

# **CEC 352 – SATELLITE COMMUNICATION**

Prepared

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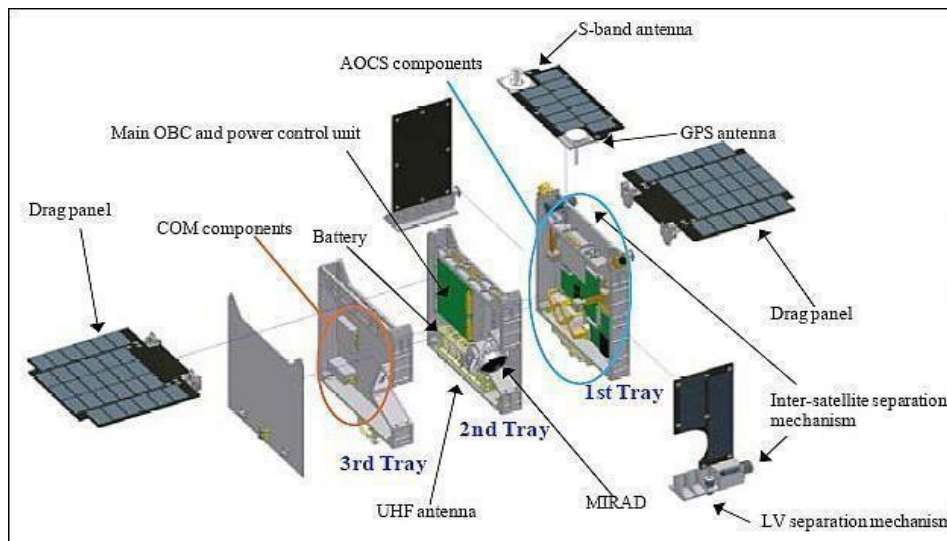
## UNITII/SPACESEGMENTANDSATELLITELINKDESIGN

Spacecraft Technology- Structure, Primary power, Attitude and Orbit control, Thermal control and Propulsion, Communication Payload and supporting subsystems, Telemetry, Tracking and command. Satellite Uplink and Downlink Analysis and Design, Link Power Budget, C/N calculation, G/T ratio-Performance Impairments- System noise, Inter-modulation Noise, Noise Temperature, Propagation Factors, Rain and Ice effects, Polarization.

### **Spacecraft Technology- Structure**

A satellite communications system can be broadly divided into two segments—a ground segment and a space segment.

The space segment will obviously include the satellites, but it also includes the ground facilities needed to keep the satellites operational, these being referred to as the *Tracking, Telemetry, and Command* (TT&C) facilities. In many networks it is a common practice to employ a ground station solely for the purpose of TT&C.



**Fig2.1** Satellite Structure

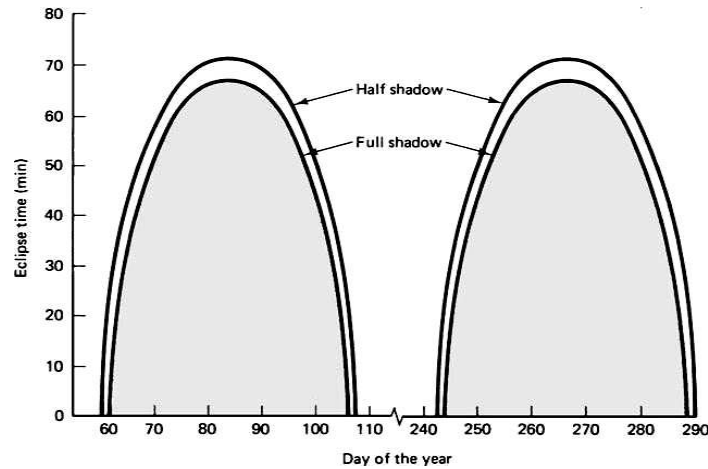
The equipment carried aboard the satellite also can be classified according to function. The *payload* refers to the equipment used to provide the service for which the satellite has been launched.

In a communications satellite, the equipment which provides the connecting link between the satellite's transmit and receive antennas is referred to as the *Transponder*. The transponder forms one of the main sections of the payload, the other being the antenna subsystems. In this chapter the main characteristics of certain bus systems and payloads are described.

### **The Power Supply**

The primary electrical power for operating the electronic equipment is obtained from solar cells. Individual cells can generate only small amounts of power and therefore, arrays of cells in series-parallel connection are required. Figure 2.1 shows the solar cell panels for the HS376 satellite manufactured by Hughes Space and Communications Company.

In geostationary orbit the telescoped panel is fully extended so that both are exposed to sunlight. At the beginning of life, the panels produce 940 W dc power, which may drop to 760 W at the end of 10 years. During eclipse, power is provided by two nickel-cadmium (Ni-Cd) long-life batteries, which will deliver 830 W. At the end of life, battery recharge time is less than 16 h.



**Fig 2.2** Satellite Eclipse time as a function of the current day of the year

In cylindrical and solar-sail satellites, the cross-over point is estimated to be about 2 kW, where the solar-sail type is more economical than the cylindrical type.

## Attitude Control & Orbit Control

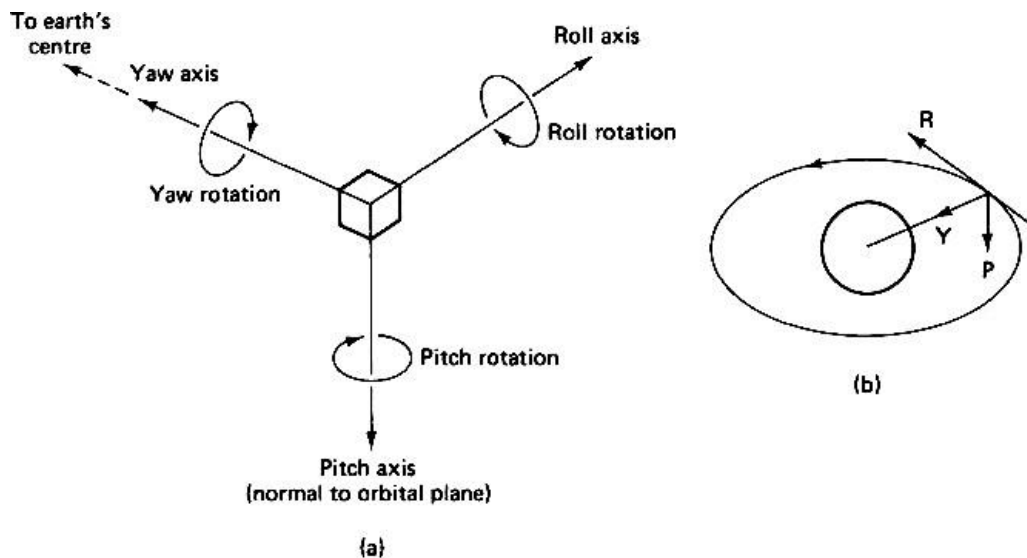
The *attitude* of a satellite refers to its orientation in space. Much of the equipment carried aboard a satellite is meant for the purpose of controlling its attitude. Attitude control is necessary, to ensure that directional antennas point in the proper directions. In the case of earth environmental satellites, the earth-sensing instruments must cover the required regions of the earth, which also requires attitude control. A number of forces, referred to as *disturbance torques*, can alter the attitude, some examples being the gravitational fields of the earth and the moon, solar radiation, and meteorite impacts.

Attitude control must not be confused with station keeping, which is used for maintaining a satellite in its correct orbital position, although the two are closely related. To exercise attitude control, there must be available some measure of a satellite's orientation in space and of any tendency for this to shift. In one method, infrared sensors, referred to as *horizon detectors*, are used to detect the rim of the earth against the background of space.

