol{g}$
- it is an accelerometer that senses specific force, $a$
- with sensitive axis along plumb line, $a$ is the reaction force
 of Earth's surface that keeps the gravimeter from falling
- Absolute (ballistic) gravimeter: $a=0 \Rightarrow \ddot{\boldsymbol{x}}=\boldsymbol{g}$
- it tracks a test mass in vacuum (zero spring force)
- indirectly, it senses the reaction force that keeps the reference from falling
- All operational moving-base gravimeters are relative
 sensors


## Basic Equation for Moving-Base Gravimetry

- In the inertial frame:

$$
\boldsymbol{g}^{i}=\ddot{\boldsymbol{x}}^{i}-\boldsymbol{a}^{i}
$$

- Because:
- specific forces are measured in a non-inertial frame attached to a rotating body (vehicle)
- specific forces and kinematic accelerations refer to different measurement points of the instrument-carrying vehicle
- generally, gravitation is desired in a local, Earth-fixed frame
- Need to introduce:
- coordinate frames
- rotations and lever-arm effects

- Get more complicated expressions for gravimetry equation


## Two Possible Approaches to Determine g(1)

- For concepts, consider inertial frame for simplicity: $\ddot{\boldsymbol{x}}^{i}=\boldsymbol{a}^{i}+\boldsymbol{g}^{i}$
- Position (Tracking) Method to determine the unknown: $g$
- Integrate equations of motion

$$
\boldsymbol{x}^{i}(t)=\boldsymbol{x}^{i}\left(t_{0}\right)+\dot{\boldsymbol{x}}^{i}\left(t_{0}\right)\left(t-t_{0}\right)+\int_{t_{0}}^{t}\left(t-t^{\prime}\right)\left(\boldsymbol{a}^{i}\left(t^{\prime}\right)+\boldsymbol{g}^{i}\left(t^{\prime}\right)\right) d t^{\prime}
$$

- Positions, $x$ : from tracking system, like GPS or other GNSS
- Specific forces, a: from accelerometer
- method is used for geopotential determination with satellite tracking, and was used also with ground-based inertial positioning systems
- Advantage: do not need to differentiate $\boldsymbol{x}$ to get $\ddot{\boldsymbol{x}}$
- Disadvantage: $g$ must be modeled in some way to perform the integration (e.g., spherical harmonics in satellite tracking, with statistical constraint)
- Not used for scalar airborne gravimetry due to vertical instability of integral - but can be (is) used for horizontal components of gravity!


## Two Possible Approaches to Determine g(2)

- Accelerometry Method to determine the unknown: $g$

$$
\boldsymbol{g}^{i}=\ddot{\boldsymbol{x}}^{i}-\boldsymbol{a}^{i}
$$

- Specific force, $a$ : from accelerometer
- Kinematic acceleration, $\ddot{x}$ : by differentiating position from tracking system, like GPS (GNSS)
- Advantage: $g$ does not need to be modeled
- Disadvantage: positions are processed with two numerical differentiations ${ }^{\circ}$ advanced numerical techniques $\rightarrow$ may be less serious than gravity modeling problem
- Either position method or accelerometry method requires two independent sensor systems
- Tracking system
- Accelerometer (gravimeter)
- Gravimetry accuracy depends equally on the precision of both systems


## The Challenge of Airborne Gravimetry

- Both systems measure large signals e.g., ( $> \pm 10000 \mathrm{mGal})$
- Desired gravity disturbance is orders of magnitude smaller
- signal-to-noise ratio may be very small, depending on system accuracies
- e.g., INS/GPS system - data from University of Calgary, 1996

- IMU accelerations
- GPS accelerations (offset)

Subtract and filter

## Coordinate Frames

- Other coordinate frames
- rotating with respect to inertial frame,
- may have different origin point,
- have different form of Newton's law of motion,
- all defined by three mutually orthogonal, usually right-handed axes (Cartesian coordinates).
- Specific frames to be considered:
- navigation frame: frame in which navigation equations are formulated; usually identified with local North-East-Down (NED) directions ( $n$-frame).
- Earth-centered-Earth-fixed frame: frame with origin at Earth's center of mass and axes defined by conventional pole and Greenwich meridian (Cartesian or geodetic coordinates) (e-frame).


## Earth-Centered-Earth-Fixed Coordinates

- Cartesian coordinate vector in $e$-frame: $\boldsymbol{x}^{e}=\left(\begin{array}{lll}x_{1}^{e} & x_{2}^{e} & x_{3}^{e}\end{array}\right)^{\mathrm{T}}$
- Geodetic coordinates, latitude, longitude, height: $\phi, \lambda, h$
- refer to a particular ellipsoid (assume geocentric) with semi-major axis, $a$, and first eccentricity, $e$
- are orthogonal curvilinear $e$-frame coordinates



