

Multicopter-assisted measurements of wind-induced drift of irregularly shaped objects in aquatic environments

Javier González-Rocha^{a,*}, Alejandro J. Sosa^{b,*}, Regina Hanlon^{c,*}, Arthur A. Allen^{d,*}, Irina Rypina^{e,*}, David G. Schmale III^{c,*}, Shane D. Ross^{b,*}

^a*Department of Mechanical Engineering, University of California, Riverside, CA, United States*

^b*Department of Aerospace and Ocean Engineering, Virginia Tech, Blacksburg, VA, United States*

^c*School of Plant and Environmental Sciences, Virginia Tech, Blacksburg, VA, United States*

^d*US Coast Guard, Office of Search and Rescue, CT, United States*

^e*Physical Oceanography Department, Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, Woodshole, MA, United States*

Abstract

Ocean hazardous spills and search and rescue incidents are becoming more prevalent as maritime activities increase across all sectors of society. However, emergency response time remains a factor due to the lack of information available to accurately forecast the location of small objects. Existing drifting characterization techniques are limited to objects whose drifting properties are not affected by on-board wind and surface current sensors. To address this challenge, we study the application of multicopter small unmanned aerial systems (sUAS), and embedded navigation technology, for on-demand wind velocity and surface flow measurements to characterize drifting properties of small objects. An off-the-shelf quadrotor was used to measure the speed and direction of the wind field at 10 m above surface level near a drifting object. We also leveraged sUAS-grade attitude and heading reference systems and GPS antennas to build water-proof tracking modules that record the position and orientation, as well of translational and rotational velocities, of objects drifting in water. The quadrotor and water-proof tracking modules were deployed during field experiments conducted in Claytor Lake, VA and the Atlantic Ocean south of Martha's Vineyard, MA to characterize the leeway parameters of manikins simulating a person in water. Leeway parameters were

*Corresponding author at: Mechanical Engineering Department, University of California Riverside, 900 University Ave. Riverside, CA 92521, United States. Tel +1 9518275830.

E-mail addresses: javier.gonzalezrocha@ucr.edu (J. González-Rocha), ajsosa94@vt.edu (A.J. Sosa), rhanlon@vt.edu (R. Hanlon), arthur.a.allen@uscg.mil (A.A. Allan), irypina@whoi.edu (I. Rypina), dschmale@vt.edu (D.G. Schmale III), sdross@vt.edu (S.D. Ross)

found to be an order of magnitude within previous estimates that were derived using conventional wind and surface current observations. We also determined that multirotor sUAS and water-proof tracking modules can provide accurate and high-resolution ambient information that is critical to understand how changes in orientation affect the downwind displacement and jibing characteristics of small objects floating in water. These findings support further development and application of multirotor sUAS technology for leeway characterization and understanding the effect of an object's downwind-relative orientation on its drifting characteristics.

Key words: Unmanned aircraft systems, UAS, multirotor sUAS, Search and rescue, SAR, Atmospheric wind sensing.

1. Introduction

Hazardous spills and search-and-rescue events have increased with more human activity present in ocean environments [1-3]. Efforts to improve emergency response rely on trajectory models with low uncertainty bounds to localize drifting objects in minimum time [4, 5]. However, the uncertainty associated with search regions derived from trajectory models is limited by the accuracy of drift properties available for irregularly-shaped objects (e.g., persons in distress, hazardous material, accident debris, plastic waste, and disabled vessels) [6, 7]. Moreover, drift information only exist for a relative small number of objects due to the time and cost involved to estimate drift parameters using conventional position tracking, wind, and surface flow sensors. Therefore, new techniques to characterize drift properties employing multirotor small unmanned aircraft systems (sUAS) technology can help improve the uncertainty bounds of trajectory models, particularly for those test objects unable to house a suite of sensors.

How floating objects move in the ocean under varied atmospheric and surface current conditions is characterized by leeway parameters. As described in [4], the leeway of an object is the motion resulting from wind and wave forcing relative to the ocean's surface current. In practice, leeway parameters are estimated using inertial position, atmospheric wind and surface current measurements collected from an assortment of sensors during field experiments [4, 8]. Typically, position

21 tracking of drifting objects is conducted with on-board GPS antennas. The speed
22 and direction of atmospheric wind is extrapolated to a height of 10 meters above
23 sea level (ASL) using observations from in-situ sensors mounted on a drifting ob-
24 ject or nearby remote sensors, and in special instances, leveraging high-resolution
25 weather models. The surface current near an object is measured directly using a
26 flowmeter or indirectly using a GPS-equipped surface drifter, and in unique sit-
27 uations, employing remote sensors as well. However, for the common scenario,
28 where only in-situ observations of wind and surface flow are feasible, reliable lee-
29 way experiments are only possible for objects whose drift properties are unaltered
30 by on-board sensors. Hence, exploring new alternatives to measure wind and sur-
31 face current is necessary to expand the leeway information available for small and
32 irregularly-shaped objects whose footprint is smaller than 3 meters.

33 Employing multirotor sUAS technology to measure wind and surface currents
34 can help overcome limitations of leeway characterization methods. Already, multi-
35 rotor sUAS have been leveraged for measuring atmospheric parameters in studies
36 related to atmospheric transport [9, 10], weather forecasting [11-13], and climate
37 change [14-16]. These systems are low cost, portable, mobile, and easy to deploy
38 and recover from constrained environments, which is ideal for on-demand and
39 targeted wind observations near a drifting object [17]. Moreover, the navigation
40 system on board a multirotor sUAS, which includes an attitude and heading refer-
41 ence system (AHRS) and GPS antenna, can be re-purposed for position and orien-
42 tation tracking of drifting objects. Combined, these adaptations of UAS technology
43 during field experiments can facilitate the expansion of leeway data bases used as
44 inputs for trajectory forecasting models predicting low-uncertainty search regions
45 for a broad class of objects.

46 **2. Methodology**

47 *2.1. Leeway Analysis*

48 A basic formulation of the motion of an object floating at the air-water interface
49 is to consider the change in the object's two-dimensional (horizontal) position with

50 time, $\mathbf{x}(t)$, via the ordinary differential equation,

$$\frac{d}{dt}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}, t) \quad (1)$$

51 where $\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}, t)$ is the two-dimensional hybrid surface velocity [18]. Several models
 52 for representing the hybrid surface velocity exist. For instance, based on [4] and
 53 [19], we consider a model of the form,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}, t) = & \mathbf{u}_c(\mathbf{x}, t) + C_w \mathbf{u}_w(\mathbf{x}, t) + C_w^\perp \mathbf{u}_w^\perp(\mathbf{x}, t) + \dots \\ & \mathbf{b}_w(\hat{\mathbf{u}}_w(\mathbf{x}, t), \hat{\mathbf{u}}_w^\perp(\mathbf{x}, t)) + \varepsilon_w(\hat{\mathbf{u}}_w(\mathbf{x}, t), \hat{\mathbf{u}}_w^\perp(\mathbf{x}, t)) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

54 where $\mathbf{u}_c(\mathbf{x}, t)$ is the ambient water current velocity (i.e., the average velocity be-
 55 tween 0.3 and 1.0 m depth), $\mathbf{u}_w(\mathbf{x}, t)$ is the wind velocity (at 10 m height above the
 56 water surface), C_w is the leeway coefficient in the downwind direction (positive
 57 downwind), C_w^\perp is the leeway coefficient in the cross-wind direction (positive to
 58 the right), and the offset vector can be written in terms of downwind and cross-
 59 wind components,

$$\mathbf{b}_w((\hat{\mathbf{u}}_w(\mathbf{x}, t)), \hat{\mathbf{u}}_w^\perp(\mathbf{x}, t)) = b_w \hat{\mathbf{u}}_w(\mathbf{x}, t) + b_w^\perp \hat{\mathbf{u}}_w^\perp(\mathbf{x}, t), \quad (3)$$

60 and the (stochastic) error vector similarly can be written,

$$\varepsilon_w(\hat{\mathbf{u}}_w(\mathbf{x}, t), \hat{\mathbf{u}}_w^\perp(\mathbf{x}, t)) = \varepsilon_w \hat{\mathbf{u}}_w(\mathbf{x}, t) + \varepsilon_w^\perp \hat{\mathbf{u}}_w^\perp(\mathbf{x}, t), \quad (4)$$

61 where the (normalized unit) downwind direction is $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_w(\mathbf{x}, t)$, i.e., $\mathbf{u}_w(\mathbf{x}, t) = u_w(\mathbf{x}, t) \hat{\mathbf{u}}_w(\mathbf{x}, t)$,
 62 where $u_w(\mathbf{x}, t) = \|\mathbf{u}_w(\mathbf{x}, t)\|$. Note that the cross-wind vector, $\mathbf{u}_w^\perp(\mathbf{x}, t) = \Omega \mathbf{u}_w(\mathbf{x}, t)$,
 63 is the wind velocity rotated 90° to the right of the downwind direction, where Ω is
 64 the matrix providing a 90° clockwise rotation,

$$\Omega = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (5)$$

65 Note that C_w , C_w^\perp , b_w , b_w^\perp , ε_w , and ε_w^\perp are all scalars. For this situation, the velocity
 66 of the object relative to the ambient water current is the leeway velocity, $\mathbf{u}_l(\mathbf{x}, t) \equiv$

67 $\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}, t) - \mathbf{u}_c(\mathbf{x}, t)$, is given by,

$$\mathbf{u}_l(\mathbf{x}, t) = C_w \mathbf{u}_w(\mathbf{x}, t) + C_w^\perp \mathbf{u}_w^\perp(\mathbf{x}, t) + \mathbf{b}_w(\hat{\mathbf{u}}_w(\mathbf{x}, t), \hat{\mathbf{u}}_w^\perp(\mathbf{x}, t)) + \varepsilon_w(\hat{\mathbf{u}}_w(\mathbf{x}, t), \hat{\mathbf{u}}_w^\perp(\mathbf{x}, t)), \quad (6)$$

68 based on (2). If we can measure the relative velocity, $\mathbf{u}_l(\mathbf{x}, t)$, and the 10 m height
 69 wind velocity, $\mathbf{u}_w(\mathbf{x}, t)$, as in (4), then we can estimate the coefficients C_w and C_w^\perp
 70 via linear regression,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Downwind leeway : } \quad & \mathbf{u}_l(\mathbf{x}, t) \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}_w(\mathbf{x}, t) = C_w u_w + b_w + \varepsilon_w, \\ \text{Crosswind leeway : } \quad & \mathbf{u}_l(\mathbf{x}, t) \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}_w^\perp(\mathbf{x}, t) = C_w^\perp u_w + b_w^\perp + \varepsilon_w^\perp. \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

71 By measuring the leeway motion of an object and comparing with the wind speed
 72 (u_w), constrained and unconstrained linear regression provides the slopes (C_w and
 73 C_w^\perp), the offsets (b_w and b_w^\perp), and a measure of uncertainty/error (ε_w and ε_w^\perp), usu-
 74 ally the standard deviation (4). The difference between constrained and uncon-
 75 strained approaches is that the former produces a linear fit passing through the
 76 origin such that the offset is equal to zero. Moreover, in previous studies (4) (8),
 77 the drift coefficients for crosswind have been decomposed into those for positive
 78 (+) and negative (-) crosswind behaviors, that is, allowing for non-symmetrical
 79 drift coefficients, left and right-drifting objects moving differently. In this study,
 80 we further allow for the possibility of both positive (+) and negative (-) down-
 81 wind behaviors. Our expanded set of leeway equations is then as follows, where
 82 the \mathbf{x} and t dependence of \mathbf{u}_l , $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_w$, and $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_w^\perp$ is understood,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Positive downwind leeway : } \quad & \text{if } \mathbf{u}_l \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}_w > 0, \quad \mathbf{u}_l \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}_w = C_w^+ u_w + b_w^+ + \varepsilon_w^+, \\ \text{Negative downwind leeway : } \quad & \text{if } \mathbf{u}_l \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}_w < 0, \quad \mathbf{u}_l \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}_w = C_w^- u_w + b_w^- + \varepsilon_w^-, \\ \text{Positive crosswind leeway : } \quad & \text{if } \mathbf{u}_l \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}_w^\perp > 0, \quad \mathbf{u}_l \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}_w^\perp = C_w^{\perp+} u_w + b_w^{\perp+} + \varepsilon_w^{\perp+}, \\ \text{Negative crosswind leeway : } \quad & \text{if } \mathbf{u}_l \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}_w^\perp < 0, \quad \mathbf{u}_l \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}_w^\perp = C_w^{\perp-} u_w + b_w^{\perp-} + \varepsilon_w^{\perp-}, \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

83 Given the different combinations of positive and negative downwind and cross-
 84 wind leeway, we will summarize results for each of the four quadrants of the lee-
 85 way space, as shown schematically in Figure 1.