With the use of four such sensors, one for each quadrant, the center of the earth can be readily established as a reference point. The attitude-control process takes place aboard the satellite, but it is also possible for control signals to be transmitted from earth, based on attitude data obtained from the satellite. Whenever a shift in attitude is desired, an *attitude maneuver* is executed. The control signals needed to achieve this maneuver may be transmitted from an earth station.

Controlling torques may be generated in a number of ways. *Passive attitude control* refers to the use of mechanisms which stabilize the satellite without putting a drain on the satellite's energy supplies; at most, infrequent use is made of these supplies, for example, when thruster jets are impulsed to provide corrective torque. Examples of passive attitude control are *spin stabilization* and *gravity gradient stabilization*.

The other form of attitude control is *active control*. With active attitude control, there is no overall stabilizing torque present to resist the disturbance torques. Instead, corrective torques are applied in response to disturbance torques. Methods used to generate active control torques include momentum wheels, electromagnetic coils, and mass expulsion devices, such as gas jets and ion thrusters.



**Fig2.3** Roll, Pitch, and Yaw Axes (b) RPY axes for Geostationary Orbit

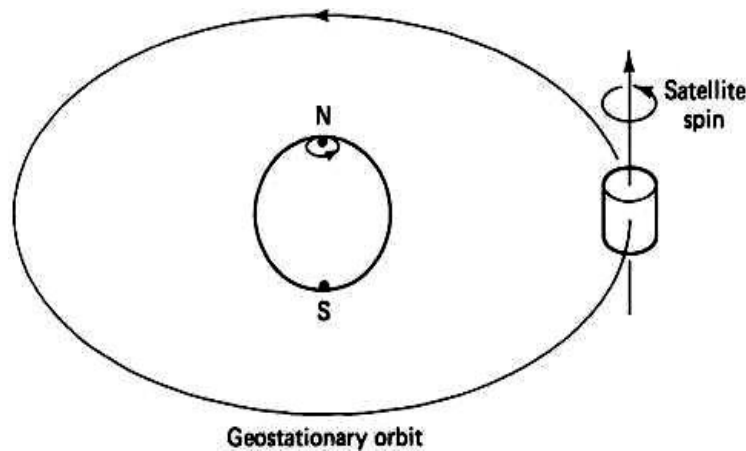
The three axes which define a satellite's attitude are its *roll*, *pitch*, and *yaw* (RPY) axes. These are shown relative to the earth in Figure 2.3. All three axes pass through the center of gravity of the satellite. For an equatorial orbit, movement of the satellite about the roll axis moves the antenna footprint north and south; movement about the pitch axis moves the footprint east and west; and movement about the yaw axis rotates the antenna footprint.

### Spinning Satellite Stabilization

Spin stabilization may be achieved with cylindrical satellites. The satellite is constructed so that it is mechanically balanced about one particular axis and is then set spinning around this axis. For geostationary satellites, the spin axis is adjusted to be parallel to the N-S axis of the earth, as illustrated in Figure 2.4. Spin rate is typically in the range of 50 to 100 rev/minute. Spin is initiated during the launch phase by means of small gas jets.

In the absence of disturbance torques, the spinning satellite would maintain its correct attitude relative to the earth. Disturbance torques are generated in a number of ways, both external and internal to the satellite.

Solar radiation, gravitational gradients, and meteorite impacts are all examples of external forces which can give rise to disturbance torques. Motor-bearing friction and the movement of satellite elements such as the antennas also can give rise to disturbance torques.



**Fig 2.4** Spin stabilization in the geostationary orbit

The overall effect is that the spin rate will decrease, and the direction of the angular spin axis will change. Impulse-type thrusters, or jets, can be used to increase the spin rate again and to shift the axis back to its correct N-S orientation.

*Nutation*, which is a form of wobbling, can occur as a result of the disturbance torques and/or from misalignment or unbalance of the control jets. This nutation must be damped out by means of energy absorbers known as *nutational dampers*. The antenna feeds can be connected directly to the transponders without the need for radiofrequency rotary joints, while the complete platform is despun. Of course, control signals and power must be transferred to the despun section and a mechanical bearing must be provided. The complete assembly for this is known as the *bearing and power transfer assembly* (BAPTA). Figure 2.5 shows a photograph of the internal structure of the HS 376.

Certain dual-spin spacecraft obtain spin stabilization from a spinning flywheel rather than by spinning the satellite itself. These flywheels are termed *momentum wheels*, and their average momentum is referred to as *momentum bias*.

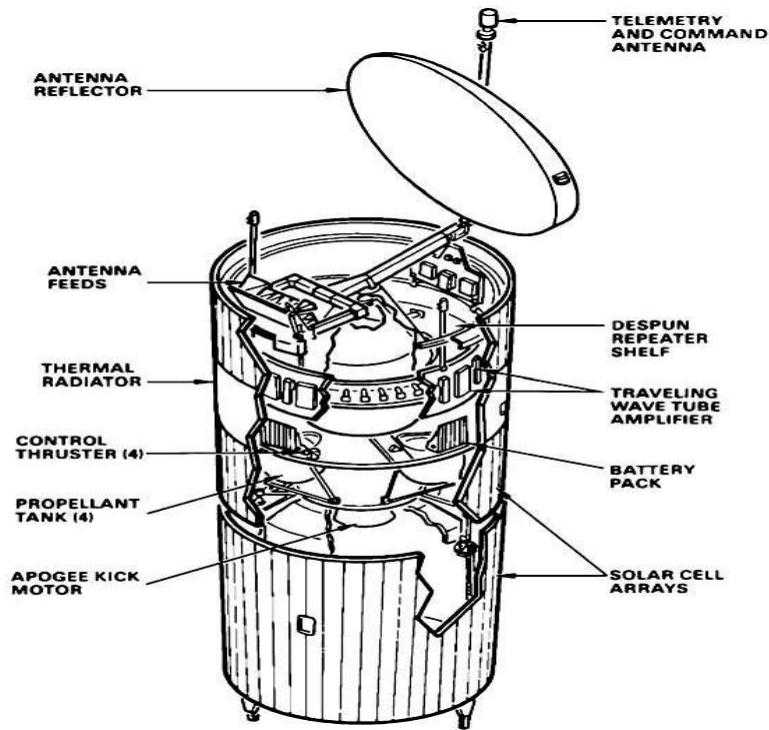


Fig2.5HS376Spacecraft

### Momentum wheel stabilization

In the previous section the gyroscopic effect of a spinning satellite is shown to provide stability for the satellite attitude. Stability also can be achieved by utilizing the gyroscopic effect of a spinning flywheel, and this approach is used in satellites with cube-like bodies and the INTELSAT V type satellites. These are known as *body-stabilized* satellites. The complete unit, termed a momentum wheel, consists of a flywheel, the bearing assembly, the casing, and an electric drive motor with associated electronic control circuitry. The flywheel is attached to the rotor, which consists of a permanent magnet providing the magnetic field for motor action. The stator of the motor is attached to the body of the satellite. Thus the motor provides the coupling between the flywheel and the satellite structure. Speed and torque control of the motor is exercised through the currents fed to the stator.