## Transforming Between Cartesian \& Geodetic Coordinates

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x_{1}^{e}=(N+h) \cos \phi \cos \lambda \\
& x_{2}^{e}=(N+h) \cos \phi \sin \lambda
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\phi=\tan ^{-1}\left(\frac{x_{3}^{e}}{\sqrt{\left(x_{1}^{e}\right)^{2}+\left(x_{2}^{e}\right)^{2}}}\left(1+\frac{e^{2} N \sin \phi}{x_{3}^{e}}\right)\right)
$$

$$
\lambda=\tan ^{-1}\left(x_{2}^{e} / x_{1}^{e}\right)
$$

$$
x_{3}^{e}=\left(N\left(1-e^{2}\right)+h\right) \sin \phi
$$

$$
h=\sqrt{\left(x_{1}^{e}\right)^{2}+\left(x_{2}^{e}\right)^{2}} \cos \phi+x_{3}^{e} \sin \phi-a^{2} / N
$$

- radius of curvature in prime vertical:

$$
N=\frac{a}{\sqrt{1-e^{2} \sin ^{2} \phi}}
$$

- radius of curvature in meridian:

$$
M=\frac{a\left(1-e^{2}\right)}{\left(1-e^{2} \sin ^{2} \phi\right)^{3 / 2}}
$$



- Cartesian and geodetic coordinates may be used interchangeably


## Rotations and Angular Rates Between Frames

- Assume common origin for frames
- $\mathbf{C}_{t}^{s}=$ matrix that rotates coordinates from $t$-frame to $s$-frame
- vector, $\boldsymbol{x}: \quad \boldsymbol{x}^{s}=\mathbf{C}_{t}^{s} \boldsymbol{x}^{t}$
- matrix, $A: \quad \mathbf{A}^{s}=\mathbf{C}_{t}^{s} \mathbf{A}^{t} \mathbf{C}_{s}^{t}$
$-\mathbf{C}_{t}^{s}$ is orthogonal: $\mathbf{C}_{s}^{t} \equiv\left(\mathbf{C}_{t}^{s}\right)^{-1}=\left(\mathbf{C}_{t}^{s}\right)^{\mathrm{T}}$
- $\omega_{s t}^{t}=$ angular rate vector of $t$-frame relative to $s$-frame; components in $t$-frame
- Let $\boldsymbol{\omega}_{s t}^{t}=\left(\begin{array}{l}\omega_{1} \\ \omega_{2} \\ \omega_{3}\end{array}\right) \quad$ then $\left[\boldsymbol{\omega}_{s t}^{t} \times\right] \equiv \boldsymbol{\Omega}_{s t}^{t}=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}0 & -\omega_{3} & \omega_{2} \\ \omega_{3} & 0 & -\omega_{1} \\ -\omega_{2} & \omega_{1} & 0\end{array}\right)$
- cross-product is same as multiplication by skew-symmetric matrix
- Time-derivative: $\dot{\mathbf{C}}_{t}^{s}=\mathbf{C}_{t}^{s}\left[\boldsymbol{\omega}_{s t}^{t} \times\right]=\mathbf{C}_{t}^{s} \boldsymbol{\Omega}_{s t}^{t}$


## Earth-Fixed vs. Inertial Frames

- Transformation of coordinates between i-frame and $e$-frame is just a rotation about the 3 -axis

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \boldsymbol{x}^{i}=\mathbf{C}_{e}^{i} \boldsymbol{x}^{e} \Rightarrow \quad \ddot{\boldsymbol{x}}^{i}=\ddot{\mathbf{C}}_{e}^{i} \boldsymbol{x}^{e}+2 \dot{\mathbf{C}}_{e}^{i} \dot{\boldsymbol{x}}^{e}+\mathbf{C}_{e}^{i} \ddot{\boldsymbol{x}}^{e} \\
& \boldsymbol{\omega}_{i e}^{e}=\left(\begin{array}{lll}
0^{*} & 0^{*} & \omega_{E}
\end{array}\right)^{\mathrm{T}} \\
& \omega_{E}=\text { Earth's rotation rate } \\
& \mathbf{0}^{*}=\begin{array}{c}
\text { neglect rates of polar motion and } \\
\text { precession/nutation }
\end{array} \\
& 1^{i} \\
& d \omega_{i e}^{e} / d t=\mathbf{0} \\
& \ddot{\boldsymbol{x}}^{i}=\mathbf{C}_{e}^{i}\left(\boldsymbol{\Omega}_{i e}^{e} \mathbf{\Omega}_{i e}^{e}+\dot{\boldsymbol{\Omega}}_{i e}^{e}\right) \boldsymbol{x}^{e}+2 \mathbf{C}_{e}^{i} \mathbf{\Omega}_{i e}^{e} \dot{\boldsymbol{x}}^{e}+\mathbf{C}_{e}^{i} \ddot{\boldsymbol{x}}^{e}
\end{aligned}
$$

