

Cointegration Analysis for IMU in a Fixed-Wing UAV

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Abstract—This paper proposes the deployment of an embedded system for a fixed-wing unmanned aerial vehicle (UAV), including the implementation of an autonomous navigation algorithm for it. An Extended Kalman Filter (EKF) based Global Positioning System (GPS) / Inertial Navigation System (INS) integration with cointegrated measurements from inertial sensors has been developed in order to achieve localization on a mission. The experimental results with data from a flight test show that this approach can perform accurate state estimation.

I. INTRODUCTION

A considerable amount of unmanned aerial vehicle applications has been used for different purposes in civilian and military areas [1], [2], [3]. All these applications, in order to perform autonomous flight adopt hardware that has various sensors that can measure environment signals and can estimate the actual vehicle state. The state of a UAV is composed of: (a) motion parameters, such as position, velocity and acceleration; and, (b) attitude parameters, such as heading angle, tilt, rotation angle [4]. Because of the particularities of each sensor, some have a low update rate of dynamic navigation. When this occurs the sensor may not be available at all times, thus compromising navigation.

In order to overcome this problem, a vast number of articles has been published about sensor fusion for aerial and terrestrial robots. Most of them addressing problems like simultaneous localization and mapping (SLAM) to get a better state estimate in an unknown environment [5], [6], [7], either by formulating the problem as a factor graph or even by using the least squares formulation to minimize the error. Some implementations use additional sensors or multi-sensors for fault tolerance [8], [9]. In general, the Kalman Filter (KF) is widely used since Rudolf Kalman introduced it in 1960 [10]. Its special variations like Extended Kalman Filter (EKF) was discussed in [11], [12], [13], and Unscented Kalman Filter (UKF) was addressed in [14] and [15].

Differently from the above mentioned works, we explore the use of cointegration and the error vector correction model. For the sensors of a UAV, it should be considered a non-linear approach. However, the two inertial sensors of the UAV have homogeneous characteristics, so we adopt the linear model used in [9] with an Extended Kalman Filter.

In summary, in this paper we present an approach in which low cost sensors only are used to perform cointegration test

in two inertial measurement units (IMU) in order to get the best estimation for inertial parameters. This applies to acceleration and rotation measurements; and, later on, the EKF performs sensor fusion. In this step the diagonal process noise measurement matrix R is the standard deviations from accelerometer and gyroscope in 3d-axis given by cointegration test.

Moreover, with this statistical tool we can discover the relation between pairs of sensor signals from the architecture. That allows us to discover the best readings from one IMU, or if not possible, we can find out the best features of each IMU working together. Also, one signal can be substituted by others when there is that relation, culminating in a more assertive vehicle state estimation.

Furthermore, we validate our approach with a flight test. Finally, some results are presented, followed by our conclusions and future works.

II. THE DEPLOYMENT OF A UAV

In this section, we define the necessary requirements to assemble robust and multipurpose UAV.

A. Aircraft configuration: a paraglider

For this work, we use the fuselage of a handmade EPO glider (Fig. 1). That model is radio-controlled with 4-channel. Also, it is manufactured with CNC cuts and finished with colored adhesive tapes. It has fiberglass stringers in the extension of the wing for reinforcement purposes. The wing is removable to access the electronics compartment and it is attached to the fuselage with elastic rubber. The airplane requires basic assembly, like attaching the stabilizers and wing support.

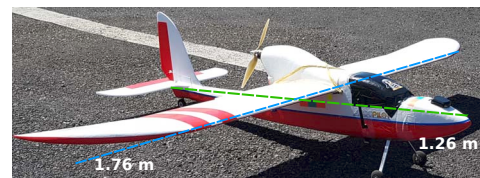


Fig. 1. Fixed Wing Model.

B. Mainboard and Autopilot

As the autopilot board, we use a Raspberry Pi based autopilot Navio2, from Emlid (Fig. 2a), a hardware chosen to comply with the proposed design requirements. The autopilot is designed to work with the microcomputer Raspberry Pi (Fig. 2b) which is capable of real-time processing.