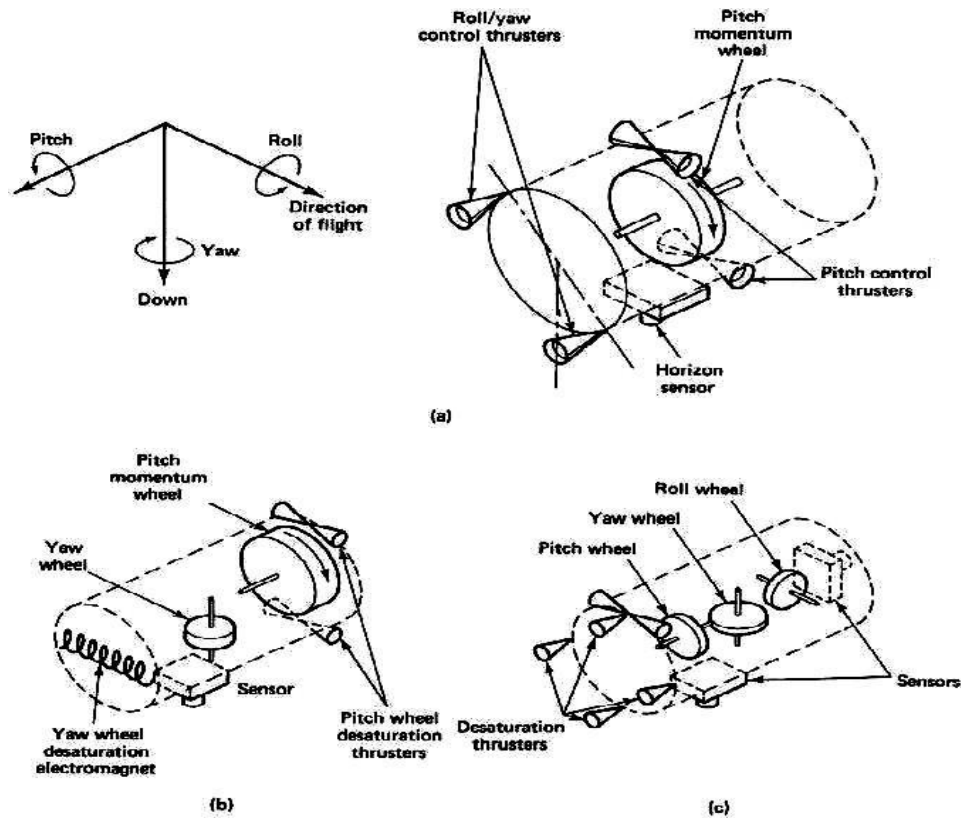


Fig 2.6 Alternative momentum wheel stabilization systems: (a) one-wheel, (b) two-wheel, (c) three-wheel

When a momentum wheel is operated with zero momentum bias, it is generally referred to as a *reaction wheel*. Reaction wheels are used in three-axis stabilized systems. Here each axis is stabilized by a reaction wheel, as shown in Figure 2.6. Reaction wheels can also be combined with a momentum wheel to provide the control needed.

Random and cyclic disturbance torques tend to produce zero momentum on average. However, there will always be some disturbance torque that causes an accumulative increase in wheel momentum, and eventually at some point the wheel *saturates*. In effect, it reaches its maximum allowable angular velocity and can no longer take in any more momentum. Mass expulsion devices are then used to unload the wheel, remove momentum from it. The operation of the mass expulsion devices consumes part of the satellite's fuel supply.

### Thermal Control and Propulsion

Satellites are subject to large thermal gradients, receiving the sun's radiation on one side while the other side faces into space. In addition, thermal radiation from the earth and the earth's *albedo*, which is the fraction of the radiation falling on earth which is reflected, can be significant for low-altitude earth-orbiting satellites, although it is negligible for geostationary satellites.

Equipment in the satellite also generates heat which has to be removed. The most important consideration is that the satellite's equipment should operate as nearly as possible in a stable temperature environment. Thermal blankets and shields may be used to provide insulation. Radiation mirrors are often used to remove heat from the communications payload.

The mirrored thermal radiator for the Hughes HS 376 satellite can be seen in Figure 2.5. These mirrored drums surround the communications equipment shelves in each case and provide good radiation paths for the generated heat to escape into the surrounding space.

One advantage of spinning satellites compared with body-stabilized is that the spinning body provides an averaging of the temperature extremes experienced from solar flux and the cold background of deep space. In order to maintain constant temperature conditions, heaters may be switched on to make up for the heat reduction which occurs when transponders are switched off. The INTELSAT VI satellite heaters are used to maintain propulsion thrusters and line temperatures.

### **Communication Payload and Supporting Subsystems**

The physical principle of establishing communication connections between remote communication devices dates back to the late 1800s when scientists were beginning to understand electromagnetism and discovered that electromagnetic radiation generated by one device can be detected by another located at some distance away.

By controlling certain aspects of the radiation, useful information can be embedded in the EM waves and transmitted from one device to another. The second major module is the communication payload, which is made up of transponders. A transponder is capable of -

- Receiving uplinked radio signals from earth satellite transmission stations (antennas).
- Amplifying received radio signals.
- Sorting the input signals and directing the output signals through input/output signal multiplexers to the proper downlink antennas for retransmission to earth satellite receiving stations (antennas).

### **Telemetry, Tracking and Command Subsystem (TTC)**

The TT&C subsystem performs several routine functions aboard the spacecraft. The telemetry function could be interpreted as *measurement at a distance*. It refers to the overall operation of generating an electrical signal proportional to the quantity being measured and encoding and transmitting this to a distant station, which for the satellite is one of the earth stations.

Data transmitted as telemetry signals include attitude information such as that obtained from sun and earth sensors; environmental information such as the magnetic field intensity and direction, the frequency of meteorite impact etc and spacecraft information such as temperatures, power supply voltages, and stored-fuel pressure.

The telemetry subsystem transmits information about the satellite to the earth station, while the command subsystem receives command signals from the earth station, often in response to telemetered information. The command subsystem demodulates and decodes the command signals and routes these to the appropriate equipment needed to execute the necessary action. Thus attitude changes may be made, communication transponders switched in and out of circuits, antennas redirected, and station-keeping maneuvers carried out on command. It is important to prevent unauthorized commands from being received and decoded, and the command signals are often encrypted.

*Encrypt* is derived from a Greek word *kryptein*, meaning *to hide*, and represents the process of concealing the command signals in a secure code. This differs from the normal process of encoding which converts characters in the command signal into a code suitable for transmission. Tracking of the satellite is accomplished by having the satellite transmit beacon signals which are received at the TT&C earth stations. Tracking is obviously important during the transfer and drift orbital phases of the satellite launch. Once it is on station, the position of a geo-stationary satellite will tend to be shifted as a result of the various disturbing forces. Therefore, it is necessary to be able to track the satellite's movement and send correction signals as required.

### **Transponders**

A transponder is the series of interconnected units which forms a single communications channel between the receive and transmit antennas in a communication satellite. Some of the units utilized by a transponder in a given channel may be common to a number of transponders. Thus, although reference may be made to a specific transponder, this must be thought of as an equipment *channel* rather than a single item of equipment.

Before describing in detail the various units of a transponder, the overall frequency arrangement of a typical C-band communication satellite will be examined briefly. The bandwidth allocated for C-band service is 500 MHz, and this is divided into sub-bands, one transponder.

A typical transponder bandwidth is 36 MHz, and allowing for a 4-MHz guard-band between transponders, 12 such transponders can be accommodated in the 500-MHz bandwidth.