- Extract centrifugal acceleration from other kinematic accelerations

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{C}_{i}^{e} \ddot{\boldsymbol{x}} & =\boldsymbol{\Omega}_{i e}^{e} \boldsymbol{\Omega}_{i e}^{e} \boldsymbol{x}^{e}+2 \boldsymbol{\Omega}_{i e}^{e} \dot{\boldsymbol{x}}^{e}+\ddot{\boldsymbol{x}}^{e}=\boldsymbol{a}^{e}+\boldsymbol{g}^{e} \\
& =-\boldsymbol{a}_{\mathrm{cent}}^{e}+\boldsymbol{q}^{e} \quad \leftarrow \text { defines } \boldsymbol{q} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \overline{\boldsymbol{g}}^{e}=\boldsymbol{q}^{e}-\boldsymbol{a}^{e}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Navigation Frame

- Usually, north-east-down (NED)-frame, or n-frame
- moves with the vehicle - not used for coordinates of the vehicle
- used as reference for velocity and orientation of the vehicle; and, gravity
- Alternative: vertical along plumb line, $n$ '-frame
- conventional reference for terrestrial gravity
- no "horizontal" gravity components



## Body Frame

- Axes are defined by principal axes of the vehicle: forward (1), to-the-right (2), and through-the-floor (3)

- Gravimeter (G) measurements are made either:
- in the $\boldsymbol{b}$-frame - strapdown system; gyro data provide orientation
- in the $\boldsymbol{n}$-, $\boldsymbol{n}^{\prime}$-frames - platform is stabilized using IMUs*


## Moving-Base Gravimetry - Strapdown Mechanization

Gravitational Vector $\longleftarrow \boldsymbol{g}^{n}=\mathbf{C}_{i}^{n}\left(\ddot{\boldsymbol{x}}^{i}-\mathbf{C}_{b}^{i} \boldsymbol{a}^{b}\right)$ in $n$-frame
in i-frame
transformation from inertial frame to $\boldsymbol{n}$-frame

$\boldsymbol{a}^{b}$ - inertial accelerations measured by accelerometers in body frame
$\ddot{\boldsymbol{x}}^{i}$ - kinematic accelerations obtained from GNSS-derived positions, $\boldsymbol{x}$, in $\boldsymbol{i}$-frame

$$
\mathbf{C}_{i}^{n}=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
-\sin \phi \cos \left(\lambda+\omega_{E} t\right) & -\sin \phi \sin \left(\lambda+\omega_{E} t\right) & \cos \phi \\
-\sin \left(\lambda+\omega_{E} t\right) & \cos \left(\lambda+\omega_{E} t\right) & 0 \\
-\cos \phi \cos \left(\lambda+\omega_{E} t\right) & -\cos \phi \sin \left(\lambda+\omega_{E} t\right) & -\sin \phi
\end{array}\right)
$$

- transformation obtained from GNSS-derived positions, $\phi, \lambda$
- lever-arm effects are assumed to be applied


## Moving-Base Gravimetry - Stabilized Mechanization

Gravitational Vector in $n$-frame


- Inertial accelerations, $a^{p}$, from accelerometers in platform frame
- Mechanizations
- two-axis damped platform - level ( $n$ '-frame) alignment using gyro-driven gimballed platform in the short term and mean zero output of horizontal accelerometers in the long term - adequate for benign dynamics
- Schuler-tuned inertial stabilized platform - alignment to $n$-frame based on inertial /GNSS navigation solution and gyro-driven platform stabilization $\circ$ ideally, $\mathbf{C}_{p}^{n}=\mathbf{I}$; but note, $n$-frame differs from $n^{\prime}$-frame by deflection of the vertical - better for more dynamic environments


## Two-Axis Stabilized Platform

- Schematic for one axis
- gryoscope maintains direction in space, and commands torque motor to correct deviation of platform orientation due to non-level vehicle

- horizontal accelerometer, through processor, ensures that gryoscope reference direction is precessed to account for Earth rotation and curvature
- zero acceleration implies level orientation (without horizontal specific forces!)
- ad hoc damping of platform by processor
- corrects gyro drift, but is subject to accelerometer bias
- Schuler-tuned three-axis stabilization: more accurate IMUs and $n$ frame stabilization (using navigation solution velocity in $n$-frame)


## Scalar Moving-Base Gravimetry

- Determine the magnitude of gravity - the plumb line component
- consistent with ground-based measurement (recall gravimeter is leveled)
- gravitation vector: $\boldsymbol{g}^{n}=\mathbf{C}_{i}^{n} \ddot{\boldsymbol{x}}^{i}-\mathbf{C}_{b}^{n} \boldsymbol{a}^{b}=\left(-\boldsymbol{a}_{\mathrm{cent}}^{n}+\boldsymbol{q}^{n}\right)-\boldsymbol{a}^{n}$
- gravity vector:

$$
\overline{\boldsymbol{g}}^{n}=\boldsymbol{g}^{n}+\boldsymbol{a}_{\mathrm{cent}}^{n}
$$

$$
\overline{\boldsymbol{g}}^{n}=\boldsymbol{q}^{n}-\boldsymbol{a}^{n}
$$

GNSS $\boldsymbol{\rightarrow} \boldsymbol{q}^{\boldsymbol{n}}$

- this holds in any frame! e.g., $\overline{\boldsymbol{g}}^{n^{\prime}}=\boldsymbol{q}^{n^{\prime}}-\boldsymbol{a}^{n^{\prime}}$
- note: straight and level flight $\rightarrow\left|\boldsymbol{q}^{n}\right| \square\left|\boldsymbol{a}^{n}\right|$
- thus: $\bar{g}=\left|\overline{\boldsymbol{g}}^{n}\right|$, but note: $\bar{g} \neq \bar{g}_{3}^{n}$
- $n$-frame mechanization does not account for the deflection of the vertical
- since $n^{\prime}$-frame is aligned to plumb line, $\bar{g}=\bar{g}_{3}^{n^{\prime}}$
along plumb line
deflection of the vertical
(DOV)