The Navio2 is equipped with sensors able to perform autonomous flight test, with 2 IMUs, that provides three axis accelerometer, three axis gyroscope, and three axis magnetometer each. Also has barometer, GPS, PWM, PPM, serial communication UART, I2C, SPI, and ADC. It is a compact board with dimensions of 55mm x 65mm, and weight 23g.

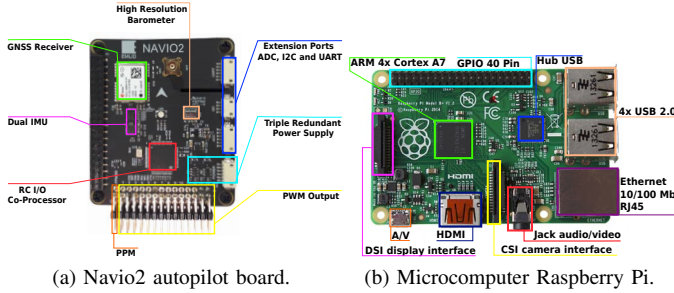


Fig. 2. Mainboard and autopilot.

Furthermore, the microcomputer required to use Navio2, Raspberry Pi, in its version 2 Model B features a robust and suitable hardware which has a 900MHz 32-bit ARM Cortex A7 processor, 1GB of RAM, 4 USB ports, 40 GPIO pins, camera interface (CSI), micro SD card slot and videoCore IV 3D graphics core. In our work, we use a Linux kernel with real time capabilities, and as the autopilot base software, the ArduPlane [16], which is part of the free Autopilot Source Project.

C. Architecture

Our architecture comprises the FlightGear software simulator and JSBSim, respectively as flight view and UAV dynamic controller for simulation. Besides that, the APM Planner 2 as the ground control station of the mission, and the API Dronekit as the development tool, which has encapsulated the protocol MAVLink, that allows communication among all software.

III. THE PROBLEM STATEMENT

The localization problem of a UAV can be formulated using an IMU to measure the UAV acceleration and rotation rates. At the inertial navigation system these measurements are processed and transformed by navigation equations which have been considered in the NED (North, East, and Down) local frame [17] to provide the position, velocity and attitude of the vehicle. In this work, we had been using two IMUs to improve the quality of navigation. As shown in the flowchart of the proposed inertial navigation system (Fig. 3), we have been executed cointegration test in acceleration and rotation measures. The cointegration block receives measures from two IMUs (in red IMU1 and in blue IMU2) and perform a unit root test. If the measurements are stationary, it runs

the regression; otherwise, it runs Johansen's test cointegration using an error correction model. It also provides velocity, position, and attitude moving from the body frame to the navigate frame. Despite the dual aspect, we want to capture the best readings from one IMU or, if not possible, we need the best features of each IMU working together. Thus, two navigation systems are introduced at the next subsection: INS, that is developed for a wide range of vehicles, and GPS, that nowadays is the most used.

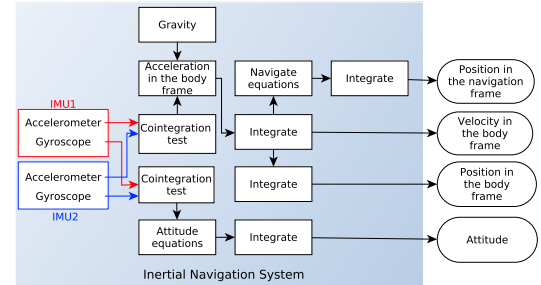


Fig. 3. Proposed inertial navigation system.

A. GPS / INS Integration

In general, these systems have complementary characteristics present in two scenarios. First, the development of an inertial system requires reliable and effective extra information to minimize errors. Second, the GPS itself presents errors, the most commons are due to clock offset of the receiver, signal propagation through ionosphere and troposphere, beyond receiver noise errors and multipath.