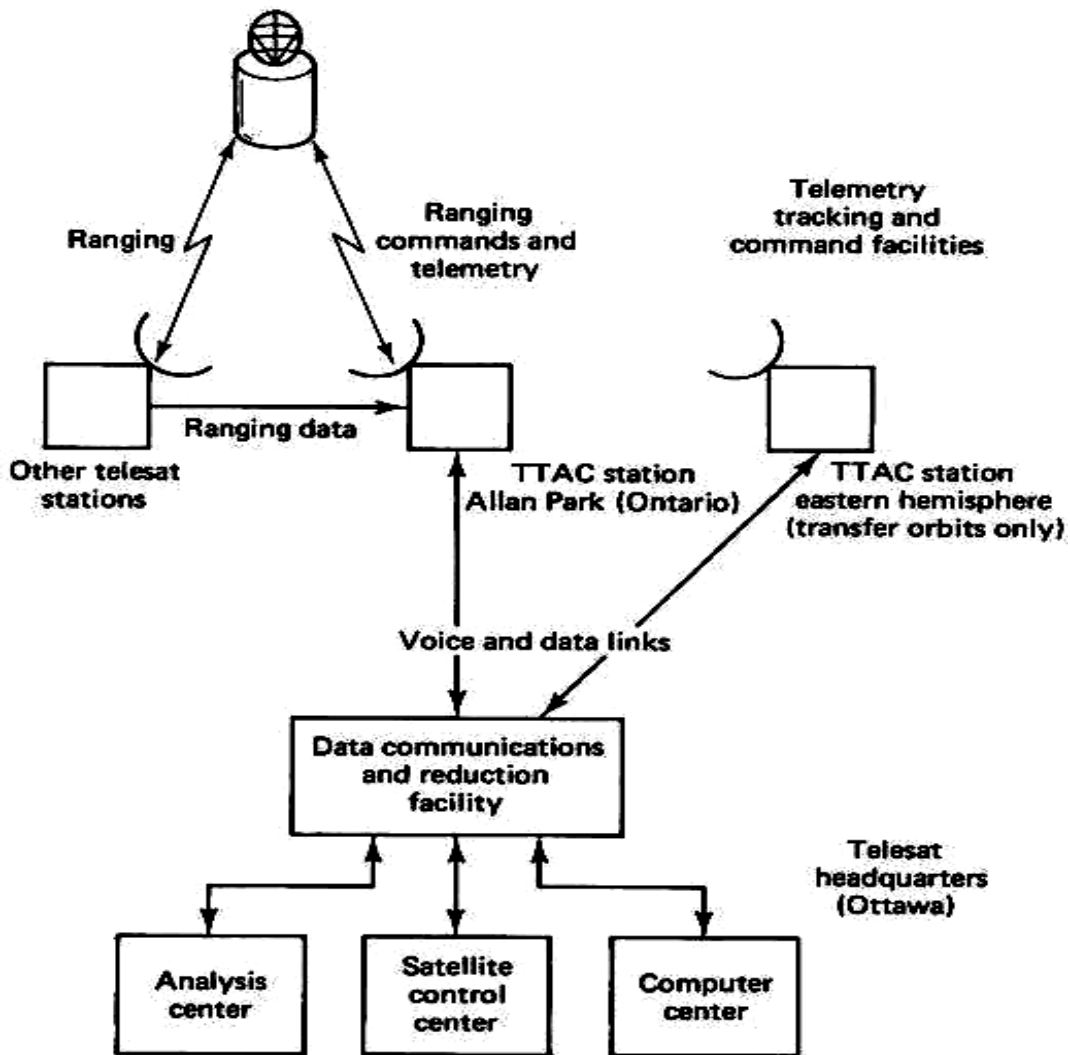


Fig2.7 Satellite Control System

By making use of *polarization isolation*, this number can be doubled. Polarization isolation refers that carriers, which may be on the same frequency but with opposite senses of polarization, can be isolated from one another by receiving antennas matched to the incoming polarization. With linear polarization, vertically and horizontally polarized carriers can be separated in this way, and with circular polarization, left-hand circular and right-hand circular polarizations can be separated. Because the carriers with opposite senses of polarization may overlap in frequency, this technique is referred to as *frequency reuse*. Figure 2.8 shows part of the frequency and polarization plan for a C-band communications satellite.

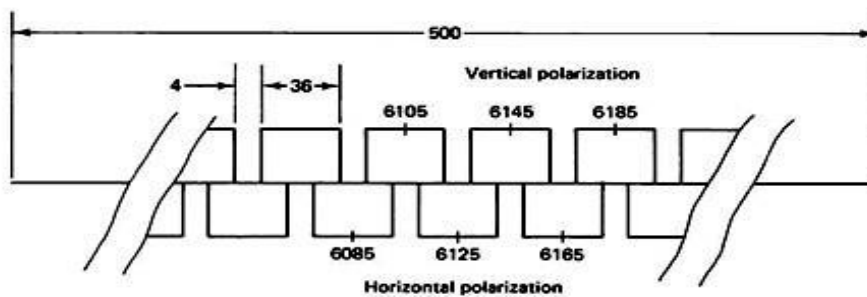
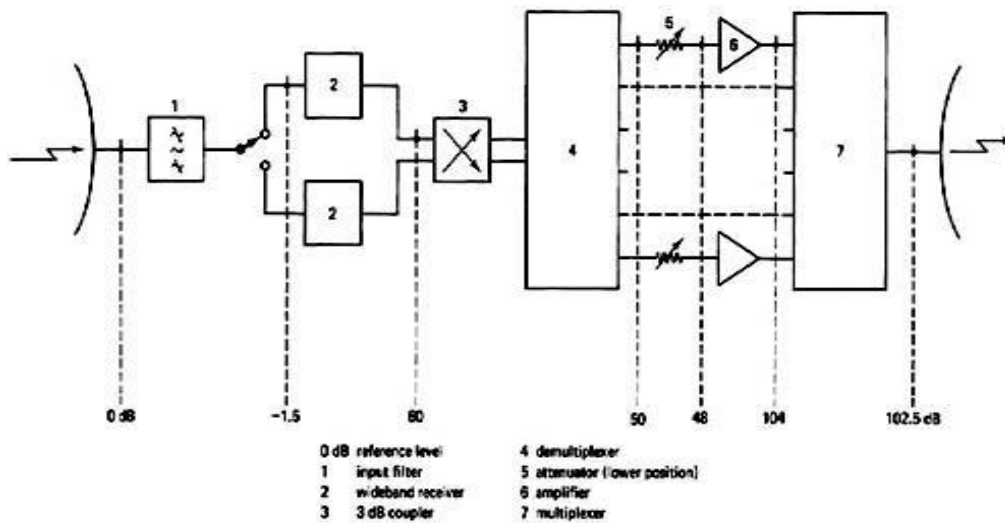


Fig 2.8 Section of an Uplink Frequency and Polarization Plan

Frequency reuse also may be achieved with spot-beam antennas, and these may be combined with polarization reuse to provide an effective bandwidth of 2000 MHz from the actual bandwidth of 500 MHz. For one of the polarization groups, Figure 2.8 shows the channeling scheme for the 12 transponders in more detail. The incoming, or uplink, frequency range is 5.925 to 6.425 GHz. The frequency conversion shifts the carriers to the downlink frequency band, which is also 500 MHz wide, extending from 3.7 to 4.2 GHz. At this point the signals are channeled into frequency bands which represent the individual transponder bandwidths.

### The wideband receiver

The wideband receiver is shown in more detail in Fig. 2.10. A duplicate receiver is provided so that if one fails, the other is automatically switched in. The combination is referred to as a *redundant receiver*, meaning that although two are provided, only one is in use at a given time.

The first stage in the receiver is a *low-noise amplifier* (LNA). This amplifier adds little noise to the carrier being amplified, and at the same time it provides sufficient amplification for the carrier to override the higher noise level present in the following mixer stage.