## Unconstrained Scalar Gravimetry

- One Option: $\bar{g}=\left|\overline{\boldsymbol{g}}^{n}\right|=\left|\boldsymbol{q}^{n}-\boldsymbol{a}^{n}\right|$
- unconstrained in the sense that the frame for vectors is arbitrary ( $n$-frame is used for illustration)
- also known as strapdown inertial scalar gravimetry (SISG)
$\circ \boldsymbol{q}^{n}=\mathbf{C}_{i}^{n} \ddot{\boldsymbol{x}}^{i}+\boldsymbol{a}_{\mathrm{cent}}^{n} \quad$ obtained exclusively from GNSS
- $\boldsymbol{a}^{n}=\mathbf{C}_{b}^{n} \boldsymbol{a}^{b} \quad$ requires orientation of $b$-frame (relative to $n$-frame)
- Requires comparable accuracy in all accelerometers and precision gyros if platform is arbitrary (e.g., strapdown)
- Calgary group demonstrated good results (e.g., Glennie and Schwarz 1999); see also (Czompo and Ferguson 1995)


## Rotation-Invariant Scalar Gravimetry (RISG)

- Another option to get $\bar{g}$ : based on total specific force from gravimeter and orthogonal accelerometers

$$
a^{2}=\left(a_{1}^{p}\right)^{2}+\left(a_{2}^{p}\right)^{2}+\left(a_{3}^{p}\right)^{2} \quad\left(=\left(a_{1}^{n^{\prime}}\right)^{2}+\left(a_{2}^{n^{\prime}}\right)^{2}+\left(a_{3}^{n^{\prime}}\right)^{2}\right)
$$

- Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_{3}^{n^{\prime}} & =\sqrt{a^{2}-\left(a_{1}^{n^{\prime}}\right)^{2}-\left(a_{2}^{n^{\prime}}\right)^{2}} \\
& =\sqrt{a^{2}-\left(q_{1}^{n^{\prime}}-\bar{g}_{1}^{n^{\prime}}\right)^{2}-\left(q_{2}^{n^{\prime}}-\bar{g}_{2}^{n^{\prime}}\right)^{2}} \\
& =\sqrt{a^{2}-\left(q_{1}^{n^{\prime}}\right)^{2}-\left(q_{2}^{n^{\prime}}\right)^{2} \quad \text { since } \quad \bar{g}_{1}^{n^{\prime}}=0=\bar{g}_{2}^{n^{\prime}}}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \bar{g} \equiv \bar{g}_{3}^{n^{\prime}} \approx q_{3}^{n}-\sqrt{a^{2}-\left(q_{1}^{n}\right)^{2}-\left(q_{2}^{n}\right)^{2}} \quad \text { neglecting } \\
& \text { orientation is not specifically needed for } a^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

- however, errors in $\boldsymbol{q}^{\boldsymbol{n}}$, being squared, tend to bias the result (Olesen 2003)


## RISG Approach in More Detail (1)

- Define Earth-fixed velocity vector in the $n$-frame

$$
\boldsymbol{v}^{n}=\mathbf{C}_{e}^{n} \dot{\boldsymbol{x}}^{e}=\left(\begin{array}{c}
v_{N} \\
v_{E} \\
v_{D}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{c}
\dot{\phi}(M+h) \\
\dot{\lambda}(N+h) \cos \phi \\
-\dot{h}
\end{array}\right) \quad \mathbf{C}_{e}^{n}=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
-\sin \phi \cos \lambda & -\sin \phi \sin \lambda & \cos \phi \\
-\sin \lambda & \cos \lambda & 0 \\
-\cos \phi \cos \lambda & -\cos \phi \sin \lambda & -\sin \phi
\end{array}\right)
$$

- It can be shown (Appendix A) that

$$
\boldsymbol{q}^{n}=\frac{d \boldsymbol{v}^{n}}{d t}+\left(\begin{array}{ll}
\left.\boldsymbol{\Omega}_{i e}^{n}+\boldsymbol{\Omega}_{i n}^{n}\right) \boldsymbol{v}^{n} & \boldsymbol{\Omega}_{i e}^{n}+\boldsymbol{\Omega}_{i n}^{n}=
\end{array}\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & \left(\dot{\lambda}+2 \omega_{e}\right) \sin \phi & -\dot{\phi} \\
-\left(\dot{\lambda}+2 \omega_{e}\right) \sin \phi & 0 & -\left(\dot{\lambda}+2 \omega_{e}\right) \cos \phi \\
\dot{\phi} & \left(\dot{\lambda}+2 \omega_{e}\right) \cos \phi & 0
\end{array}\right)\right.
$$