For scenario one, the accelerations and angular rates provided by an IMU are integrated with the INS algorithm and that integration accumulates several errors such as accelerometer bias, gyros drift, temperature, and vibrations present in the INS system. GPS provides additional information and highly accurate position and velocity using measurements range. In the second case, INS is extremely useful because it gives conditions to navigate in denied GPS environments. Then, the best estimates of the aircraft states are possible by GPS / INS integration as shown Fig. 4, where the input of EKF is the prior state vector given by inertial navigation system and the GPS measures which take the position of the UAV. The EKF corrects the inertial state estimate with GPS position and takes the state estimate post correction.

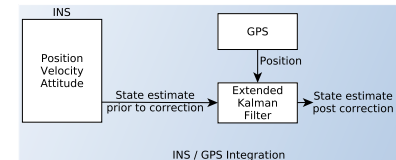


Fig. 4. Block diagram INS / GPS integration.

Eq. 1 gives the state vector of the vehicle where (X, Y, Z) are the positions, (U, V, W) are the velocities and (ϕ, θ, ψ)

are the Euler angles. Eq. 2 represents the output vector where (p, q, r) are the angle rates and (ax, ay, az) are the accelerations [18].

$$x = [X, Y, Z, U, V, W, \phi, \theta, \psi]^T \quad (1)$$

$$u = [p, q, r, ax, ay, az]^T \quad (2)$$

In order to navigate, we must define two reference frames, the body or inertial reference frame which represents the vehicle and the navigation frame, which as the name suggests, is for the vehicle motion. Then, the system equations of motion can be given by simple integrations and frame transformations. Firstly, by Euler equations in [18] we get Euler rates $(\dot{\phi}, \dot{\theta}, \dot{\psi})$.

In this work we have used two IMUs at the vehicle center of gravity to measure acceleration and rotation rates. However, we have considered just one vector (u) after performing cointegration test. Eq. 3 gives $(\dot{U}, \dot{V}, \dot{W})$, which are the true vehicle accelerations in the body frame.

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{U} \\ \dot{V} \\ \dot{W} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ax + Vr - Wq + g \sin(\theta) \\ ay - Ur + Wp - g \cos(\theta) \sin(\phi) \\ az + Uq - Vp - g \cos(\theta) \cos(\phi) \end{bmatrix} \quad (3)$$

In order to obtain the velocity of the vehicle (U, V, W) in the body frame, we need to integrate the acceleration vector. When we integrate the velocity vector we get the position of the vehicle in the body frame. Then, the velocity needs to be transformed by the coordinate transformation matrix and to be integrated to obtain the position vector $([X, Y, Z]^T)$ in the navigation frame, as in Eq. 4:

$$\begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \end{bmatrix} = \int C^T bn(\phi, \theta, \psi) \begin{bmatrix} U \\ V \\ W \end{bmatrix} dt \quad (4)$$

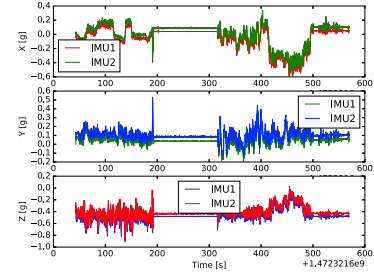
The direction cosine matrix (C_{bn}) rotates a vector from the body frame to the navigation frame [18].

B. Cointegration

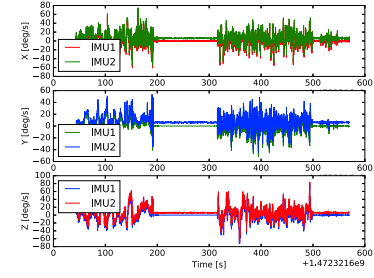
In this paper, we introduced cointegration on a sensor signal from two IMUs in a proposed inertial navigation system. Then we build a multi-sensor architecture with two accelerometers and two gyroscopes. Fig. 5 shows the IMUs readings for the usual sensors for this architecture. We use time series analysis in a range of data and a statistical method [9] where one signal can be substituted by others when there is a relation between sensor signal pairs from the architecture. Cointegration is the statistical tool used for discovering this relationship.