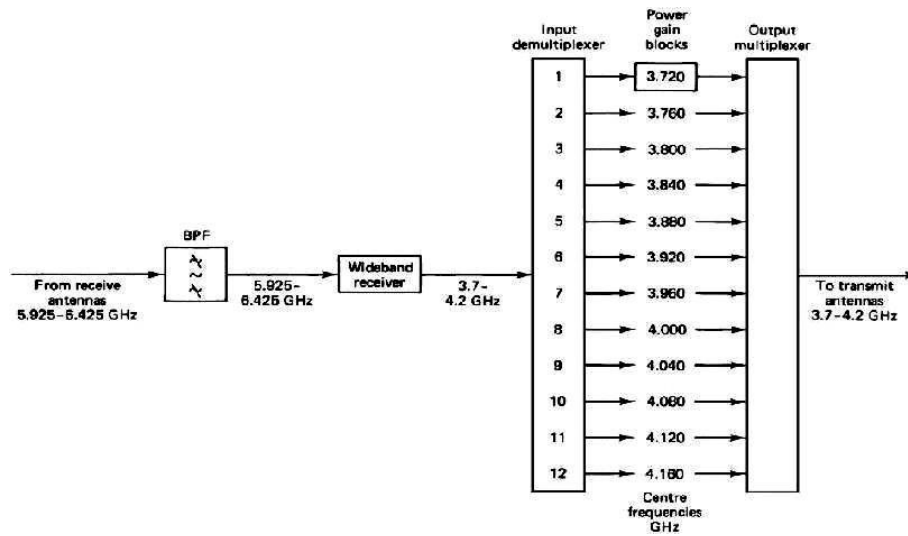


Fig2.9 Satellite Transponder Channels

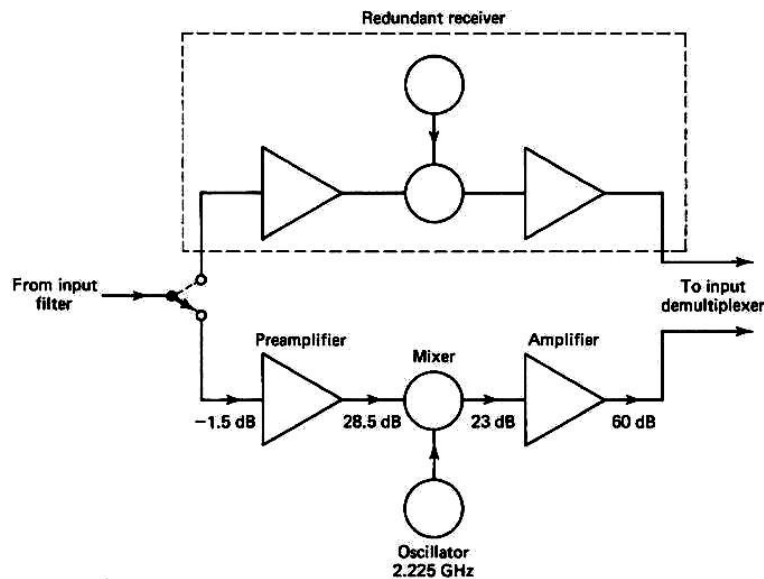


Fig2.10 Satellite Wideband Receiver

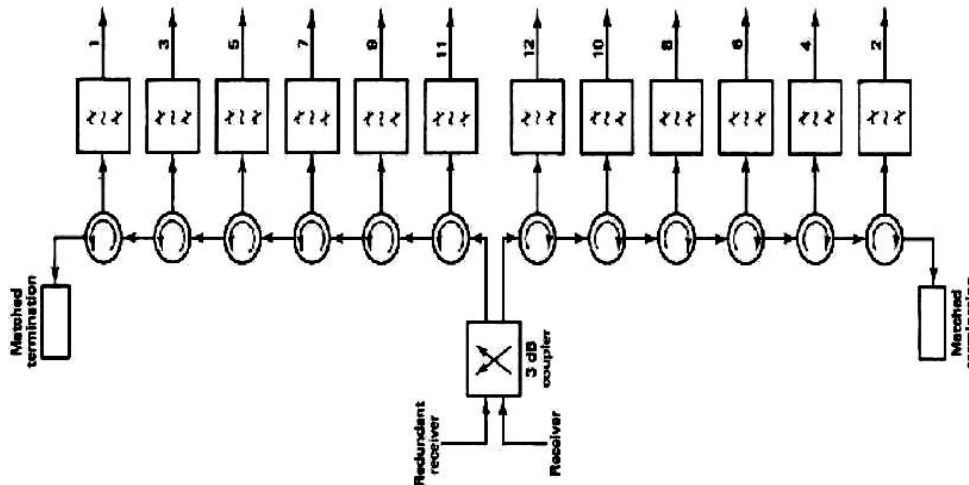
It is more convenient to refer all noise levels to the LNA input, where the total receiver noise may be expressed in terms of an equivalent noise temperature. In a well-designed receiver, the equivalent noise temperature referred to the LNA input is basically that of the LNA alone. The overall noise temperature must take into account the noise added from the antenna. The equivalent noise temperature of a satellite receiver may be on the order of a few hundred kelvins.

The LNA feeds into a mixer stage, which also requires a local oscillator (LO) signal for the frequency-conversion process. With advances in *field-effect transistor* (FET) technology, FET amplifiers, which offer equal or better performance, are now available for both bands. Diode mixer stages are used. The amplifier following the mixer may utilize *bipolar junction transistors* (BJTs) at 4 GHz and FETs at 12 GHz, or FETs may in fact be used in both bands.

## The input de-multiplexer

The input de-multiplexer separates the broadband input, covering the frequency range 3.7 to 4.2 GHz, into the transponder frequency channels. This provides greater frequency separation between adjacent channels in a group, which reduces adjacent channel interference. The output from the receiver is fed to a power splitter, which in turn feeds the two separate chains of circulators.

Fig 2.11 Satellite Input Multiplexer



The full broadband signal is transmitted along each chain, and the channelizing is achieved by means of channel filters connected to each circulator. Each filter has a bandwidth of 36 MHz and is tuned to the appropriate center frequency, as shown in Fig. 2.11. Although there are considerable losses in the demultiplexer, these are easily made up in the overall gain for the transponder channels.

## The power amplifier

The fixed attenuation is needed to balance out variations in the input attenuations so that each transponder channel has the same nominal attenuation, the necessary adjustments being made during assembly. The variable attenuator is needed to set the levels as required for different types of service. Because this variable attenuator adjustment is an operational requirement, it must be under the control of the ground TT&C station.

*Traveling-wave tube amplifiers (TWTAs)* are widely used in transponders to provide the final output power required to the transmit antenna. Figure 2.12 shows the schematic of a *traveling wave tube (TWT)* and its power supplies. In the TWT, an electron-beam gun assembly consisting of a heater, a cathode, and focusing electrodes is used to form an electron beam. A magnetic field is required to confine the beam to travel along the inside of a wire helix.

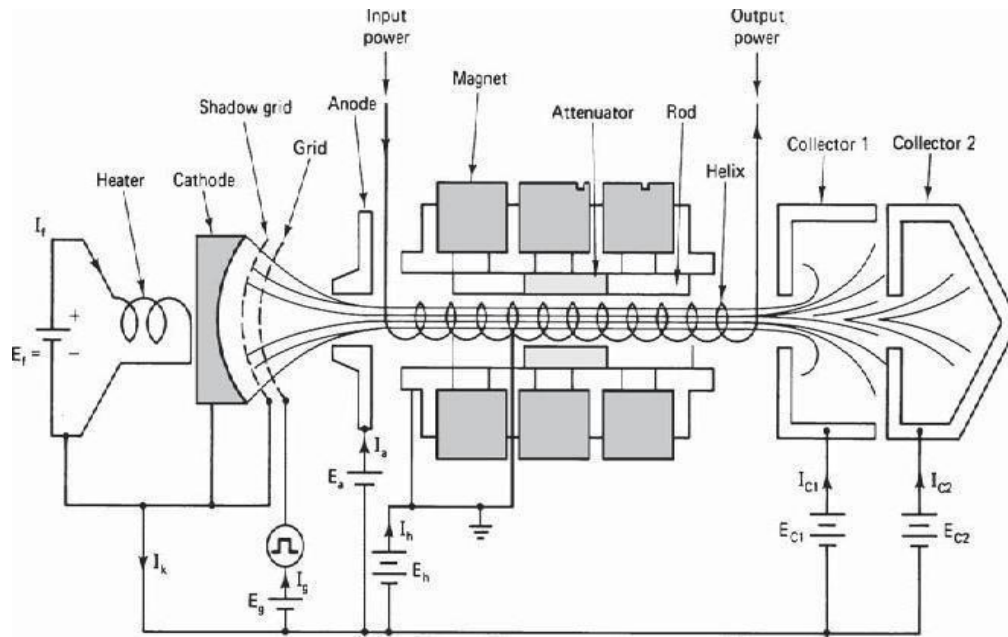


Fig2.12 Satellite TWT

The magnetic field can be provided by means of a solenoid and dc power supply. The comparatively large size and high-power consumption of solenoids make them unsuitable for use aboard satellites and lower-power TWTs are used which employ permanent-magnet focusing. The wave will travel around the helical path at close to the speed of light, but it is the axial component of wave velocity which interacts with the electron beam.