- Thus, strictly from GNSS, the third component is

$$
q_{3}^{n}=-\ddot{h}+2 \omega_{e} v_{E} \cos \phi+\frac{v_{N}^{2}}{M+h}+\frac{v_{E}^{2}}{N+h}
$$

## RISG Approach in More Detail (2)

- Inertial acceleration includes tilt error if platform is not level

$$
a_{3}^{n^{\prime}}=\left(\mathbf{C}_{p}^{n^{\prime}} \boldsymbol{a}^{p}\right)_{3}=a_{3}^{p}-\delta a_{\text {tilt }} \quad\left(=\sqrt{a^{2}-\left(q_{1}^{n^{\prime}}\right)^{2}-\left(q_{2}^{n^{\prime}}\right)^{2}}\right)
$$

- Kinematic acceleration (from GNSS) includes neglect of DOV

$$
q_{3}^{n^{\prime}}=\left(\mathbf{C}_{n}^{n^{\prime}} \boldsymbol{q}^{n}\right)_{3}=q_{3}^{n}-\delta q_{\mathrm{Dov}}
$$

- Third component of $\overline{\boldsymbol{g}}^{n^{\prime}}=\boldsymbol{q}^{\boldsymbol{n}^{\prime}}-\boldsymbol{a}^{n^{\prime}}$, along plumb line,

$$
\bar{g}=-a_{\substack{p \\ \vdots \\ \text { gravimeter }}}^{\ddot{h}}+\underbrace{2 \omega_{E} v_{E} \cos \phi+\frac{v_{N}^{2}}{M+h}+\frac{v_{E}^{2}}{(N+h)}}_{\delta g_{\text {Eätuös }}}+\delta a_{\text {tilt }}-\delta q_{\mathrm{Dov}}
$$

## Eötvös Effect

- Exact in $n$-frame (note: $v_{N, E}$ at altitude!)

$$
\delta g_{\text {Eätvös }}=2 \omega_{E} v_{E} \cos \phi+\frac{v_{N}^{2}}{M+h}+\frac{v_{E}^{2}}{(N+h)}
$$

## - Approximations

- spherical:
$\delta g_{\text {Eötvös }} \approx 2 \omega_{E} v_{E} \cos \phi+\frac{v^{2}}{R+h}$
- first-order ellipsoidal (Harlan 1968):


$$
\delta g_{\text {Ë̈tuös }} \approx \frac{v^{2}}{a}\left(1+\frac{h}{a}-f\left(1-\cos ^{2} \phi\left(3-2 \sin ^{2} \alpha\right)\right)\right)+2 v \omega_{E} \sin \alpha \cos \phi\left(1+\frac{h}{a}\right)+O\left(f^{2}\right)
$$

$a=$ ellipsoid semi-major axis; $\alpha=$ azimuth; $\boldsymbol{v}=$ ground speed!

## DOV Error in Kinematic Acceleration

- DOV components define the small angles between the $n$ and $n^{\prime}$-frames

$$
\mathbf{C}_{n}^{n^{\prime}}=\mathbf{R}_{1}(-\eta) \mathbf{R}_{2}(\xi)=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 0 & -\xi \\
0 & 1 & -\eta \\
\xi & \eta & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

- ignore rotation about 3-axis
- DOV error

$$
\delta q_{\mathrm{Dov}}=q_{3}^{n}-\left(\mathbf{C}_{n}^{n^{\prime}} \boldsymbol{q}^{n}\right)_{3}=-\xi q_{1}^{n}-\eta q_{2}^{n}
$$



- Assume $\operatorname{rms}($ DOV $)=10 \operatorname{arcsec}, q_{1,2}=\mathbf{1 0}^{\mathbf{4}} \mathbf{~ m G a l}$
$\operatorname{rms}\left(\delta q_{\text {Dov }}\right)=0.7 \mathrm{mGal}$
- This error is correctable, e.g., using EGM2008 deflection model


## Tilt Error (1)

- One way to compute tilt error (p. 3.27)

$$
\delta a_{\text {tilt }}=a_{3}^{p}-\sqrt{a^{2}-\left(q_{1}^{n}\right)^{2}-\left(q_{2}^{n}\right)^{2}} \quad \text { (neglecting DOV) }
$$

- random errors in $q_{1}^{n}, q_{2}^{n}$ are squared and can cause bias (rectification error)
- Better model for the tilt error (Olesen 2003)
- define orientation angles, $v, \chi, \alpha$
- assume $v, \chi$ are small; $\alpha$ is arbitrary

$$
\mathbf{C}_{p}^{n} \approx\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
\cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha & \chi \cos \alpha+v \sin \alpha \\
\sin \alpha & \cos \alpha & \chi \sin \alpha-v \cos \alpha \\
-\chi & v & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$



- thus, approximate platform stabilization is required!