Not only stationary signals are present in a sensor group output, but also non-stationary noise. In order to keep the trend of the signal data, we do not use difference calculation to achieve stationarity. Like [9] points out, “is very difficult to identify the pattern of non-stationary signals”, then we cannot examine the signals directly, but we can find the relation among all signals and use it in our model by Eq. 5:

$$y_{1,t} = \alpha + \beta y_{2,t} + \varepsilon \quad (5)$$



(a) Accelerometer.



(b) Gyroscope.

Fig. 5. Measurements from two-sensor group IMU in 3 axis.

where α and β are the regression parameters, $y_{1,t}$ and $y_{2,t}$ are the sensors and the subscripts refer to the IMU number and time. Finally, ε is the residuals of regression.

Augmented Dickey-Fuller test (ADF) [19] is the unit root test adopted for analyzing the stationarity of series and the Johansen test to estimate the cointegration relation. In order to be cointegrated, each series needs to be individually integrated, and their relation needs a lower order of integration. Eq. 6 presents the unit root test employed:

$$\Delta y_t = \beta_1 + \beta_2 t + \delta y_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i \Delta y_{t-i} + v_t \quad (6)$$

where β_1 is the intercept series, β_2 is a trend coefficient, δ is the unit root coefficient, m is the lag order of the autoregressive process, α_i is a parameter of the model and v_t is the white noise. We test the null hypothesis given by $H_0 : \delta = 0$ and perform regression of Δy_t in $y_{t-1}, \Delta y_{t-1}, \dots, \Delta y_{t+p-1}$ to calculate t-statistic in each time series. The critical values of t-statistic are calculated by [19].

Johansen [20] proposes an approach considering two likelihood ratio tests: the trace test and the maximum eigenvalue test. We chose the trace test, that analyze the number of independent linear combinations of time series variables by Eq. 7:

$$J_{trace} = -T \sum_{i=r+1}^n \ln(1 - \hat{\lambda}_i) \quad (7)$$

where T is the number of observations, \ln is the log of the estimated eigenvalues, $\hat{\lambda}$ is a canonical correlation, r is

the number of cointegrating vectors, and n is the number of alternative hypothesis of cointegrating vectors.

IV. COINTEGRATED ANGLE RATES AND ACCELERATION

The measurements of low-cost MEMS sensors are sensitive and noisy. Thus, obtaining the resulting acceleration of the force applied to the UAV from a single inertial sensor may not be sufficient.

This approach considers measurements of two IMUs, both MPU-9250 (IMU1) and LSM9DS1 (IMU2) operating at a rate of 100Hz with 16bits data output. The navigation data is previously stored during the flight test. We need to extract the reading of the navigation data and the attitude from accelerometers and gyroscope on the Navio2 controller board.

A. Calibration

This is a method which removes structural errors in the sensors output, improving sensor performance and reliability of the measurements from IMUs. Thus, the accelerometers were calibrated by Eq. 8, keeping the UAV stall at six different positions: left side, right side, level, nose down, nose up, and back side. In this way, the Gravity is the total force applied on the UAV body. Table I shows the biases used in each accelerometer axis to improve performance and accuracy of the sensors.

$$\beta = acc_{measured} - sensitivity * acc_{actual} \quad (8)$$

Where $acc_{measured}$ is the measured accelerometer data, $sensitivity$ is the factory calibrated sensitivity scale that is assumed to be 16,384 LSB/g (least significant bit per g) according with typical specifications in datasheets, and acc_{actual} is the value of accelerometer in each above-mentioned position (which is affected by the sensitivity of the accelerometer along the actual axis and is assumed to be 1g).

TABLE I
ACCELEROMETERS BIASES.