This component is less than the velocity of light approximately in the ratio of helix pitch to circumference. Because of this effective reduction in phase velocity, the helix is referred to as a *slow wave structure*. The advantage of the TWT over other types of tube amplifiers is that it can provide amplification over a very wide bandwidth. Input levels to the TWT must be carefully controlled, however, to minimize the effects of certain forms of distortion. The results from the nonlinear transfer characteristic of the TWT are illustrated in Figure 2.13.

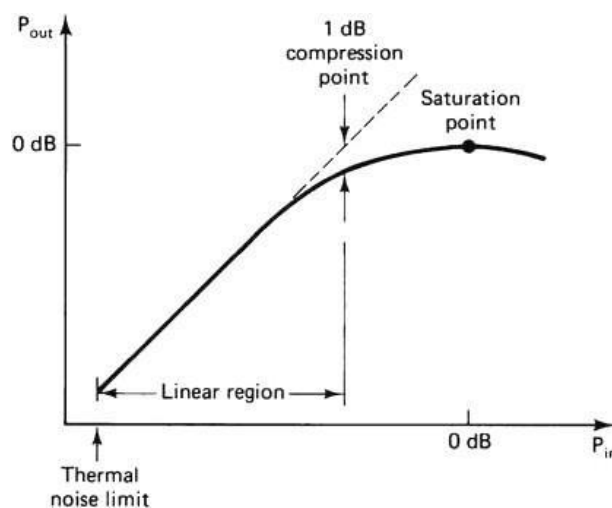


Fig2.13 Power Transfer Characteristics of a TWT

At low-input powers, the output-input power relationship is linear. At higher power inputs, the output power saturates, the point of maximum power output being known as the *saturation point*. The saturation point is a very convenient reference point and input and output quantities are usually referred to it. The linear region of the TWT is defined as the region bound by the thermal noise limit at the low end and by what is termed the *1-dB compression point* at the upper end. This is the point where the actual transfer curve drops.

## Satellite Uplink and Downlink Analysis and Design

### Introduction

The link-power budget calculations basically relate two quantities, the transmit power and the receive power, and show in detail how the difference between these two powers is accounted for. Link-budget calculations are usually made using decibel or decilog quantities. Where no ambiguity arises regarding the units, the abbreviation dB is used. For example, Boltzmann's constant is given as 228.6 dB, although, strictly speaking, this should be given as 228.6 decilog relative to 1 J/K.

### Equivalent Isotropic Radiated Power

A key parameter in link-budget calculations is the *equivalent isotropic radiated power*, conventionally denoted EIRP. The maximum power flux density at some distance 'r' for transmitting antenna of gain 'Gi'

$$Pr = \frac{GP}{4\pi^2}$$

An isotropic radiator with an input power equal to GP would produce the same flux density. Hence, this product is referred to as the EIRP, or EIRP is often expressed in decibels relative to 1 W, or dBW. Let PS be in watts; then [EIRP] = [PS] x [G] dB, where [PS] is also in dBW and [G] is in dB.

### Transmission Losses

The [EIRP] may be thought of as the power input to one end of the transmission link, and the problem is to find the power received at the other end. Losses will occur along the way, some of which are constant. Other losses can only be estimated from statistical data, and some of these are dependent on weather conditions, especially on rainfall.

The first step in the calculations is to determine the losses for *clear-weather* or *clear-sky conditions*. These calculations take into account the losses, including those calculated on a statistical basis which does not vary with time. Losses which are weather-related, and other losses which fluctuate with time, are then allowed for by introducing appropriate *fade margins* into the transmission equation.

### Free-space transmission:

As a first step in the loss calculations, the power loss resulting from the spreading of the signal in space must be determined.

### Feeder losses:

Losses will occur in the connection between the receive antenna and the receiver proper. Such losses will occur in the connecting waveguides, filters, and couplers. These will be denoted by RFL, or [RFL] dB, for *receiver feeder losses*.

### Antenna misalignment losses:

When a satellite link is established, the ideal situation is to have the earth station and satellite antennas aligned for maximum gain, as shown in Figure 2.14. There are two possible sources of off-axis loss, one at the satellite and one at the earth station. The off-axis loss at the satellite is taken into account by designing the link for operation on the actual satellite antenna contour; this is described in more detail in later sections. The off-axis loss at the earth station is referred to as the *antenna pointing loss*. Antenna pointing losses are usually only a few tenths of a decibel. In addition to pointing losses, losses may result at the antenna from misalignment of the polarization direction. The polarization misalignment losses are usually small, and it will be assumed that the antenna misalignment losses, denoted by [AML], include both pointing and polarization losses resulting from antenna misalignment.

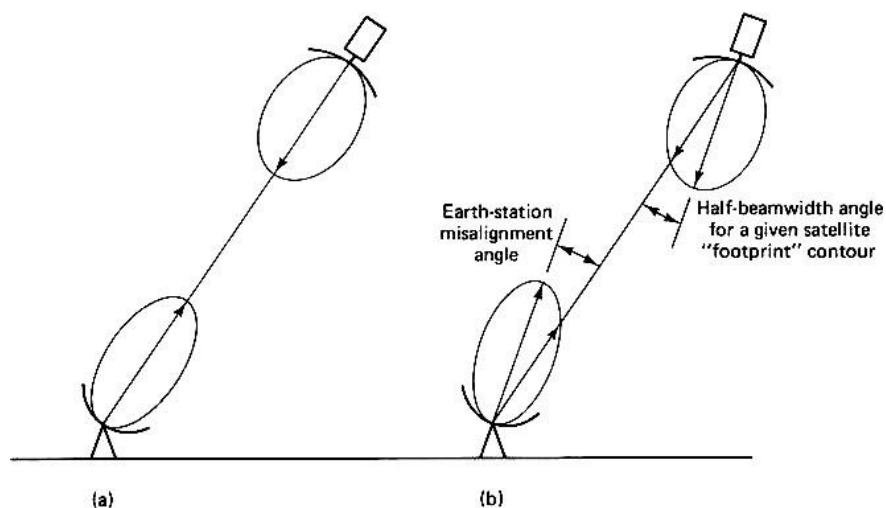


Fig 2.14 (a) Satellite and earth-station antennas aligned for maximum gain; (b) earth station situated on a given satellite "footprint," and earth-station antenna misaligned.

### The Link-Power Budget Equation

The losses for the link have been identified, the power at the receiver, which is the power output of the link, may be calculated simply as  $[EIRP] [LOSSES] [GR]$ , where the last quantity is the receiver antenna gain. The major source of loss in any ground-satellite link is the free-space spreading loss [FSL], the basic link-power budget equation taking into account this loss only. However, the other losses also must be taken into account, and these are simply added to [FSL].

The losses for clear-sky conditions are

$$\begin{aligned}
 [\text{LOSSES}] &= [\text{FSL}] + [\text{RFL}] + [\text{AML}] + [\text{AA}] - [\text{PL}] \text{ equation for the received power is then } [PR] \\
 &= [\text{EIRP}] \times [GR] - [\text{LOSSES}]
 \end{aligned}$$

Where

[PR]-the received power, dBW

[EIRP]-equivalent isotropic radiated power, dBW [FSL] free-space spreading loss, dB [RFL] - receiver feeder loss, dB

[AML]-antenna misalignment loss, dB

[AA]-atmospheric absorption loss, dB [PL] polarization mismatch loss, dB

### Amplifier Noise Temperature

Consider first the noise representation of the antenna and the *low noise amplifier* (LNA) shown in Fig. 2.15. The available power gain of the amplifier is denoted as  $G$ , and the noise power output, as  $P_{no}$ .