## Tilt Error (2)

- From $\overline{\boldsymbol{g}}^{n}=\boldsymbol{q}^{n}-\mathbf{C}_{p}^{n} \boldsymbol{a}^{p}$,

$$
\binom{\bar{g}_{1}^{n}}{\bar{g}_{2}^{n}}=\binom{q_{1}^{n}-a_{1}^{p} \cos \alpha+a_{2}^{p} \sin \alpha-(\chi \cos \alpha+v \sin \alpha) a_{3}^{p}}{q_{2}^{n}-a_{1}^{p} \sin \alpha-a_{2}^{p} \cos \alpha-(\chi \sin \alpha-v \cos \alpha) a_{3}^{p}}
$$

- If $\bar{g}_{1}^{n}=0=\bar{g}_{2}^{n} \quad$ (neglecting DOV is second-order effect on tilt error)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \chi=\frac{1}{a_{3}^{p}}\left(q_{1}^{n} \cos \alpha+q_{2}^{n} \sin \alpha-a_{1}^{p}\right) \\
& v=\frac{1}{a_{3}^{p}}\left(q_{1}^{n} \sin \alpha-q_{2}^{n} \cos \alpha+a_{2}^{p}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Tilt angles are computed from accelerometers, GNSS, and azimuth

- Third component of $\delta \boldsymbol{a}_{\text {tilt }}=\boldsymbol{a}^{p}-\mathbf{C}_{p}^{n} \boldsymbol{a}^{p}$

$$
\delta a_{\text {tilt }} \approx a_{1}^{p} \chi-a_{2}^{p} v \quad \text { (first-order approximation) }
$$

## Tilt Error (3)

- Tilt error can be written as
$\delta a_{\mathrm{tilt}} \approx \frac{q_{1}^{w}-a_{1}^{p}}{a_{3}^{p}} a_{1}^{p}+\frac{q_{2}^{w}-a_{2}^{p}}{a_{3}^{p}} a_{2}^{p}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& q_{1}^{w}=q_{1}^{n} \cos \alpha+q_{2}^{n} \sin \alpha \\
& q_{2}^{w}=-q_{1}^{n} \sin \alpha+q_{2}^{n} \cos \alpha
\end{aligned}
$$

- where $q_{1}^{w}, q_{2}^{w}$ are kinematic accelerations in the "wander-azimuth" frame
- Taking differentials of the specific force components,

$$
\delta\left(\delta a_{\text {tilt }}\right)=\frac{\left(q_{1}^{w}-a_{1}^{p}\right)-a_{1}^{p}}{a_{3}^{p}} \delta a_{1}^{p}+\frac{\left(q_{2}^{w}-a_{2}^{p}\right)-a_{2}^{p}}{a_{3}^{p}} \delta a_{2}^{p}-\frac{\left(q_{1}^{w}-a_{1}^{p}\right) a_{1}^{p}+\left(q_{2}^{w}-a_{2}^{p}\right) a_{2}^{p}}{\left(a_{3}^{p}\right)^{2}} \delta a_{3}^{p}
$$

- Assume $\left(q_{1,2}^{w}-a_{1,2}^{p}\right)=a_{3}^{p} \cdot O(v, \chi) \square 10^{4} \mathrm{mGal}, a_{3}^{p} \approx 10^{6} \mathrm{mGal}, a_{1,2}^{p}=O\left(10^{4} \mathrm{mGal}\right)$
- error in vertical accelerometer (gravimeter) is second-order for tilt correction
- error in horizontal accels. can be 100 worse than tilt correction accuracy
- In practice, tilt correction is subjected to appropriate filters; see (Olesen 2003)


## Lever-Arm Effect

- Apply to kinematic acceleration derived from GNSS tracking
- assume gravimeter is at center of mass of vehicle
- In the inertial frame: $\boldsymbol{x}_{\text {antenna }}^{i}=\boldsymbol{x}_{\text {gravimeter }}^{i}+\boldsymbol{b}^{i}$
- where $\boldsymbol{b}^{i}=\mathbf{C}_{b}^{i} \boldsymbol{b}^{b}, \quad \boldsymbol{b}^{b}=$ fixed antenna offset relative to gravimeter

$$
\mathbf{C}_{b}^{i}-\text { obtained from gyro data }
$$

- Numerical differentiation: $\ddot{\boldsymbol{x}}_{\text {gravimeter }}^{i}=\frac{d^{2}}{d t^{2}}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{\text {annenna }}^{i}-\boldsymbol{b}^{i}\right)$
- extract relevant component in particular frame
- n-frame: vertical component of $\mathbf{C}_{i}^{n} \ddot{\boldsymbol{x}}_{\text {gravimeter }}^{i} \rightarrow \ddot{h}$


## Scalar Gravimetry Equation

- Final equation for the gravity anomaly at altitude point, $P_{a}^{\prime}$

$$
\Delta g_{P_{a}^{\prime}}=f-\ddot{\mathrm{h}}+\delta g_{\text {Eätuös }}+\delta a_{\text {tilt }}-\delta q_{\mathrm{Dov}}-\gamma_{Q_{a}^{\prime}}-\left(f_{0}-g_{0}\right)
$$