Bias axis	MPU-9250	LSM9DS1
β_x	-0.0042	0.0099
β_y	0.0291	-0.0020
β_z	-0.0226	-0.0068

B. Filtering and Fusion

We have been created a Python program with three modules. Module one was implemented and embedded in UAV to intercept and to store MAVLink messages in real time navigation. Module two, shown in Algorithm 1, is a cointegration test applied to the inertial measurements resulting from Module one. Lastly, Module three is an EKF implementation.

The Algorithm 1 works like a pre-filter. The procedure starts by applying the correction factor bias in both measurements. After the data are organized in matrix form, then the process is created. The time series (y_t, x_t) are tested concerning unit root by ADF test. If the test is false x_t and y_t are both stationary and the algorithm estimates them by regression. If the test

is true, y_t and x_t are both non-stationary, then there exists a linear combination of them. Now the Johansen (object *jres*) is applied for the process with autoregressive order equals 1, also the cointegration vectors are given and applied in y_t and x_t for correction.

Finally, the standard deviation (σ^{imu}) of the error is calculated and returned together with the estimated time series ($\hat{x}y_t$). That output values are used for sensor fusion with EKF where the GPS measurements are integrated with INS measurements as previously shown in Fig. 4. Then, $\hat{x}y_t$ is the cointegrated measurements from IMUs, and σ^{imu} composes the main diagonal of process noise matrix R. Section V shows the results after application of cointegration test and EKF in measurements previously stored during a real flight test.

Algorithm 1: Cointegration test for two time series

Input : y_t : time series from first IMU, x_t : time series from second IMU, τ : time in microseconds, β : correction factor
Output: $\hat{x}y_t$: the estimated time series from input, σ^{imu} : standard deviation of residual error