86 We note that in Allshouse et al. (18), they simplified the leeway analysis by set-

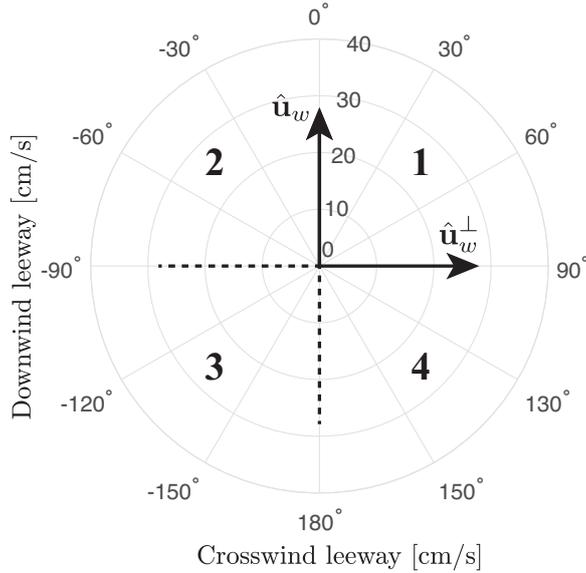


Figure 1: The four quadrants of the two-dimensional leeway space. The axis are the downwind and crosswind unit vectors, $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_w^\perp$ and $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_w$, respectively. For example, quadrant 2 has positive downwind leeway and negative crosswind leeway.

87 ting C_w^\perp , \mathbf{b}_w , and ε_w as being negligible, which gives the simplest hybrid model.
 88 Given the uncertainties in forecast models of $\mathbf{u}_c(\mathbf{x}, t)$ and $\mathbf{u}_w(\mathbf{x}, t)$, as well as the
 89 variability in C_w even for the same class of object [4], the simplest model may be
 90 appropriate in some circumstances. However, the standard approach for estimat-
 91 ing and using leeway, as used by the U.S. Coast Guard [8], considers the more
 92 realistic model, (8).

93 2.2. Leeway Experiments

94 In this study, the leeway parameters C_w and C_w^\perp for a person-in-water sce-
 95 nario are calculated from experiments conducted both at Claytor Lake in Virginia
 96 and in coastal waters of the Atlantic ocean south-southeast of Martha's Vineyard,
 97 Massachusetts. The two sets of experiments consisted of releasing into the wa-
 98 ter, as shown in Figure 3, pairs of surface drifters and search-and-rescue training
 99 manikins with integrated GPS devices for position tracking. The GPS positions
 100 of the surface drifters and the manikins were used to calculate the flow-relative
 101 velocity of each manikin, assuming that variation in water surface current is in-
 102 significant over the distance of the separation between the two. Additionally, a
 103 quadrotor UAS was employed to measure the velocity of the 10 m AGL wind
 104 which was influencing the manikin motion. The quadrotor UAS used a model-

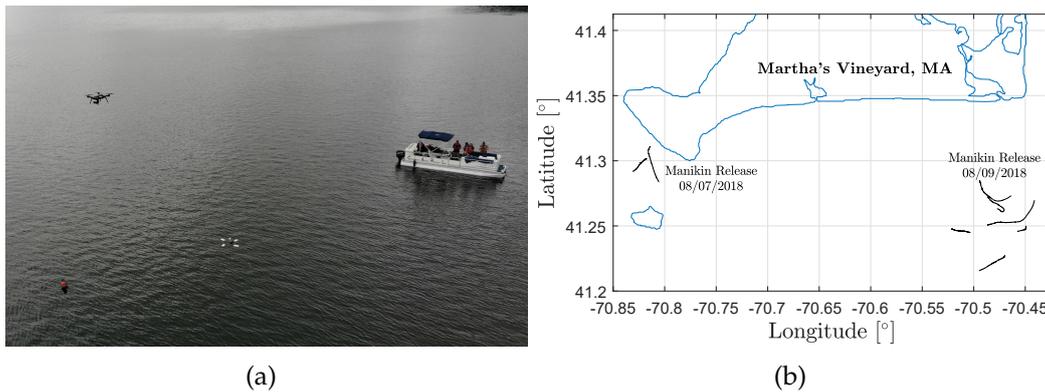


Figure 2: a) An image of leeway experiments conducted in Claytor Lake, VA on June 25th, 2018. b) A map of leeway experiments conducted in the ocean south of Martha's Vineyard, MA on August 7th and 9th, 2018.

105 based wind sensing approach presented in [17]. Together, flow relative and wind
 106 velocity measurements were used to calculate the leeway parameters for a person-
 107 in-water scenario using the analysis presented in Section 2.1 for both the lake and
 108 ocean environments.

109 2.3. Search and Rescue Training Manikin

110 The manikins used during lake and ocean leeway experiments are the OSCAR
 111 dummy manufactured by Emerald Marine Products for person-in-water rescue
 112 training. As shown in Figure 4, the manikins are each configured from eight heavy-
 113 duty vinyl bladders with fill/drain fittings, six stainless steel joints, and two gal-
 114vanized lifting shackles. Fully extended and filled with water, the manikins weigh
 115 82 kg, are 2 m tall, and have a chest width of 0.5 m. Prior to leeway experiments,
 116 each manikin was filled with sufficient water to achieve an upright floating posi-
 117 tion at chest level. In this configuration, the back and front as well as the left and
 118 right sides of each manikin are symmetrical.

119 2.4. Ambient Sensing Hardware

120 2.4.1. Surface Drifter

121 The surface current surrounding the search and rescue training manikin dur-
 122 ing field experiments was measured by tracking the position of a surface drifter
 123 with a water-proof module as shown in Figure 5. Fully deployed, surface drifters
 124 have a height of 1 m and a width of 1.4 m. This type of drifter is certified to CODE

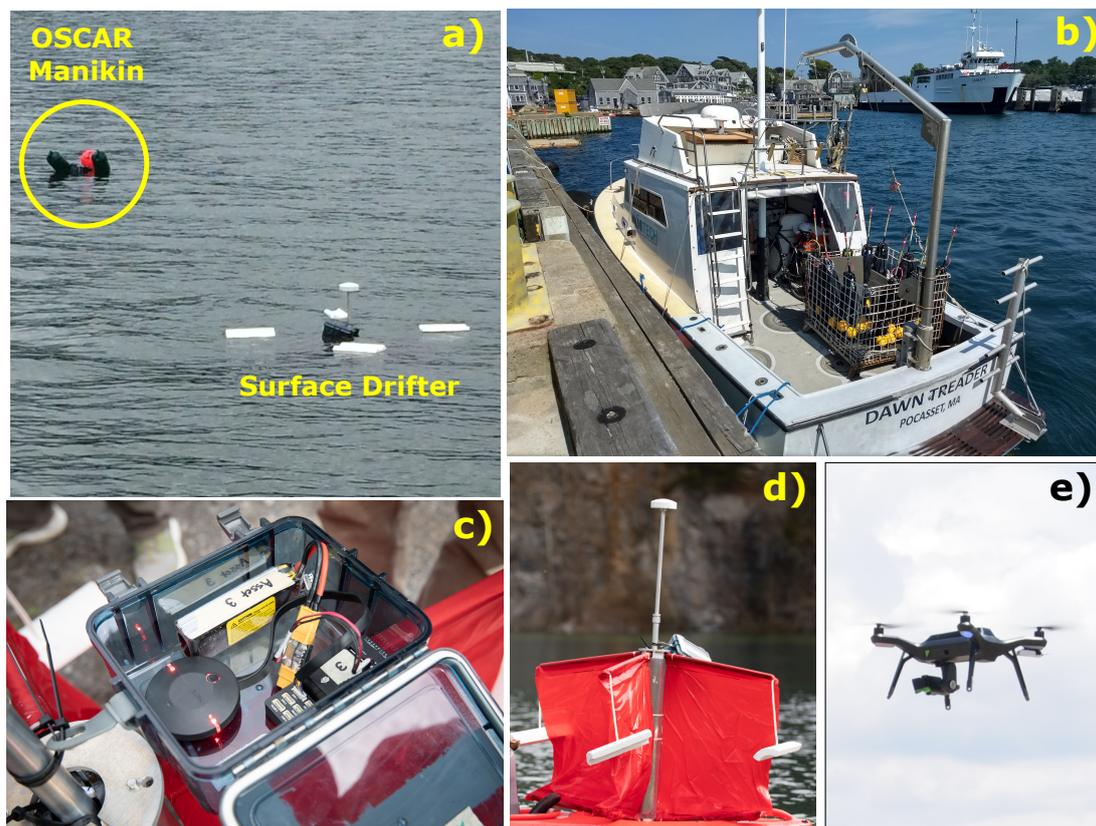


Figure 3: a) Field experiments conducted to determine the leeway of a person in water using ambient current and wind velocity measurements obtained from a surface drifter and multirotor sUAS. b) Maritime research vessel used to base ocean leeway experiments. c) Pixhawk-GPS module configured to track navigation information at 5 Hz. d) CODE/DAVIS drifter used to measure ambient flow. e) 3DR Solo quadrotor used to measure wind velocity 10 m wind measurements.

125 (Coastal Ocean Dynamic Experiment Standards) to drift with estuary and ocean
 126 surface currents extending a meter below the surface level. The drifter's position
 127 was tracked relative to a north-east-down reference frame using GPS antennas tied
 128 to the center shaft of the surface drifter as shown in Figure 5. Position informa-
 129 tion from GPS was used to determine velocity of surface currents surrounding the
 130 search and rescue training manikin.