- where $f=-a_{3}^{p}$ is the gravity meter reading
- where $\gamma_{Q_{a}^{\prime}}$ is normal gravity at the normal height of $P_{a}^{\prime}$ above the ellipsoid
- where $f_{0}-g_{0}$ is the initial offset of the gravimeter reading from true gravity
- gravimeter measurement, $f$, includes various inherent instrument corrections
- tilt error depends on accuracy of platform accelerometers
- exact and sufficiently approximate formulas exist for normal gravity at $Q_{a}^{\prime}$
- accuracy in $\ddot{h}$ must be commensurate with gravimeter accuracy


## IV. Overview of Airborne Gravimetry Systems

- LaCoste/Romberg sea-air gravimeters
- Other Airborne gravimeters


## Airborne Gravimeters

- Instrumentation overview of scalar airborne gravimetry
- LaCoste-Romberg instruments dominate the field
- many other instrument types in operation or being tested
- All gravimeters are single-axis accelerometers
- mechanical spring accelerometers (vertical spring, horizontal beam)
- manual or automatic (force-rebalance) nulling
- torsion wire (horizontal beam, no nulling)
- electromagnetic spring (force-rebalance)
- vibrating string accelerometers


## Lucien J.B. LaCoste (1908-1995)

"The gravity meters Lucien B. LaCoste invented revolutionized geodesy and gave scientists the ability to precisely measure variations in Earth's gravity from land, water, and space" J.C. Harrison (1996)*


- Inventor
- Scientist
- Teacher
- Entrepreneur
*https://web.archive.org/web/20080527061634/http://www.agu.org/sci_soc/lacoste.html
Earth in Space Vol. 8, No. 9, May 1996, pp. 12-13. © 1996 American Geophysical Union;
see also (Harrison 1995).


## LaCoste-Romberg Air-Sea Model S Gravimeter

- Beam is in equilibrium if torque(spring) $=$ torque $(\boldsymbol{m g})$
$k\left(\ell-\ell_{0}\right) b \sin \beta=m g a \sin \alpha$
- law of sines: $\ell \sin \beta=d \sin \alpha$
- zero-length spring: $\ell_{0}=0$
$\Rightarrow \quad k b d=m g a$
- independent of $\alpha \rightarrow$ equilibrium at any beam position for a given $g$
- independent of $\ell \rightarrow$ no change in spring length could accommodate a change in $g$

- From (Valliant 1992):

infinite sensitivity


$\rightarrow$ measure beam velocity!


## (Inherent) Cross-Coupling Effect

- Horizontal accelerations couple into the vertical movement of horizontal beam gravimeters that are not nulled
- total torque on beam due to external accelerations:

$$
T=m a(\ddot{x} \sin \theta+(g+\ddot{z}) \cos \theta)
$$

- it can be shown (LaCoste and Harrison 1961) that the cross-coupling error is

$$
\varepsilon=\frac{1}{2} \ddot{X}_{1} \theta_{1} \cos \psi
$$


where $\ddot{\chi}_{1}, \theta_{1}$ are amplitudes of components of $\ddot{x}$ and $\theta$, respectively, that have the same period and phase difference, $\psi$

- e.g., $\theta_{1}=1^{\circ}, \quad \ddot{X}_{1}=0.1 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}^{2} \Rightarrow \varepsilon=90 \mathrm{mGal}$
- There is no cross-coupling effect for
- force-rebalance gravimeters
- vertical-spring gravimeters


## LaCoste-Romberg Model S Sensor and Platform

Interior Side View


## Stabilized Platform

Outer Frame


From: Instruction Manual, LaCoste and Romberg Model "S" Air-Sea Dynamic Gravimeter, 1998; with permission

## LaCoste/Romberg TAGS-6

## (Turn-key Airborne Gravity System)


http://www.microglacoste.com/tags-6.php

SPECIFICATIONS

| COMPONENT | VARIABLE | SPECIFICATIONS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| SENSOR | WORLDWIDE RANGE: DYNAMIC RANGE: DRIFT: <br> TEMPERATURE SETPOINT: | 20,000 milliCal <br> $\pm 500,000$ milliCal <br> 3 milliGal per month or less <br> $45^{\circ}$ to $65^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ |
| STABILIZED PLATFORM | PLATFORM PITCH: PLATFORM ROLL: CONTROL: Period Damping | $\pm 25$ degrees <br> $\pm 35$ degrees <br> 4 to 4.5 Minutes <br> 0.707 of critical |
| CONTROL SYSTEM | RECORDING RATE: SERIAL OUTPUT: ADDITIONALI/O: | $\begin{array}{\|l\|} \hline 20 \mathrm{~Hz} \\ \text { RS-232 } \\ \text { Sensor Temperature } \end{array}$ |
| SYSTEM PERFORMANCE | DYNAMIC RANGE: STATIC REPEATABILITY: DYNAMIC REPEATABILITY: | $\begin{aligned} & 25,000,000 \\ & 0.02 \text { milliGal in } 2 \text { min } \\ & 0.75 \text { milliGal in } 2 \mathrm{~min} \end{aligned}$ |
| MISCELLANEOUS | OPERATING TEMPERATURE: STORAGE TEMPERATURE: POWER EQUIPMENTS: <br> DIMENSIONS: | $5^{\circ}$ to $50^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ <br> $-10^{\circ}$ to $50^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ <br> $75 W$ @ $27^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ Nominal <br> 300W Peak <br> $80-265 \mathrm{VAC}, 47-63 \mathrm{~Hz}$ <br> $58.4 \times 53.3 \times 55.9 \mathrm{~cm}$ <br> (not including electronics) |