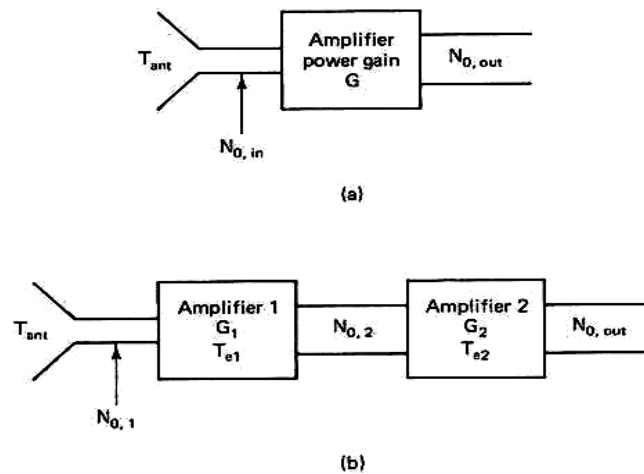


Fig 2.15 LNA Amplifier Gain

For the moment, the noise power per unit bandwidth, which is simply noise energy in joules as shown by the following Equation. The input noise energy coming from the antenna is

$$N_{0,ant} = kT_{ant}$$

### The Uplink

The uplink of a satellite circuit is the one in which the earth station is transmitting the signal and the satellite is receiving it. Specifically, the uplink is being considered.

$$\frac{C}{N} = [\text{EIRP}] - [\text{LOSSES}] + [k]$$

In the above equation, the values to be used are the earth station EIRP, the satellite receiver feeder losses, and satellite receiver  $G/T$ . The free-space loss and other losses which are frequency-dependent are calculated for the uplink frequency.

### Input back-off

Since the number of carriers are present simultaneously in a TWTA, the operating point must be backed off to a linear portion of the transfer characteristic to reduce the effects of inter modulation distortion. Such multiple carrier operation occurs with *frequency-division multiple access* (FDMA).

The point to be made here is that *backoff* (BO) must be allowed for in the link-budget calculations. Suppose that the saturation flux density for single-carrier operation is known. Input BO will be specified for multiple-carrier operation, referred to the single-carrier saturation level.

The earth-station EIRP will have to be reduced by the specified BO, resulting in an uplink value of [EIRP]

$$U = [EIRP] - [BO]$$

### The earth station HPA

The earth station HPA has to supply the radiated power plus the transmit feeder losses, denoted here by TFL, or [TFL] dB. These include waveguide, filter, and coupler losses between the HPA output and the transmit antenna. The earth station may have to transmit multiple carriers and its output also will require back off, denoted by [BO] HPA. The earth station HPA must be rated for a saturation power output given by

$$[P_{HPA, sat}] = [P_{HPA}] + [BO]_{HPA}$$

### Downlink

The downlink of a satellite circuit is the one in which the satellite is transmitting the signal and the earth station is receiving it. Equation can be applied to the downlink, but subscript  $D$  will be used to denote specifically that the downlink is being considered.

$$\frac{C}{N} = [EIRP] - [LOSSES] + [k]$$

In the above equation, the values to be used are the satellite EIRP, the earth-station receiver feeder losses, and the earth-station receiver  $G/T$ . The free space and other losses are calculated for the downlink frequency. The resulting carrier-to-noise density ratio appears at the detector of the earth station receiver.

### Output back-off

Where input BO is employed as described in a corresponding output BO must be allowed for in the satellite EIRP. As the curve of Figure 2.16 shows that output BO is not linearly related to input BO. A rule of thumb, frequently used, is to take the output BO as the point on the curve which is 5 dB below the extrapolated linear portion. Since the linear portion gives a 1:1 change in decibels, the relationship between input and output BO is [BO]<sub>0</sub> [BO]<sub>i</sub> 5 dB. For example, with an input BO of [BO]<sub>i</sub> 11 dB, the corresponding output BO is [BO]<sub>0</sub>

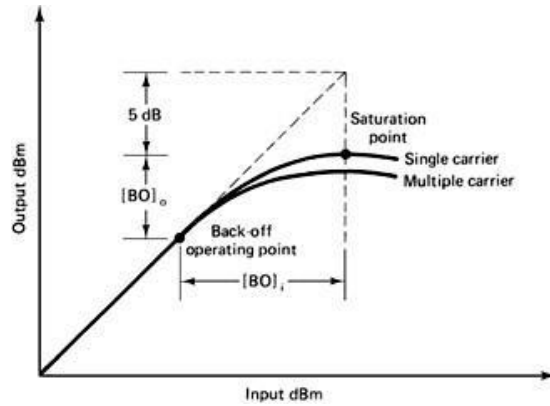
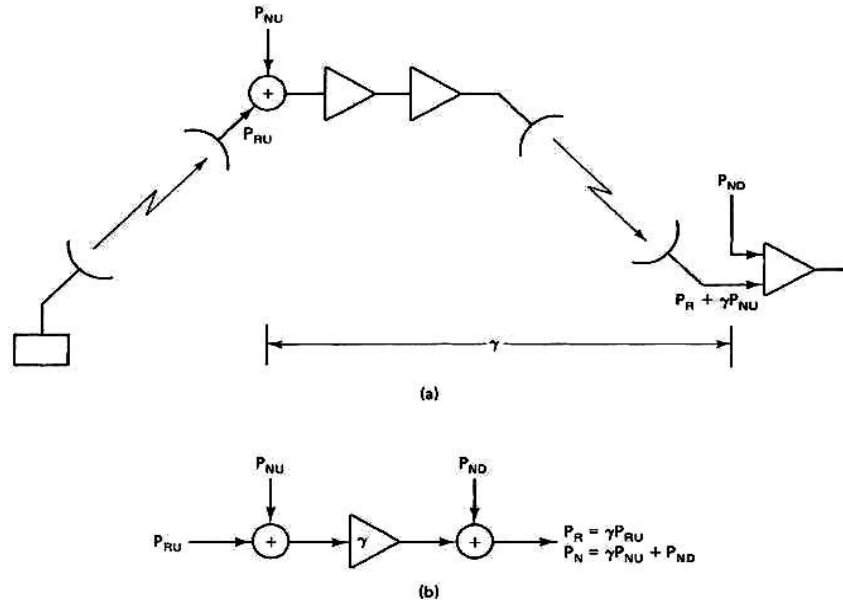


Fig2.16 Input and output back-off relationship for the satellite traveling-wave-tube amplifier

### Effects of Rain

In the C band and, more especially, the Ku band, rainfall is the most significant cause of signal fading. Rainfall results in attenuation of radio waves by scattering and by absorption of energy from the wave. Rain attenuation increases with increasing frequency and is worse in the Ku band compared with the C band. This produces a depolarization of the wave; in effect, the wave becomes elliptically polarized. This is true for both linear and circular polarizations, and the effect seems to be much worse for circular polarization. The  $C/N_0$  ratio for the downlink alone, not counting the  $P_{NU}$  contribution, is  $P_R/P_{ND}$ , and the combined  $C/N_0$  ratio at the ground receiver is

Fig2.17 (a) Combined uplink and downlink (b) power flow diagram



The reason for this reciprocal of the sum of the reciprocals method is that a single signal power is being transferred through the system, while the various noise powers, which are represented as additive. Similar reasoning applies to the carrier-to-noise ratio,  $C/N$ .

## Inter-modulation and Interference

Inter-modulation interference is the undesired combining of several signals in a nonlinear device, producing new, unwanted frequencies which can cause interference in adjacent receivers located at repeater sites. Not all interference is a result of inter-modulation distortion. It can come from co-channel interference, atmospheric conditions as well as man-made noise generated by medical, welding and heating equipment.