131 2.4.2. GPS Position Tracking

132 Two types of GPS receivers were used to track the position of manikin-and-
 133 drifter pairs during lake and ocean leeway experiments. For leeway experiments
 134 conducted in Claytor Lake, built-in-house GPS modules were used to track search-
 135 and-rescue manikins and surface drifters. These GPS modules, referred to as the
 136 Pixhawk-GPS modules, were developed using sUAS-grade attitude and heading

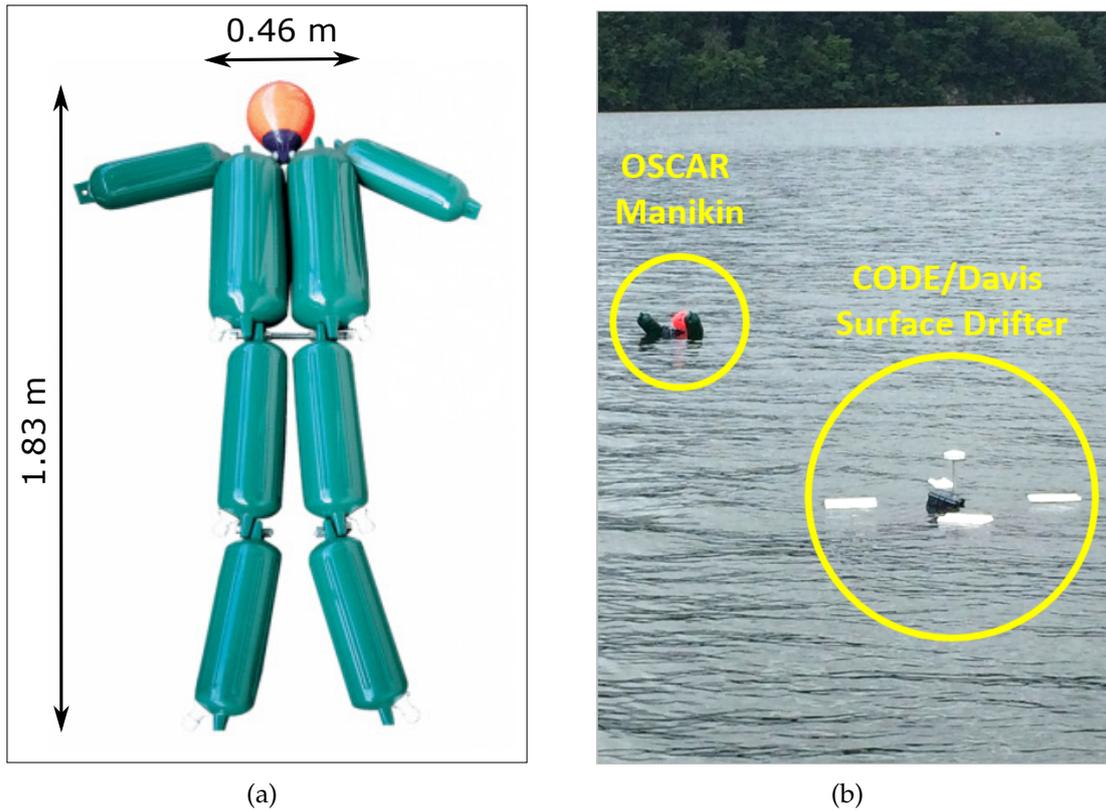


Figure 4: a) A schematic drawing showing the dimensions of the OSCAR search-and-rescue manikin used during leeway experiments as a PIW surrogate. b) An image of the OSCAR search-and-rescue manikin drifting next to a CODE/DAVIS surface drifter.

137 reference systems and GPS antennas. Experiments conducted at sea incorporated
 138 both the Pixhawk-GPS modules and off-the-shelf SPOT Trace GPS units to track
 139 search-and-rescue manikins. Surface drifters, on the other hand, were solely in-
 140 tegrated with SPOT Trace GPS units. The sensor configuration employed during
 141 ocean experiments provided redundancy and allowed for the performance of the
 142 two GPS modules to be compared.

143 2.4.3. Pixhawk-GPS Modules

144 Search-and-rescue manikins were integrated with waterproof Pixhawk-GPS mod-
 145 ules that were developed in house to track the position of objects drifting in aquatic
 146 environments. Each Pixhawk-GPS module has a 3s 11.1 Volts Lithium-Polymer
 147 (LiPo) battery that can last up to 6 hours, a Pixhawk autopilot computer and a
 148 3DR SiK 900Hz radio for short-range telemetry, and a HERE GPS antenna for po-
 149 sition tracking. While operating, each Pixhawk-GPS module records position in-
 150 formation with an update rate of 5 Hz. This resolution in position information

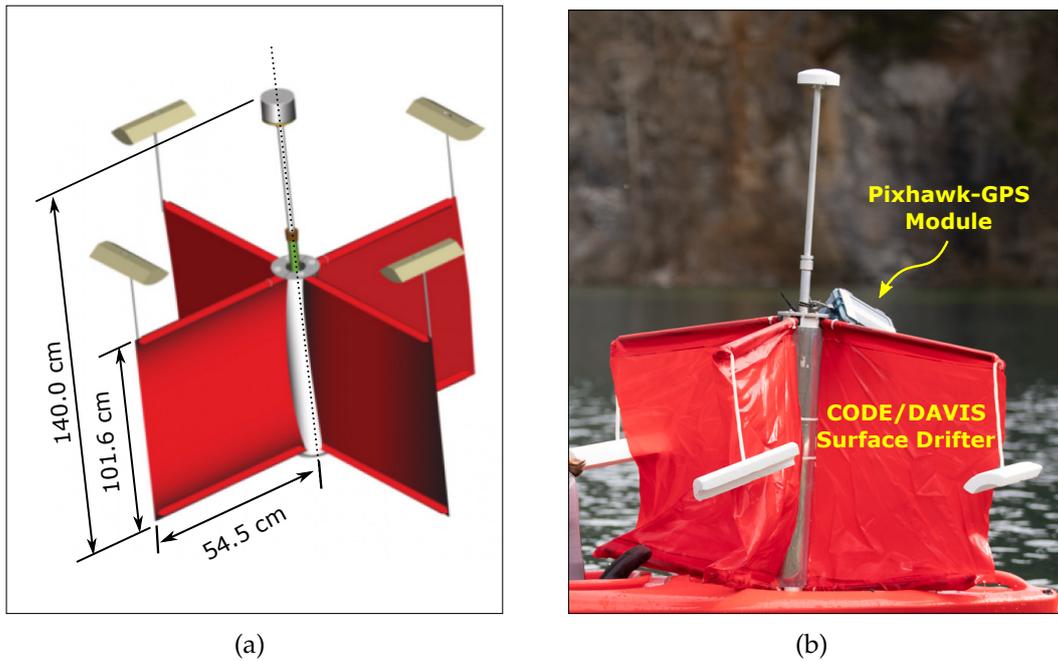


Figure 5: a) A schematic with dimensions of the CODE/DAVIS surface drifter used to measure the water current in a 1-meter column below the surface. b) A CODE/Davis surface and Pixhawk-GPS module integration.

151 may potentially provide new information for understanding small-scale dynamic
 152 effects experienced by drifting assets in aquatic environments. However, for the
 153 leeway analysis presented in this paper, position information from Pixhawk-GPS
 154 modules was processed using a 5-minute moving average.

155 The magnetic heading as well as the translational and rotational motions of
 156 each manikin were also measured leveraging the attitude and heading reference
 157 system inside of each Pixhawk flight autopilot. Each attitude and heading ref-
 158 erence system has three sets of compasses, accelerometers, and gyroscopes that
 159 sample measurements with the update rates shown in Table 1. On board each
 160 Pixhawk, attitude and heading reference system measurements are processed in
 161 real time using an extended Kalman filter to correct for sensor noise and biases.
 162 These additional features of Pixhawk-GPS modules were exploited to measure the
 163 downwind-relative heading of each manikin as well as the wave period.

164 2.4.4. SPOT Trace GPS units

165 The SPOT Trace GPS units deployed during ocean experiments were used to
 166 track trajectories of surface drifters and OSCAR Manikins. This GPS system pro-

Table 1: Summary of measurements recorded on-board each Pixhawk-GPS module.

Measurement	Direct		Estimated	
	Sensor	Rate	Estimator	Rate
Horizontal Position	GPS	5 Hz	EKF	20 Hz
Heading	Magnetometer	5 Hz	EKF	20 Hz
Transnational Rates	GPS	5 Hz	EKF	20 Hz
Angular Rates	Gyroscope	50 Hz	—	—

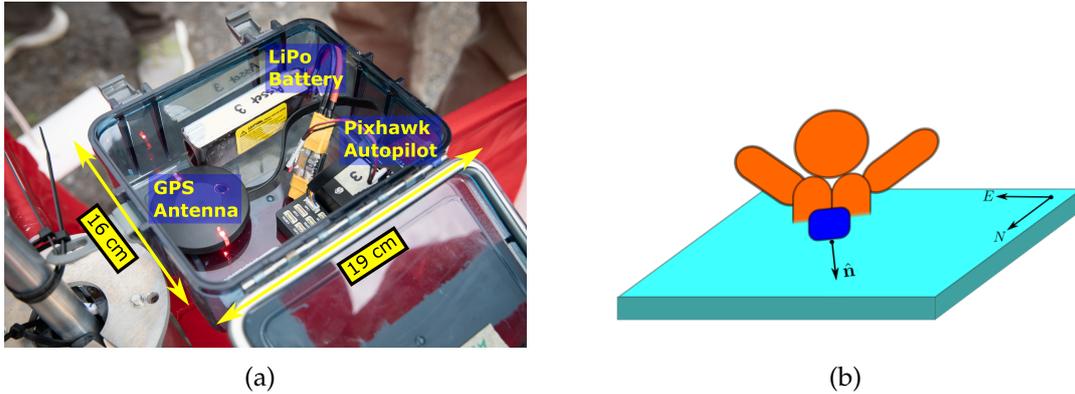


Figure 6: a) An image of the Pixhawk-GPS module used to track search-and-rescue manikins and accompanying surface drifters. b) A schematic drawing showing the front of search-and-rescue manikins and Pixhawk-GPS modules aligned such that the orientation of each manikin be measured as the angle between the unit vector \hat{n} and North.

167 vides position measurements every 5 minutes (i.e., a sampling rate of 0.0033 Hz)
 168 when there is an unobstructed view of the sky. Position measurements registered
 169 by the SPOT Trace GPS are transmitted over cell phone tower networks as a text
 170 message using standardized communication protocols for short message service
 171 (SMS). Size-wise, as shown in Figure 7, this GPS unit has a width of 5.13 cm, a
 172 length of 8.83 cm, and thickness of 2.14 cm. All together, these qualities have made
 173 this sensor an attractive solution to tracking position of surface drifters during
 174 ocean deployments.