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1  $y_t, x_t \leftarrow \text{applyFactor}(y_t, x_t, \beta)$ 
2  $\text{data} \leftarrow (y_t, x_t)$ 
3  $\text{proc} \leftarrow (\tau, \text{data})$ 
4 If testADF( $y_t$ ) and testADF( $x_t$ ) then
5    $\text{jres} \leftarrow \text{testJohansen}(\text{proc}, I)$ 
6    $\text{v} \leftarrow \text{jres} \cdot \text{evecr}$ 
7    $y_{t\text{correct}}, x_{t\text{correct}} \leftarrow \text{jres} \cdot \text{np.dot}(\text{proc}, \text{v})$ 
8    $\varepsilon, \hat{x}y_t \leftarrow \text{Regression}(y_{t\text{correct}}, x_{t\text{correct}})$ 
9 end-if
10 Else
11    $\varepsilon, \hat{x}y_t \leftarrow \text{Regression}(y_t, x_t)$ 
12 end-if
13  $\sigma^{imu} \leftarrow \text{getStandardDeviation}(\varepsilon)$ 
14 Return  $\sigma^{imu}, \hat{x}y_t$ 
```

V. EXPERIMENTS

We conducted a real flight test at the Asas do Tingua Aeromodeling Club (Duque de Caxias/RJ). In this step, the objectives were:

- 1) To perform a manual flight with onboard electronics: The purpose was to test the telemetry working with the ECS and calibrate the sensors.
- 2) To perform an autonomous flight: At this stage, it would be verified the viability of an autonomous flight with the autopilot, without operator intervention. An algorithm for storing MAVLink messages with the data from the flight was executed simultaneously.

After this step, the Algorithm 1 was executed in a total of 2197 measurements, three times for acceleration and three times for angle rates, which considers a pair of accelerometers and a pair of gyroscopes in each axis. The result of ADF test is shown in table II, where the line elements organize all sensors, lines two and three display the p-values of sensors respectively from IMU1 and IMU2. From line five ahead, we have the critical values. When the p-value is bigger than the

critical value, we have a scenario of non-stationary series. This occurs with the sensor acc_z from IMU1 and IMU2. For all other sensors, we have a stationary scenario.

TABLE II
ADF TEST RESULTS OF SENSORS FROM IMU1 AND IMU2

sensors	acc_x	acc_y	acc_z	$gyro_x$	$gyro_y$	$gyro_z$
p-values	-6.70	-3.03	-1.10	-15.70	-11.61	-10.67
	-4.24	-3.14	-1.22	-11.08	-7.51	-9.21
critical-values						
1%	-2.5667616694814535					
5%	-1.941123347040913					
10%	-1.6166992849228048					

We applied the Johansen trace test for acc_z sensors from IMU1 and IMU2 with the critical values of 95%. Then we find that the values in the second row (trace test) of the table III are bigger than the values in the fourth row (critical values at 95%) of the same table. As shown by ADF test, Johansen confirms that the series of the process are non-stationary. However, Johansen identifies the cointegration vectors that allows the series to become stationary.

TABLE III
JOHANSEN TEST RESULTS OF SENSORS acc_z FROM IMU1 AND IMU2

sensor	acc_z	