## BGM-3 Gravimeter

- Bell Aerospace (now Lockheed Martin)
- Model XI pendulous force-rebalance accelerometer
- current needed to keep test mass in null position is proportional to acceleration



## Fugro $\rightarrow$ WHOI

https://www.unols.org/sites/default/files/Gravimeter_Kinsey.pdf

(Seiff and Knight 1992); see also (Bell and Watts 1986)


Two BGM-3 gravimeters installed on the USCG ship Healy

## Sea Gravimeter KSS31, Bodenseewerk Geosystem GmbH

- Gravity sensor based on Askania vertical-spring gravimeter
- Federal Institute for Geosciences and Natural Resources (BGR)


## - force rebalance feedback system

- highly damped output, $\sim 3$ minute average
- sensor on a gyro-stabilized platform
- also used for fixed wing and helicopter gravimetry


Heyde, J. (2010)

-http://www.bgr.bund.de/DE/Themen/MarineRohstoffforschung/Meeresforschung/Geraete/Gravimeter/gravimeter_inhalt.html
-http://www.bgr.bund.de/EN/Themen/GG_Geophysik/Aerogeophysik/Aerogravimetrie/aerogravimetrie_node_en.html

## Chekan-A Gravimeter

## - Air-Sea gravimeter; CSRI* Elektropribor, St. Petersburg, Russia

- gravity sensed by deflection of pendulum hinged on quartz torsion wire in viscous fluid
- pendulum deflection: $0.3-1.5$ " $/ \mathrm{mGal}$; e.g., $\pm \mathbf{1}^{\circ} \rightarrow \pm 10$ Gal total range ( $0.36 \mathrm{\prime} \mathrm{\prime} / \mathrm{mGal}$ )
- cross-coupling effect minimized by double-beam reverted pendulums
- evolutionary modifications: Chekan AM, "Shelf" (Krasnov et al. 2014)

*Central Scientific \& Research Institute

(Stelkens-Kobsch 2005)


## Airborne Gravimetry on Airship Platform

Airship AU-30


Relative gravimeter Chekan in a cabin of AU
(http://rosaerosystems.com/airships/obj17)


- test flight January 2014
- reported in IAG Commission 2 Travaux 2015


## Airborne Gravimeter GT-2A

## - Gravimeter system designed by Gravimetric Technologies (Russia)

- vertical accelerometer of axial design with a test mass on spring suspension
- photoelectric position pickup
- moving-coil force feedback transducer
- three-axis gyro-stabilized platform
- large dynamic range


| Measurement range | $9.75 \mathrm{to} 9.85 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{sec}^{2}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| Dynamic range | $>+/-1,000 \mathrm{Gals}$ |
| Drift per day (corrected) | $<0.1 \mathrm{mGals}$ |
| RMS error in gravity anomaly estimation |  |
| (static mode up to 12 hours on bench) |  |
| RMS error | $0.6 \mathrm{mGals}(+/-1 \mathrm{LSD} *)$ |
| Attitude limits |  |
| roll |  |
| pitch | $+/-45^{\circ}$ |
| Operating temp | $+/-45^{\circ}$ |
| Power |  |
| operating | $+5^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to $+50^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ |
| standby | 150 W at 27 Vdc |
| Weight (with base) | 50 W at 27 Vdc |
| Dimensions console | 153.5 kg |
| Dimensions base | $400 \times 400 \times 600 \mathrm{~mm}$ |
| Service life | $600 \times 300 \mathrm{~mm}$ |
| Error in gravity anomaly estimation (RMS) |  |
| 0.01 Hz cut-off | $0.6 \mathrm{mGals}(+/-1 \mathrm{LSD} *)$ |
| *Least Significant Digit |  |
| Specifications subject to change |  |

http://eongeosciences.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/01/GT_2A.pdf (Canadian Micro Gravity)

## Sander Geophysics Ltd. AirGrav System

- "Purpose-built" airborne gravimeter designed for airborne environment, not modified sea gravimeter
- Honeywell inertial navigation grade accelerometers (Annecchione et al. 2006, Sinkiewicz et al. 1997)
- Schuler-tuned (three axis) inertially stabilized platform
- three-accelerometer system; vertical accelerometer used as gravimeter
- advertize gravimetry on topography-draped profiles
- demonstrated success in vector gravimetry
- comparison tests over Canadian Rockies between AirGrav and GT-1A
(Studinger et al. 2008)

http://www.sgl.com/news/Sander\ Geophysics\ -\ Antarctica.pdf