175 2.5. Multirotor sUAS Wind Measurements

176 2.5.1. Quadrotor Platform

177 The multirotor aircraft used for wind sensing is an off-the-shelf 3DR Solo quadro-
 178 tor with camera and 3-axis gimbal. The 3DR Solo, as shown in Figure 8, is 25 cm
 179 tall and has a diagonal span of 46 cm. Fully integrated with gimbal, camera, and
 180 battery the quadrotor weighs 1.5 kg and has a flight endurance of approximately

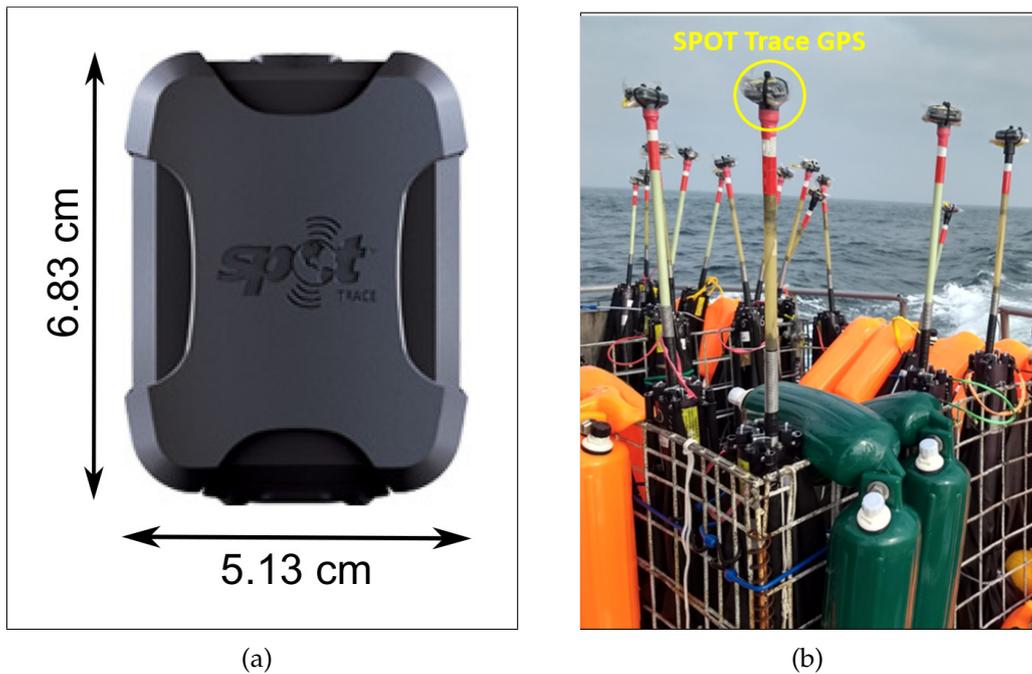


Figure 7: a) A schematic with dimensions of the SPOT Trace GPS unit used to track the position of search-and-rescue manikins and accompanying surface drifters during the ocean experiments conducted on August 7th and 9th, 2018. b) The SPOT Trace units attached to the top of a CODE/DAVIS surface drifter for position tracking.

181 15 minutes in pristine atmospheric conditions. The quadrotor is propelled by four
 182 brushless 880 K_v electric motors and 25 cm x 11.4 cm self-tightening propellers.
 183 The flight controller on board with quadrotor is a Pixhawk 2.1 Green Cube, which
 184 has a boat mode feature for operating from a moving platform.

185 3. Leeway Experiments Results

186 We conducted lake and ocean experiments employing a multirotor sUAS as
 187 well as built-in-house and off-the-shelf GPS tracking modules to characterize the
 188 leeway of a person in water. The quadrotor described in Section 2.5.1 was used to
 189 collect ten-minute wind velocity observations at 10 m ASL. multirotor sUAS wind
 190 observations were then used to approximate wind conditions for the duration of
 191 leeway experiments. The Pixhawk-GPS modules, built from sUAS-grade attitude
 192 and heading reference systems and GPS receivers, were used along with off-the-
 193 shelf SPOT Trace GPS units to track the position of manikins and surface drifters.
 194 Additionally, Pixhawk-GPS modules were used to measure the orientation, as well
 195 as the rotational and translational motion of every manikin. These measurements

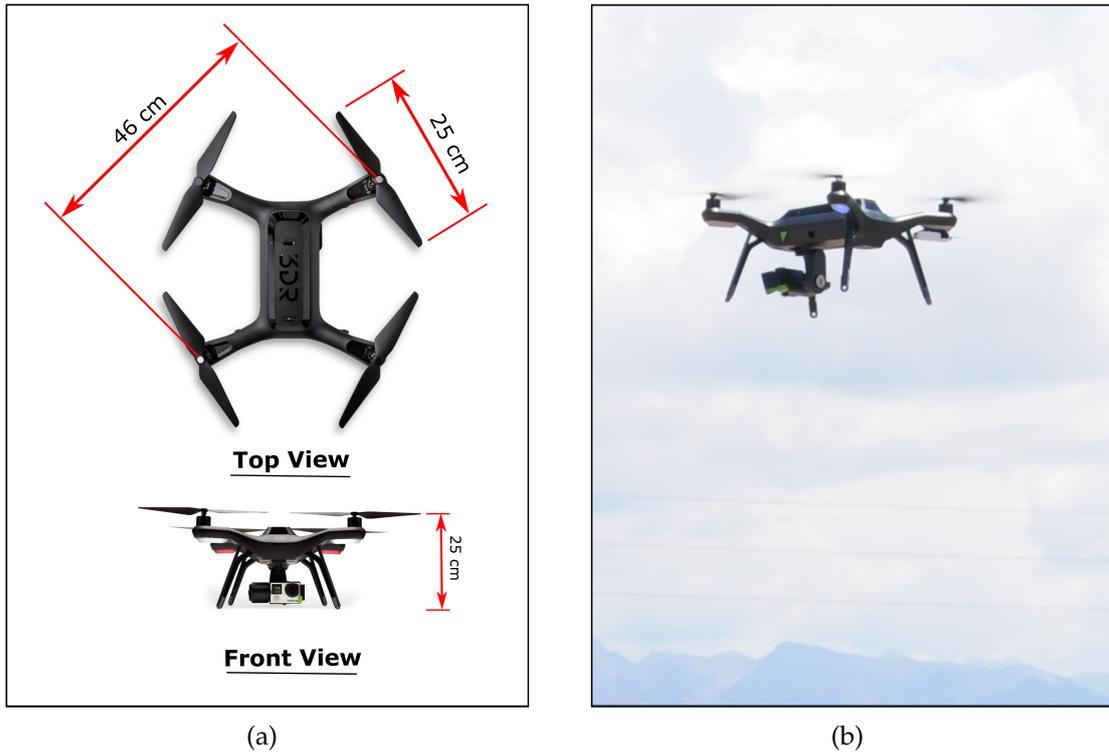


Figure 8: a) A schematic with dimensions of the multirotor sUAS employed to measure wind velocity at 10 m ASL.

196 were then processed to determine the transitional and rotational displacements
 197 of each manikin relative to downwind and crosswind components. From these
 198 results we were able to estimate downwind and crosswind leeway parameters.

199 3.1. Wind Measurements

200 multirotor sUAS wind velocity observations were used to determine the pre-
 201 vailing wind conditions for the time lapse of lake and ocean leeway experiments.
 202 In this process, the east and north components of the wind velocity vector \mathbf{u}_w (i.e.,
 203 \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v}) were averaged over the duration of each flight. The number of aver-
 204 aged measurements that were collected during each experiment varied based on
 205 weather minimums for safe multirotor sUAS operations. Table 2 summarizes the
 206 averaged wind measurements collected during each experiment. The averaged
 207 wind velocity components \bar{u} and \bar{v} were then used to characterize a first-order fit
 208 to approximate wind conditions for the duration of each manikin release.

209 Analysis of wind conditions demonstrated low, moderate, and high wind speeds
 210 across all three leeway experiments. As shown in Figure 9(a), the downwind con-

211 ditions during lake experiments conducted on June, 25th, 2018 varied between the
 212 northeast and southeast directions with maximum speed of 2.8 m/s. During the
 213 ocean experiment conducted on August 7th, 2018, the downwind conditions were
 214 along the northwest direction with a maximum speed of 12.5 m/s (see Figure 9(b)).
 215 Finally, as shown in Figure 9(c), downwind wind conditions were along the east-
 216 northeast direction with maximum speeds reaching 5.1 m/s during ocean field
 217 experiments conducted on August 9th, 2018.

218 Additional experiments were also conducted to validate quadrotor wind esti-
 219 mates next to conventional in-situ and remote-sensing wind sensors at 10 m above
 220 ground level. Validation results show quadrotor wind speed estimates to have an
 221 average mean error of 0.3 m/s and 1.0 m/s relative to wind speed observations
 222 collected with in-situ and remote-sensing instruments, respectively. The average
 223 mean error of quadrotor wind direction estimates was measured as 9.9° compared
 224 to observations from in-situ and remote sensors. Additional details and results of
 225 validation experiments are presented in Appendix B.

Table 2: Averaged multirotor sUAS wind velocity measurements collected during lake and ocean leeway experiments in units of m/s.

Lake Experiments 06/25/2018				Ocean Experiments 08/07/2018				Ocean Experiments 08/09/2018			
Time UTC	\bar{u}	\bar{v}	\bar{U}	Time UTC	\bar{u}	\bar{v}	\bar{U}	Time UTC	\bar{u}	\bar{v}	\bar{U}
14:26	1.0	-0.9	1.3	18:43	6.1	8.4	10.4	15:53	5.6	0.7	5.6
14:41	1.4	-0.5	1.5	19:14	7.1	7.0	10.0	16:08	4.3	1.9	4.7
14:54	1.5	0.7	1.6	19:29	6.0	10.5	12.1	17:13	3.9	1.8	4.3
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	17:58	4.4	2.5	5.0
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	18:08	4.6	0.6	4.6

226 3.2. Position Tracking

227 The global position of manikin-and-drifter pairs was tracked during leeway ex-
 228 periments using Pixhawk-GPS modules and SPOT Trace GPS units in varied con-
 229 figurations. During the Claytor Lake leeway experiment, Pixhawk-GPS modules
 230 alone were used to track a single manikin-and-drifter pair. Alternatively, Pixhawk-
 231 GPS modules were used during ocean experiments to track manikins only. Sur-
 232 face drifters released into the ocean along with manikins were tracked using SPOT
 233 Trace GPS units instead. Resolution discrepancies across the two GPS systems
 234 were reconciled by smoothing Pixhawk GPS measurements to match the temporal

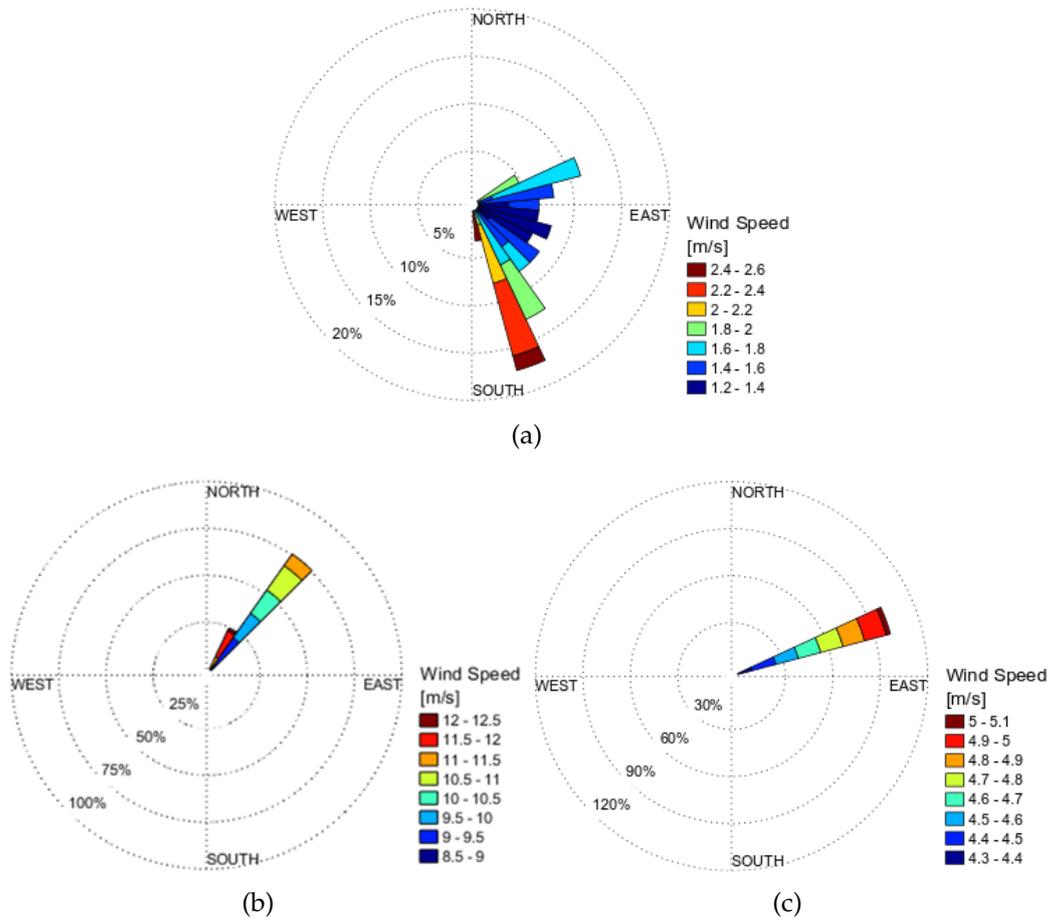


Figure 9: a) Wind speed and downwind direction measured during leeway experiments in Claytor Lake, VA on June 25th, 2018 from 9:59 to 11:03 EDT. b) Wind speed and direction measured during leeway experiments offshore from Martha's Vineyard on August 7th, 2018 from 13:58 to 15:58 EDT. c) Wind speed and direction measured during leeway experiments offshore from Martha's Vineyard on August 9th, 2018 from 10:33 to 14:12 EDT.