trace test	997.27338753	122.82649742
critical-values		
95%	15.4943	3.8415
cointegration vectors		
v1	285.04529012	-285.85054178
v2	-12.31533055	1.29193145

The estimated time series and the residual errors after execution is shown in Fig. 6, where the time series of IMU1 are represented in blue and the time series of IMU2 are in green. In the magenta color, we have the estimated time series given by the model, and in red the residual error. It is verified that the estimated time series is always close to the IMU1 measurements. That is because we use the time series of the first IMU as dependent variables; in other words: that is what we really want to predict. An exception is shown in Fig. 6c, where the estimated time series is the mean value of two original series after reaching the stationarity.

The standard deviations of the error presented in table IV completes the process noise covariance matrix R that models the uncertainty of the measurements.

TABLE IV
STANDARD DEVIATION FROM RESIDUAL ERROR

	x	y	z
σ_{imu}^{acc}	0.00496	0.00494	0.89408
σ_{imu}^{gyro}	0.62159	0.62078	0.62223

Fig. 7 shows the states of the vehicle after applying the EKF in measures from the flight test with our approach. Analyzing

the UAV position (Fig. 7a) and velocity (Fig. 7b) it is perceived that the UAV was influenced by the lateral wind during the autonomous flight, because the velocity in the y-axis increases several times. That indicates the displacement of the aircraft on this axis. Also, Fig. 7c shows the aircraft attitude.

VI. CONCLUSION

In this study, a statistical method was adopted to analyze measurements from inertial sensors of a UAV as a time series. Also, an EKF was employed with less emphasis to improve the estimation of UAV states, that has as observations all the analyzed inertial measurements and measurements from GPS.

The results have shown that our approach is capable to find the relation of cointegration in each pair of inertial sensor from this UAV. The algorithm ensures the stationarity of the time series by applying ADF and Johansen tests. Thus, by regression, we estimated the relation of cointegrated measurements, giving us the accurate state estimation after applying EKF.

As a future work, we intend to apply the algorithm to estimate in real time the measurements of this inertial navigation system considering the operation rate of the two IMUs, that allows working with up to 800Hz. Also on the next flight test we will apply this approach in environments with GPS restrictions.

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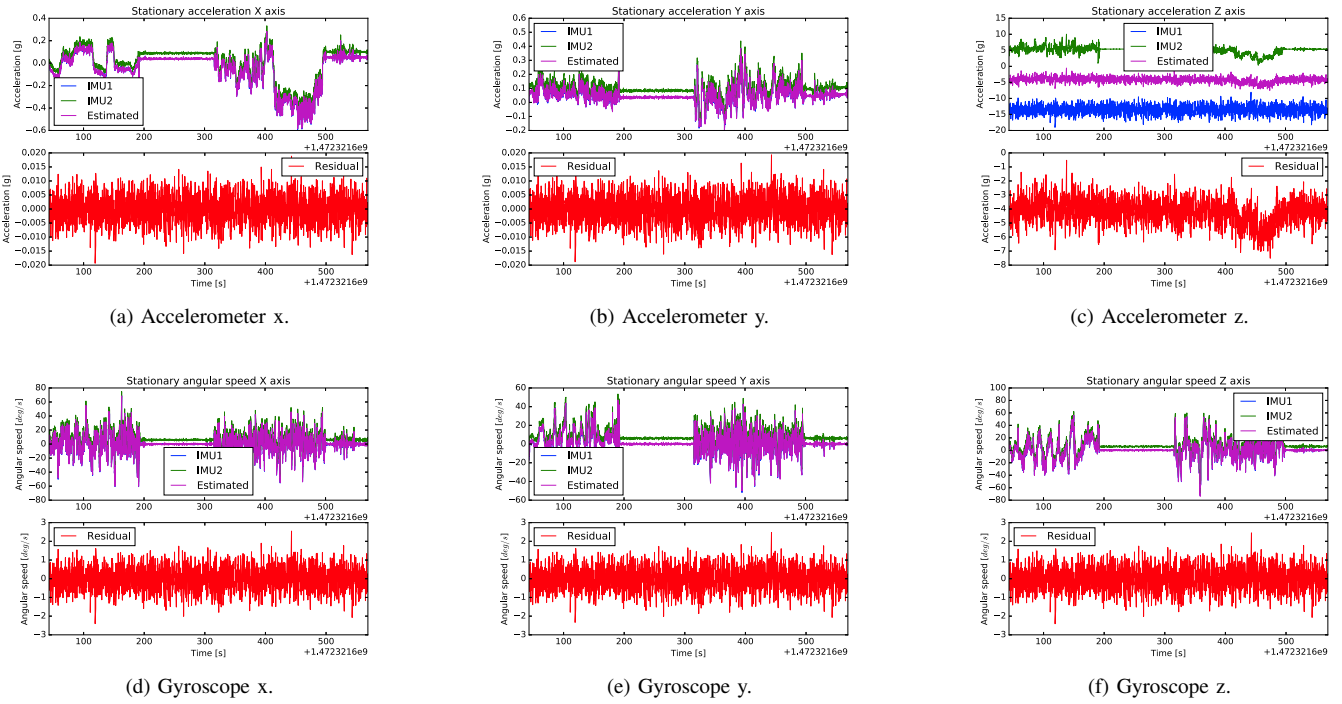


Fig. 6. Measurements from two-sensor group IMU in three axis after cointegration test and residual errors.

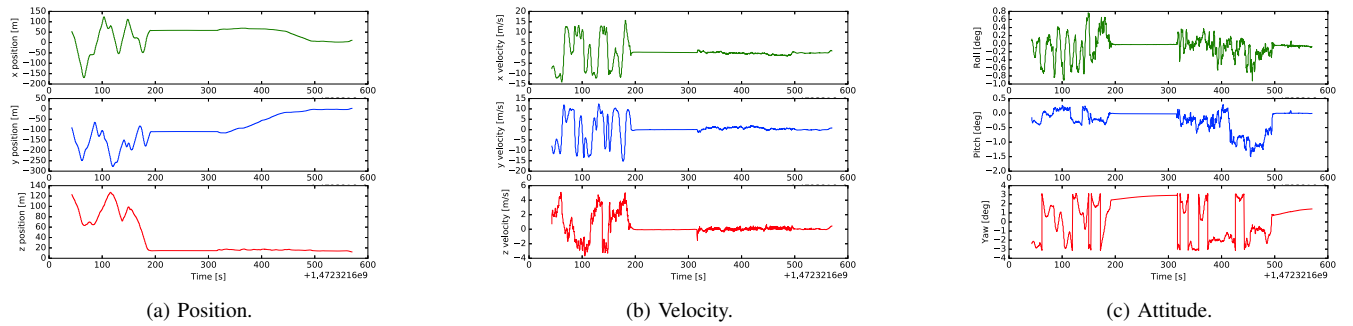


Fig. 7. UAV state given after apply the EKF in cointegrated time series.

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