Most inter-modulation occurs in a transmitter's nonlinear power amplifier (PA). The next most common mixing point is in the front end of a receiver. Usually, it occurs in the unprotected first mixer of older model radios or in some cases an overdriven RF front-end amp.

Inter-modulation can also be produced in rusty or corroded tower joints, guy wires, turnbuckles and anchor rods or any nearby metallic object, which can act as a nonlinear "mixer/rectifier" device.

## Propagation Characteristics and Frequency Considerations

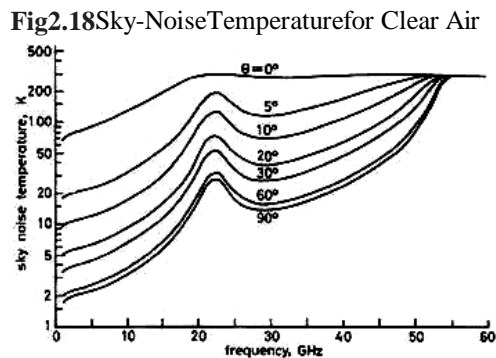
### Introduction

A number of factors resulting from changes in the atmosphere have to be taken into account when designing a satellite communications system in order to avoid impairment of the wanted signal. Generally, a margin in the required carrier-to-noise ratio is incorporated to accommodate such effects.

### Radio Noise

Radio noise emitted by matter is used as a source of information in radio-astronomy and in remote sensing. Noise of a thermal origin has a continuous spectrum, but several other radiation mechanisms cause the emission to have a spectral-line structure. Atoms and molecules are distinguished by their different spectral lines. For other services such as satellite communications noise is a limiting factor for the receiving system. Generally, it is inappropriate to use receiving systems with noise temperatures which are much less than those specified by the minimum external noise. From about 30 MHz to about 1 GHz cosmic noise predominates over atmospheric noise except during local thunderstorms, but will generally be exceeded by man-made noise in populated areas.

In the bands of strong gaseous absorption, the noise temperature reaches maximum values of some 290 K. At times, precipitation will also increase the noise temperature at frequencies above 5 GHz. Figure 2.18 gives an indication of sky noise at various elevation angles and frequencies.



## **System Reliability and Design Lifetime**

### **System reliability**

Satellites are designed to operate dependably throughout their operational life, usually a number of years. This is achieved through stringent quality control and testing of parts and subsystems before they are used in the construction of the satellite. Redundancy of key components is often built in so that if a particular part or subassembly fails, another can perform its functions. In addition, hardware and software on the satellite are often designed so that ground controllers can reconfigure the satellite to work around a part that has failed.

### **2.12.2. Design lifetime**

The Milstar constellation has demonstrated exceptional reliability and capability, providing vital protected communications to the warfighter,” said Kevin Bilger, vice president and general manager, Global Communications Systems, Lockheed Martin Space Systems in Sunnyvale. “Milstar’s robust system offers our nation worldwide connectivity with flexible, dependable and highly secure satellite communications.”

The five-satellite Milstar constellation has surpassed 63 years of combined successful operations, and provides a protected, global communication network for the joint forces of the U.S. military. In addition, it can transmit voice, data, and imagery, and offers video teleconferencing capabilities. The system is the principal survivable, enduring communications structure that the President, the Secretary of Defense and the Commander, U.S. Strategic Command use to maintain positive command and control of the nation's strategic forces.

In addition to this 10-year milestone for Flight-5, each of the first two Milstar satellites has been on orbit for over 16 years – far exceeding their 10-year design life. The next-generation Lockheed Martin-built Advanced EHF satellites, joining the Milstar constellation, provide five times faster data rates and twice as many connections, permitting transmission of strategic and tactical military communications, such as real-time video, battlefield maps and targeting data. Advanced EHF satellites are designed to be fully interoperable and backward compatible with Milstar.

Headquartered in Bethesda, Md., Lockheed Martin is a global security company that employs about 123,000 people worldwide and is principally engaged in the research, design, development, manufacture, integration and sustainment of advanced technology systems, products and services. The Corporation's net sales for 2011 were \$46.5 billion.

## **APPLICATIONS OF SATELLITES:**

Satellites that are launched into the orbit by using the rockets are called man-made satellites or artificial satellites. Artificial satellites revolve around the earth because of the gravitational force of attraction between the earth and satellites. Unlike the natural satellites (moon), artificial satellites are used in various applications. The various applications of artificial satellites include:

1. Weather forecasting
2. Navigation
3. Astronomy
4. Satellite phone
5. Satellite television

6. Military satellite
7. Satellite internet
8. Satellite radio.

### **1. Weather forecasting**

Weather forecasting is the prediction of the future of weather. The satellites that are used to predict the future of weather are called weather satellites. Weather satellites continuously monitor the climate and weather conditions of earth. They use sensors called radiometers for measuring the heat energy released from the earth surface. Weather satellites also predict the most dangerous storms such as hurricanes.

### **2. Navigation**

Generally, navigation refers to determining the geographical location of an object. The satellites that are used to determine the geographic location of aircrafts, ships, cars, trains, or any other object are called navigation satellites. GPS (Global Positioning System) is an example of navigation system. It allows the user to determine their exact location anywhere in the world.

### **3. Astronomy**

Astronomy is the study of celestial objects such as stars, planets, galaxies, natural satellites, comets, etc. The satellites that are used to study or observe the distant stars, galaxies, planets, etc. are called astronomical satellites. They are mainly used to find the new stars, planets, and galaxies. Hubble space telescope is an example of astronomical satellite. It captures the high-resolution images of the distant stars, galaxies, planets etc.

### **4. Satellite phone**

Satellite phone is a type of mobile phone that uses satellites instead of cell towers for transmitting the signal or information over long distances. Mobile phones that use cell towers will work only within the coverage area of a cell tower. If we go beyond the coverage area of a cell tower or if we reach the remote areas, it becomes difficult to make a voice call or send text messages with the mobile phones. Unlike the mobile phones, satellite phones have global coverage. Satellite phones use geostationary satellites and low earth orbit (LEO) satellites for transmitting the information. When a person makes a call from the satellite phone, the signal is sent to the satellite. The satellite will receive that signal, processes it, and redirect the signal back to the earth via a gateway. The gateway then sends the signal or call to the destination by using the regular cellular and landline networks. The usage of satellite phones is illegal in some countries like Cuba, North Korea, Burma, India, and Russia.

### **5. Satellite television**

Satellite television or satellite TV is a wireless system that uses communication satellites to deliver the television programs or television signals to the users or viewers.

TV or television mostly uses geostationary satellites because they look stationary from the earth. Hence, the signal is easily transmitted. When the television signal is sent to the satellite, it receives the signal, amplifies it, and retransmits it back to the earth. The first satellite television signal was sent from Europe to North America by using the Telstar satellite.

### **6. Military satellite**

Military satellite is an artificial satellite used by the army for various purposes such as spying on enemy countries, military communication, and navigation.

Military satellites obtain the secret information from the enemy countries. These satellites also detect the missiles launched by the other countries in the space.

Military satellites are used by armed forces to communicate with each other. These satellites also used to determine the exact location of an object.

## **7. Satellite internet**

Satellite internet is a wireless system that uses satellites to deliver the internet signals to users. High-speed internet is the main advantage of satellite internet. Satellite internet does not use cable systems, but instead it uses satellites to transmit the information or signal.

## **8. Satellite radio**

Satellite radio is a wireless transmission service that uses orbiting satellites to deliver the information or radio signals to the consumers. It is primarily used in the cars. When the ground station transmits signal to the satellite that is revolving around the earth, the satellite receives the signal, amplifies it, and redirects the signal back to the earth (radio receivers in the cars).