235 resolution of SPOT Trace GPS units using a 5-minute moving average. The accu-
 236 racy of both GPS systems was also assessed using the validation analysis described
 237 in [Appendix A.2](#). Results from this assessment demonstrate that in addition to a
 238 higher resolution, Pixhawk GPS units also have a greater accuracy.

239 A single manikin-and-drifter pair was released during the leeway experiments
 240 conducted in Claytor Lake, VA on June 25th, 2018. Figures [10\(a\)](#) and [10\(b\)](#) show
 241 the drifter-and-manikin release broken into two segments (i.e., 1A and 1B) extend-
 242 ing from 9:59 to 11:03 EDT and 11:11 to 11:49 EDT. The total displacement of the
 243 manikin during the first and second segments reached 0.24 km and 0.18 km, re-
 244 spectively (see Table [3](#)). Across both segments, the maximum separation between
 245 drifter and manikin was measured to be 0.02 km and 0.01 km for segments 1 and

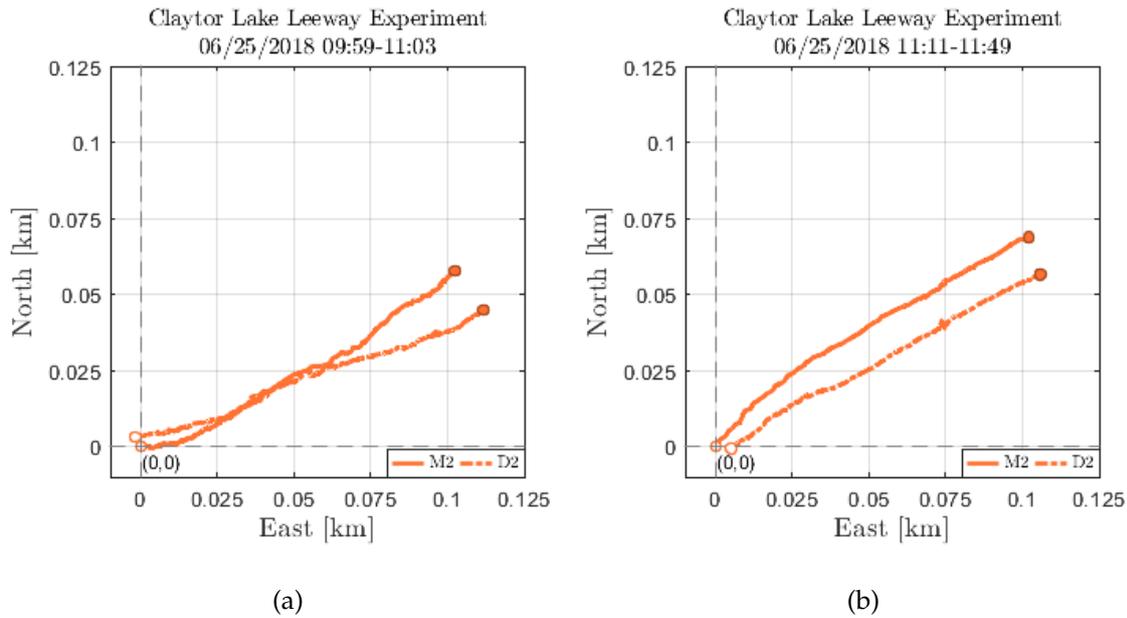


Figure 10: The global position tracking of a manikin-and-drifter pair released in Claytor Lake, VA on June 25th, 2018 from a) 9:59 to 11:03 and b) 11:11 to 11:49 EDT

246 2 respectively.

247 In total, eight manikin-and-drifter releases were tracked during the ocean lee-
 248 way experiments. As shown in Figure 11(a), two manikin-and-drifter releases were
 249 conducted on August 7th, 2018 from 17:58 to 19:58 UTC. Figure 11(b) shows the six
 250 releases that were performed on August 9th, 2018 from 14:33 to 18:12 UTC. Varied
 251 drift characteristics were observed across both sets of ocean releases. On August
 252 7th, 2018, Manikin 2 (i.e., M2) traveled 3.07 km away from its release point while
 253 Manikin 3 only traveled 1.55 km over a period of an hour and fifty-nine minutes
 254 (see Table 3). During the August 9th, 2018 experiments, the total displacement of
 255 manikins ranged from 0.8 km to 4.21 km over a time period of five hours and forty-
 256 nine minutes. Additionally, as shown in Table 3, manikin-and-drifter separation
 257 distance varied across all nine releases from 0.16 km to 1.70 km. This information
 258 combined with the accuracy GPS measurements can help identify the sources of
 259 error for leeway parameter estimates.

260 3.3. Leeway Estimates

261 Multicopter wind velocity observations and GPS position information were used
 262 to determine the downwind and crosswind flow-relative displacement of each

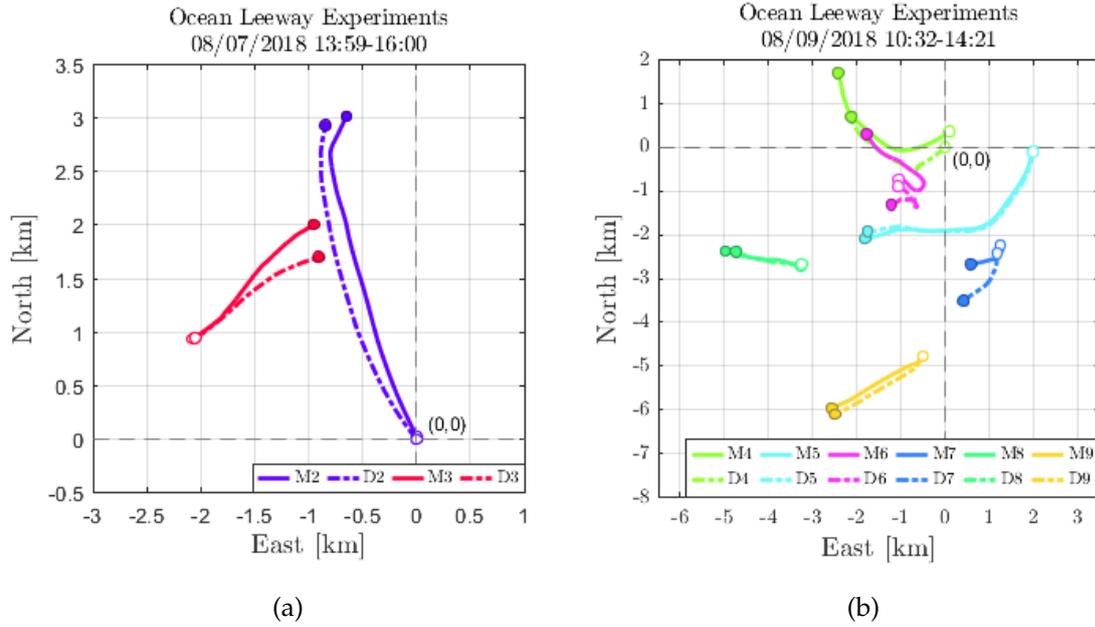


Figure 11: a) Global position tracking of two manikin-and-drifter pairs released into the ocean southwest of Martha’s Vineyard, MA on August 7th, 2018. b) Global position tracking of six manikin-and-drifter pairs released into the ocean southeast of Martha’s Vineyard, MA on August 9th, 2018.

Table 3: Summary of the total displacement of manikins and the maximum separation between manikins and surface drifters during Claytor Lake and ocean leeway experiments.

Manikin	Date	Duration [hrs:min]	Total Distance [km]	Maximum Separation [km]
1A	Jun. 25th, 2018	1:04	0.24	0.02
1B	Jun. 25th, 2018	0:38	0.18	0.01
2	Aug. 7th, 2018	1:59	1.55	0.31
3	Aug. 7th, 2018	1:59	3.07	0.21
4	Aug. 9th, 2018	3:49	2.87	1.05
5	Aug. 9th, 2018	3:49	4.31	0.19
6	Aug. 9th, 2018	3:49	1.26	1.70
7	Aug. 9th, 2018	3:49	0.80	0.85
8	Aug. 9th, 2018	3:49	1.51	0.24
9	Aug. 9th, 2018	3:49	2.39	0.16

263 manikin. As in previous studies (i.e., [4, 8]), this information was utilized to gen-
 264 erate progressive vector diagrams (PVDs) to assess the downwind and upwind
 265 displacement divergence and jibing behavior of all nine manikins. Results from
 266 this analysis are presented in Figures 12(a) and 12(b) for the manikin-and-drifter
 267 release conducted in Claytor Lake. PVDs for ocean manikin releases are shown in
 268 Figure 13(a) for manikins whose total displacement did not exceed 0.5 km and in
 269 Figure 13(b) for manikins whose total displacement was greater than 0.5 km. Sig-
 270 nificant variability was observed in the divergence of upwind and downwind dis-

271 placement of all nine manikins. Almost all of the manikins exhibited left and right
 272 divergence for downwind and upwind displacements at separate times. Addition-
 273 ally, based on the spatial separation between five-minute position averages, differ-
 274 ent periods of low and high displacement rates were observed for each manikin.
 275 The frequency and scale of jibes observed also varied throughout the drifting pe-
 276 riod of each manikin.

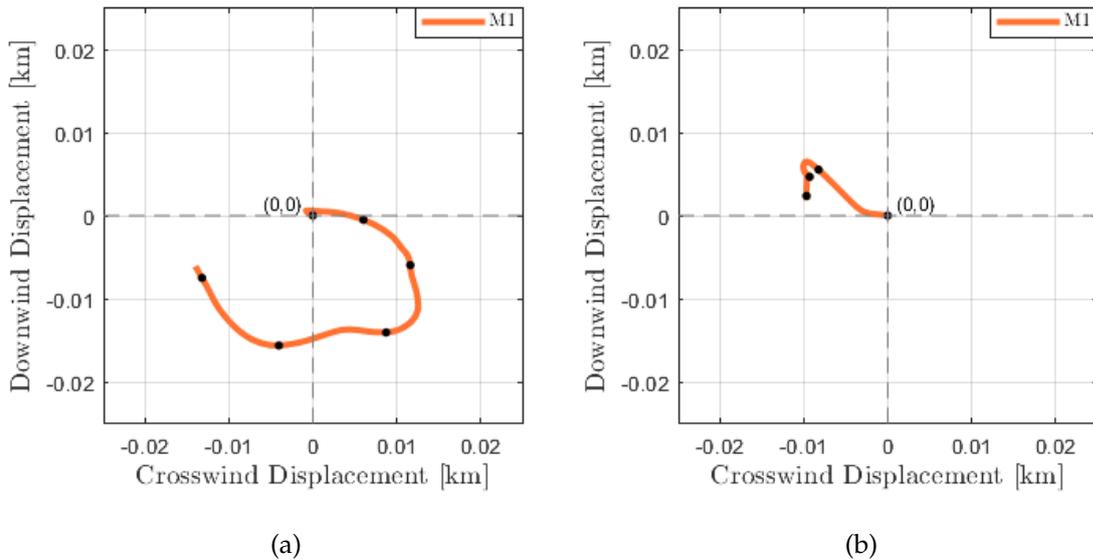


Figure 12: The progressive vector diagrams for releases conducted in Claytor Lake, VA on June 25th, 2018 from a) 9:59 - 11:03 EDT and b) 11:11-11:49 EDT.

277 Information from the attitude and heading reference system inside of each
 278 Pixhawk-GPS module were also used to determine the downwind-relative orienta-
 279 tion of manikins. These measurements, which are not available with conventional
 280 GPS systems, can help understand how the drift characteristics of each manikin
 281 are influenced by downwind-relative orientation. For example, the PVDs shown
 282 in Figures 14(a) and 15(a) combine the positive and negative divergence patterns of
 283 downwind and upwind displacements with measurements of downwind-relative
 284 orientation for Manikins 2 and 8, respectively. From this analysis we observe that
 285 there were periods of drifting where changes in downwind-relative orientation
 286 and jibing behavior were significantly correlated. Moreover, from each time series
 287 of downwind-relative orientation we see that manikins have a tendency to con-
 288 verge to some orientations more than others.

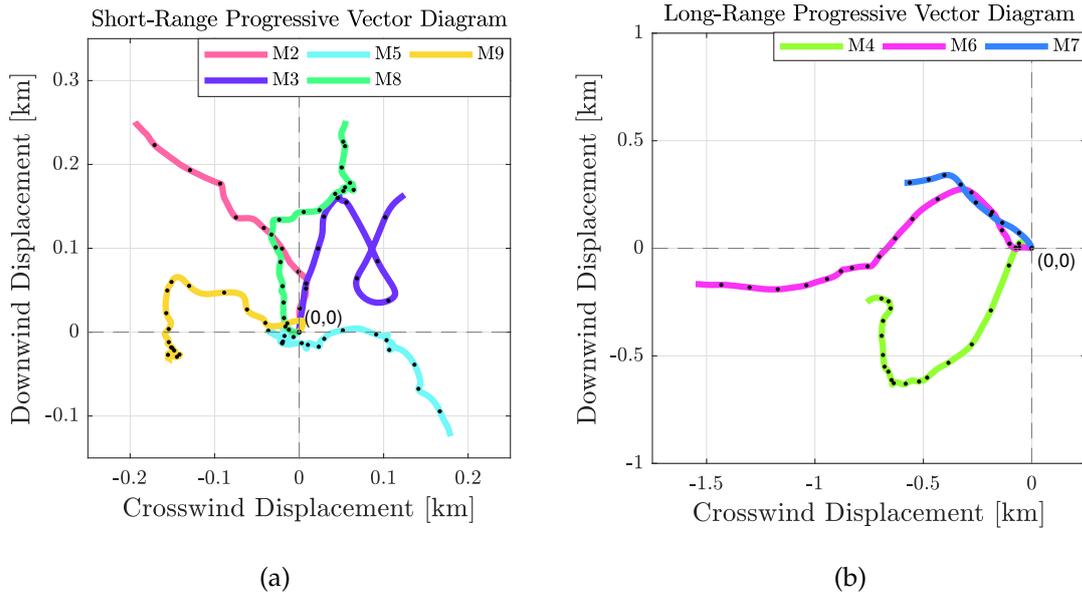


Figure 13: a) The progressive vector diagram showing short-range displacements that do not exceed 0.5 km. b) The progressive vector diagram showing long-range displacements that exceed 0.5 km.

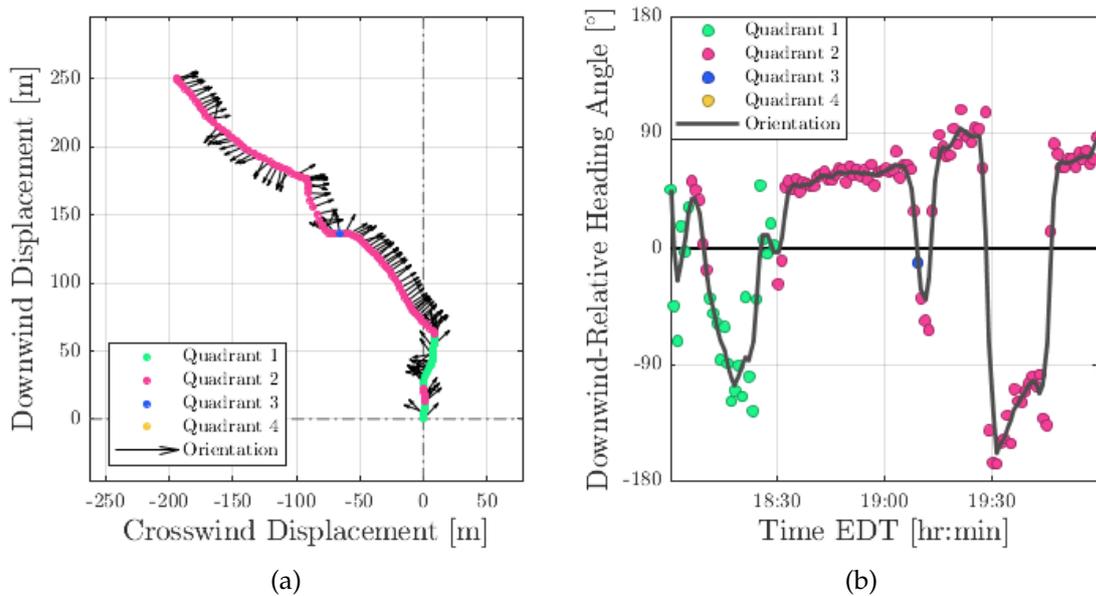


Figure 14: a) The progressive vector diagram and downwind-relative orientation of Manikin 2. b) A time series of the downwind-relative orientation of Manikin 2.

289 3.4. Leeway Parameter Estimates

290 Wind velocity and global positioning information of manikins and accompa-
 291 nying drifters were also used to characterize leeway parameters following the
 292 method described in Section 2.1. In this process, downwind and crosswind leeway
 293 models were characterized as a function of the 10-m wind speed using constrained

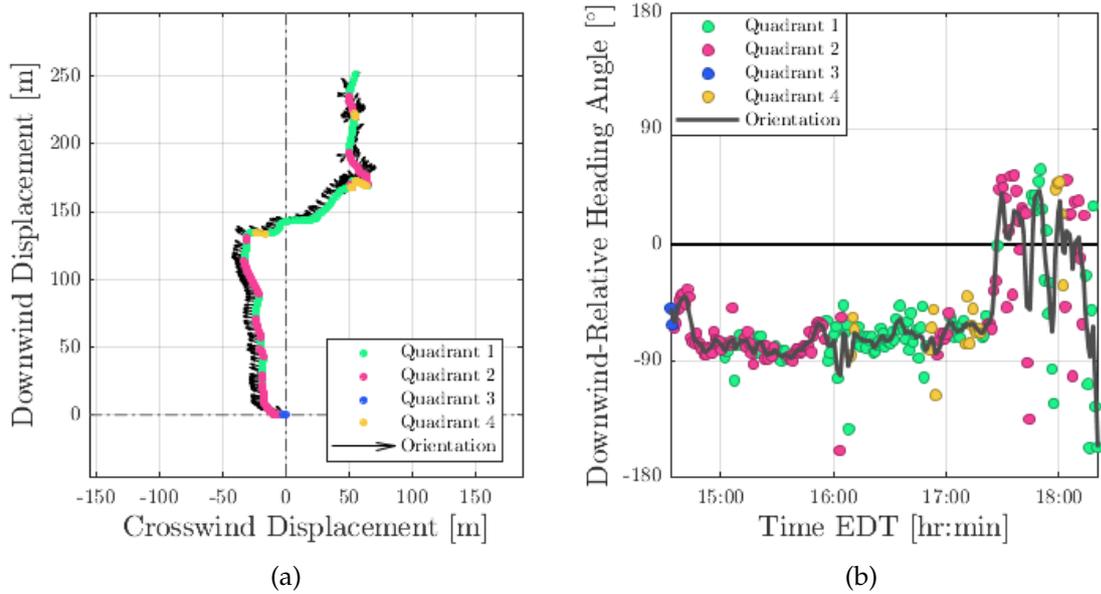


Figure 15: a) The progressive vector diagram and downwind-relative orientation of Manikin 8. b) A time series of the downwind-relative orientation of Manikin 8.

294 and unconstrained linear regression (see Figures [16-19](#)). Results from constrained
 295 and unconstrained linear regression, which include slope, offset values and error
 296 bounds, are shown in Tables [5](#) and [4](#), respectively. The downwind and crosswind
 297 models were used to assess the leeway at 10 m/s as shown in Figures [20\(a\)](#) and
 298 [20\(b\)](#). Additionally, leeway speed and divergence at wind speeds of 10 m/s were
 299 plotted with error bounds included for the constrained and unconstrained cases
 300 as shown in Figures [20\(b\)](#) and [20\(a\)](#). From this analysis, we see the trends in
 301 divergence for observations corresponding to one of four quadrants in the two-
 302 dimensional leeway space. Percentage-wise, the leeway for a person in water fell
 303 in quadrant 1 twenty percent of the time, in quadrant 2 thirty eight percent of the
 304 time, in quadrant 3 sixteen percent of the time and in quadrant 4 twenty six percent
 305 of the time.

306 4. Discussion

307 Nine manikin-and-drifter pairs were released during ocean and lake experi-
 308 ments to determine the leeway of a person in water. A single release was con-
 309 ducted in Claytor Lake, Virginia and eight others in the Atlantic Ocean south of
 310 Martha's Vineyard, Massachusetts. In all three leeway experiments, a quadrotor

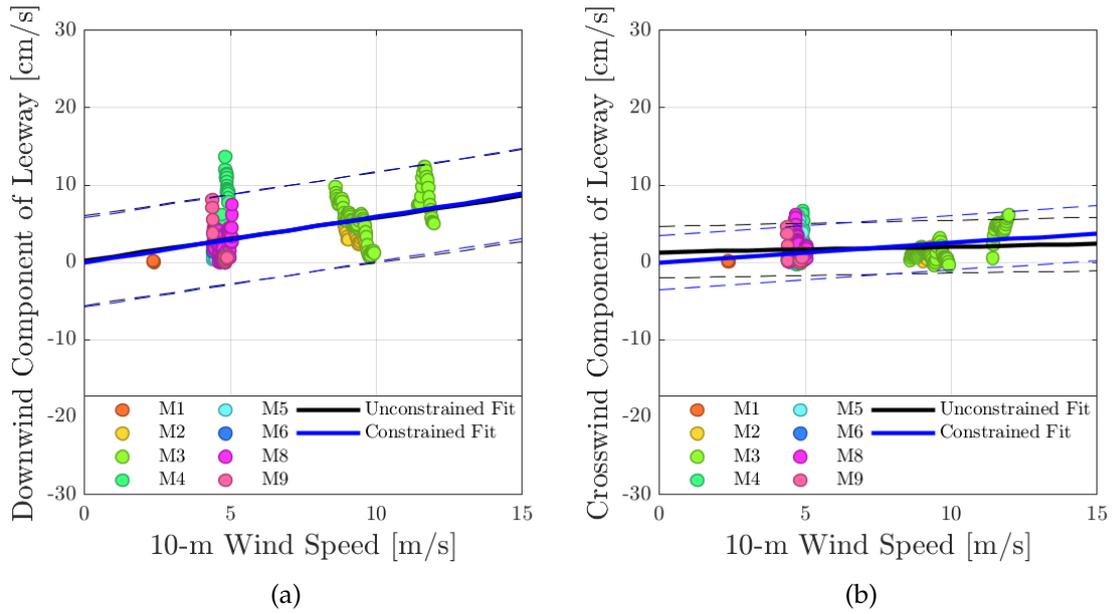


Figure 16: a) First quadrant downwind component of leeway. b) First quadrant crosswind components of leeway.

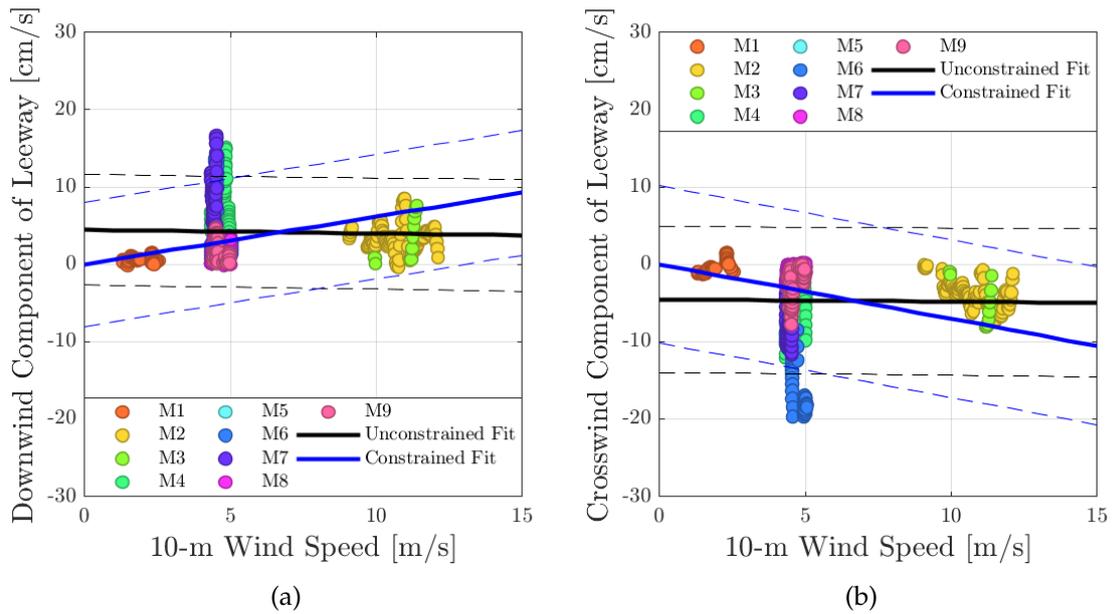


Figure 17: a) Second quadrant downwind component of leeway. b) Second quadrant crosswind components of leeway.

311 was deployed to measure the wind in ten-minute intervals at 10 m ASL. Interpolation
 312 of ten-minute averages of multirotor wind estimates showed the wind conditions
 313 to range between 1.2 m/s and 2.6 m/s during lake experiments and between
 314 4.3 m/s and 12.5 m/s during ocean experiments. Across all nine manikin-and-
 315 drifter releases, seven were conducted in wind conditions for which the perfor-

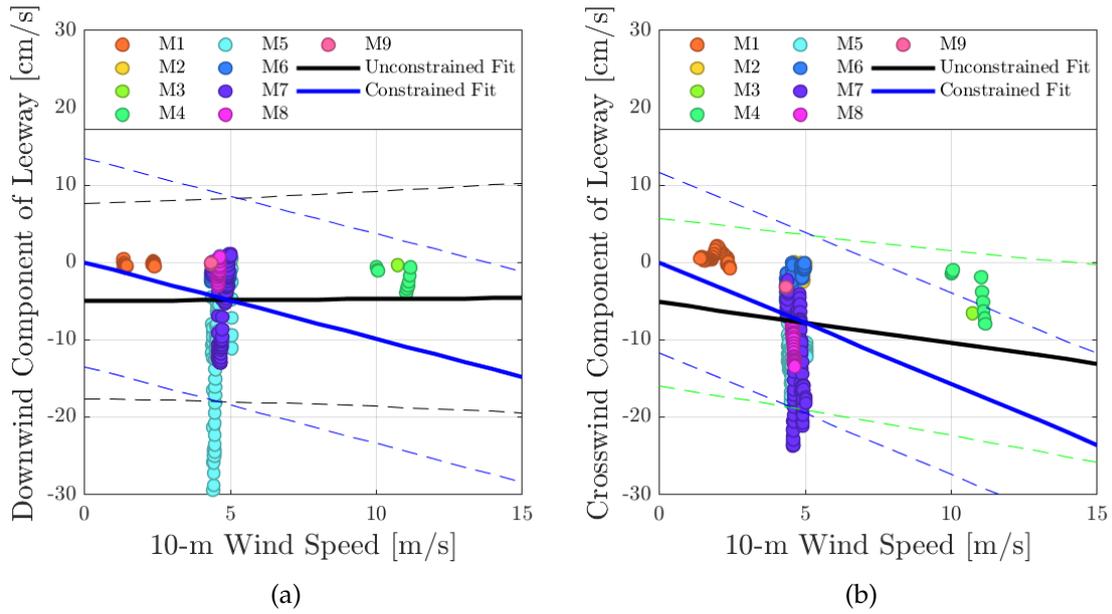


Figure 18: a) Third quadrant downwind component of leeway. b) Third quadrant crosswind components of leeway.

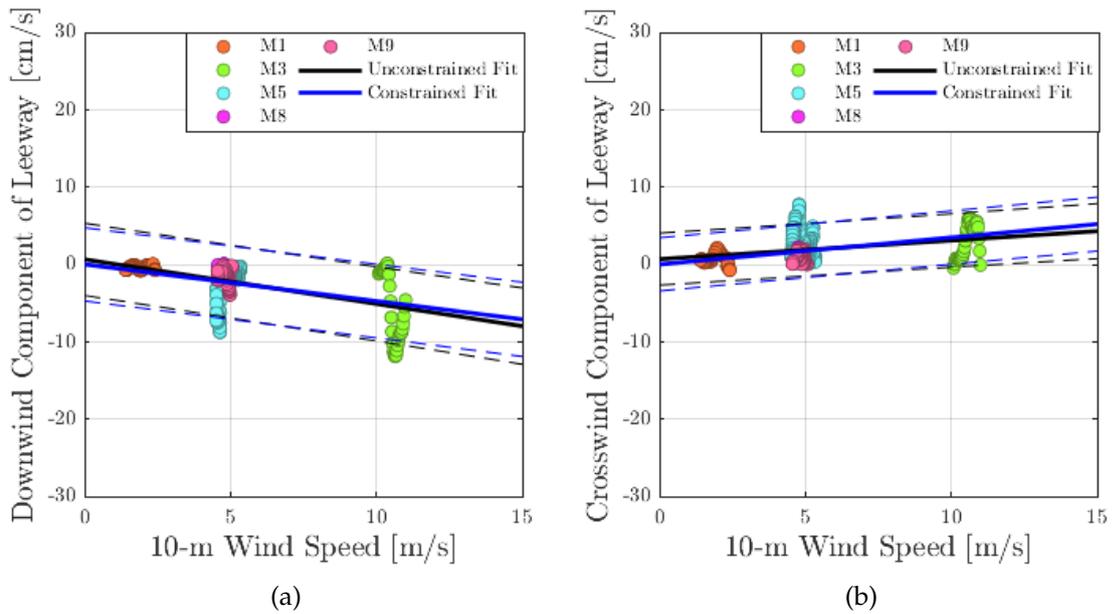


Figure 19: a) Fourth quadrant downwind component of leeway. b) Fourth quadrant crosswind components of leeway.

316 rformance of quadrotor wind estimation is well validated, i.e., $u_w < 6$ m/s (see [Ap-](#)
 317 [pendix B](#)). Moreover, the higher wind conditions observed during ocean experi-
 318 ments were well above the typical 10-m wind speed average of 5 m/s recorded
 319 at the Martha's Vineyard Airport. Therefore, although there is a need to test the
 320 reliability of multirotor wind measurements at higher wind speeds, the validated

Table 4: Summary of downwind and crosswind leeway components estimated from unconstrained linear regression.

Quadrant	Downwind Leeway			Crosswind Leeway		
	C_w [%]	b_w [cm/s]	ε_w [cm/s]	C_w^\perp [%]	b_w^\perp [cm/s]	ε_w^\perp [cm/s]
1	0.56	0.23	2.94	0.07	1.32	1.72
2	-0.05	4.47	3.64	-0.03	4.47	4.82
3	0.03	-5.0	6.75	-0.53	-5.14	5.80
4	-0.62	1.02	2.26	0.24	1.02	1.77

Table 5: Summary of downwind and crosswind leeway components estimated from constrained linear regression.

Quadrant	Downwind Leeway			Crosswind Leeway		
	C_w [%]	b_w [cm/s]	ε_w [cm/s]	C_w^\perp [%]	b_w^\perp [cm/s]	ε_w^\perp [cm/s]
1	0.59	–	2.94	0.25	–	1.78
2	0.62	–	4.09	-0.70	–	5.17
3	-0.99	–	6.85	-1.57	–	5.94
4	-0.46	–	2.29	0.35	–	1.79

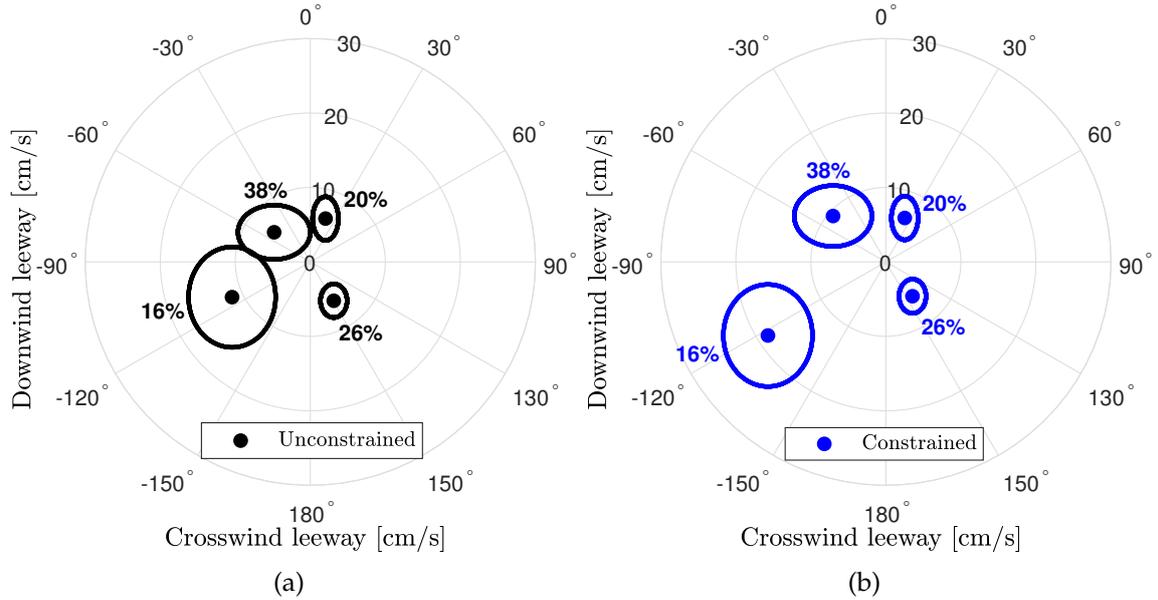


Figure 20: Distribution of measured manikin leeway values, in each of the four quadrants in the two-dimensional leeway-space. The downwind (vertical axis) and crosswind (horizontal axis) leeway (measured in cm/s) for a hypothetical 10-m height wind speed of 10 m/s. The distance from the origin indicates leeway speed (cm/s) while the angle relative to the vertical indicates the object’s divergence from the wind direction (wind blowing upwards along the vertical axis). The ellipses show crosswind and downwind error. The values for manikins are shown and were studied using the indirect method. Overall, there is slight bias toward positive downwind and negative crosswind leeway, as also seen for persons-in-water in [4]. (a) Values using the unconstrained regression and (b) the constrained regression.

321 performance is well within typical wind conditions expected for Martha's Vine-
322 yard.

323 Attitude and heading reference system modules (Pixhawk-GPS) and SPOT Trace
324 GPS antennae units were used during leeway experiments to track the drifting
325 trajectories of manikins and drifters. Significant variability was observed across
326 the displacement of manikin-and-drifter pairs. During the lake experiments, the
327 maximum distanced traveled by manikin experiments ranged between 0.18 km
328 and 0.24 km. In the ocean, manikin displacements ranged between 1.55 km and
329 3.07 km on the first day and between 1.26 km and 4.31 km on the second day. Fur-
330 thermore, the separation between manikins and drifters also varied considerably
331 during ocean experiments compared to lake experiments. The maximum separa-
332 tion between a drifter and its paired manikin was measured as 0.02 km in Claytor
333 Lake and 1.70 km in the ocean. Moreover, significant divergence between manikin
334 and surface drifter trajectories were observed in the ocean within a distance of
335 0.25 km (i.e. Manikin 5 In Figure 11(b)). The difference in manikin and drifter
336 displacements across all nine releases is attributed to the difference in surface flow
337 uniformity across lake and ocean environments.

338 Wind velocity and global position information was used to resolve the flow-
339 relative displacement of each manikin with respect to downwind and crosswind
340 components. The flow-relative displacement of manikins fell into all four quad-
341 rants of the two-dimensional wind-relative reference frame (i.e., the leeway space,
342 Figure 1). This result suggests that the manikins experienced both downwind and
343 upwind displacements, which could be genuine, suggesting further investigation,
344 possibly the result of wind-relative orientation effects. Another possible reason
345 for the negative downwind leeway values measures is vertical shear (in the lake)
346 or too large of a separation of the manikin from the drifter (in the ocean, that is,
347 the manikin experienced a different local current than the drifter), or the effect of
348 waves.

349 Significant spread in downwind and crosswind leeway measurements was also
350 observed for wind speeds of 5 m/s (see Figures 16(a) 18(b)). Considering that the
351 validation experiments described in Appendix B demonstrate multirotor wind es-
352 timates to be reliable below 6 m/s, the spread in downwind and crosswind leeway

353 components is attributed to limitations of the indirect method measuring flow-
354 relative velocity. A review presented in [4] of direct and indirect methods for mea-
355 suring flow-relative velocity notes that the indirect method is prone to error as
356 drifter and manikin pairs drift apart. Additionally, analysis described in Appendix
357 A comparing GPS position observations show the SPOT Trace GPS observations to
358 have on average a RMSE of 21 m relative to Pixhawk-GPS measurements. There-
359 fore, error in SPOT Trace GPS position measurements, which are differentiated
360 over over five-minute intervals to obtain flow-relative velocity measurements, can
361 also contribute to the spread of downwind and crosswind leeway observations.

362 Flow-relative displacements falling into one of four quadrants of the wind ref-
363 erence frame and wind speed measurements were used to characterize four sets of
364 downwind and crosswind leeway models. In this process, the leeway parameters,
365 and the associated offset and error values, were estimated using constrained and
366 unconstrained linear regression (see Figure 20 and Tables 4 and 5). A significant
367 subset of leeway parameters were found to be close proximity to person-in-water
368 leeway values reported in Figure 1 of [4] based on experiments described in [8].

369 The application of multirotor sUAS during leeway experiments provided on-
370 demand 10-m height wind observations that otherwise would be challenging to
371 attain using conventional wind sensors. The small footprint required to launch,
372 operate and recover the multirotors made deployment from a small vessel pos-
373 sible. Additionally, the capability to collect wind observations hovering at 10 m
374 ASL circumvented the need to extrapolate observations as required in situations
375 where wind sensors are located just centimeters above the surface. We do note that
376 the short endurance of the multirotor sUAS did present some limitations for safe
377 operations.

378 The attitude and heading reference system modules enabled new capabilities
379 for monitoring drifting manikins. In addition to high-resolution and accurate po-
380 sition tracking, these modules provide attitude and heading data, which allow for
381 analysis that is not possible with conventional methods that provide only coarsely
382 sampled position. High resolution observation of position and orientation allow
383 for small-scale measurements that cannot be resolved with coarse measurements
384 from conventional GPS sensors. This new capability can aid in potentially new

385 forecasting models which account for rotational dynamics as well.

386 We found a number of limitations that need to be addressed in future studies to
387 increase the confidence in leeway parameters obtained via the method employed
388 in this study. Multirotor wind observations were limited to 10 minutes, due to bat-
389 tery life. Additionally, wind estimates need to be validated for the entire range of
390 wind conditions higher than 4 m/s. Additional experiments are required next to
391 an independent sensor to characterize error in wind estimates over a wide range
392 of velocities. Future experiments also need to employ flowmeters for surface cur-
393 rent observations as it is possible that significant leeway error may be the result
394 of non-uniform flow, that is, the manikin experiences a slightly different flow field
395 than its accompanying surface drifter, especially as they drift farther from one an-
396 other. Moreover, the last day may be over-sampled in comparison with the entire
397 ensemble of data and may not be representative of day-to-day conditions.

398 Overall, results from this study demonstrate the potential that multirotor sUAS
399 and attitude and heading reference system modules have to improve measure-
400 ments with applications to forecasting for search-and-rescue. On-demand multiro-
401 tor sUAS wind measurements can circumvent the need to integrate a wind sensor
402 onto a drifting object which may affect drifting characteristics and require extrap-
403 olation to the 10-m height. Additionally, high-resolution observations of trans-
404 lational and rotational motions attained from the attitude and heading reference
405 system, GPS antenna and state estimator can help develop higher-fidelity leeway
406 models that account for changes in downwind-relative orientation. These models
407 can then be used to study how likely are objects to converge to some orientations
408 versus others based on geometry.

409 Finally, understanding how drifting characteristics are altered by changes in
410 downwind-relative orientation, in addition to improving trajectory forecast mod-
411 els, can help develop additional technologies for search-and-rescue scenarios. For
412 example, personal flotation devices can be developed whose shape can aid a per-
413 son in distress drift toward a region where they would be more likely to be found
414 (see, e.g., [20]). Ultimately, the combined impacts enabled by multirotor sUAS and
415 attitude and heading reference system modules can improve emergency response
416 during search-and-rescue events.

417 5. Conclusion

418 Multicopter sUAS and sUAS-grade navigation technology can provide high-
419 resolution ambient measurements to characterize the leeway of small objects. In
420 this paper we present the application of quadrotor and tracking devices built from
421 sUAS-grade attitude and heading reference systems and GPS antennas to obtain
422 wind velocity and surface current measurements to characterize leeway proper-
423 ties of small and irregularly-shaped objects. The reliability of both instruments
424 was tested during leeway experiments performed in lake and ocean aquatic envi-
425 ronments as well as additional experiments. Results demonstrated that the mul-
426 tirotor sUAS technology can be effectively leveraged to gather wind and surface
427 current observations needed to estimate leeway parameters. Moreover, high res-
428 olution measurements of orientation were found to provide new observations to
429 understand how the downwind-relative orientation of manikins affects drifting
430 characteristics (i.e., downwind displacement and jibing).

431 Future work leveraging multicopter sUAS and derivative technology to char-
432 acterize the leeway of small objects needs to address various limitations. First,
433 to improve the duration of wind observations without reducing margins of safe
434 operations, the multicopter sUAS employed in leeway experiments needs to have
435 an endurance that exceeds at least 15 minutes. Second, multicopter wind estimates
436 need to be validated next to conventional wind sensors over a higher range of wind
437 conditions. Third, leeway experiments need to allow for shorter drifting periods
438 to reduce drifter and manikin separation or should employ a flow meter attached
439 to the drifting object in lieu of using a surface drifter. Together, these modifica-
440 tions can increase the reliability of wind velocity and surface current observations
441 attained for leeway characterization of small objects.

442 Author Contributions

443 **Javier González-Rocha:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation, Formal
444 Analysis, Investigation, Visualization, Data Curation and and Writing- Original
445 draft preparation. **Alejandro Sosa:** Investigation, Methodology and Validation.
446 **Regina Hanlon:** Investigation, Validation and Writing - Review & Editing. **Arthur**

447 **A. Allen:** Formal Analysis, Software and Writing - Review & Editing. **Irina I. Ryp-**
448 **ina:** Investigation, Resources and Writing - Review & Editing. **David G. Schmale**
449 **III:** Investigation, Resources, Funding acquisition, Supervision and Writing - Re-
450 view & Editing. **Shane D. Ross:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation,
451 Formal Analysis, Investigation, Visualization, Data Curation, Funding acquisition,
452 Supervision and Writing - Review & Editing.

453 **Acknowledgements**

454 Formal Analysis This research was supported in part by grants from the Na-
455 tional Science Foundation (NSF) under grant number AGS 1520825 (Hazards SEES:
456 Advanced Lagrangian Methods for Prediction, Mitigation and Response to En-
457 vironmental Flow Hazards) and DMS 1821145 (Data-Driven Computation of La-
458 grangian Transport Structure in Realistic Flows) as well as the NASA Earth and
459 Space Science Fellowship under grant number 80NSSC17K0375. The Authors would
460 also like to acknowledge the Virginia Tech undergraduate students Simran Singh
461 and Christopher Rodulfo for their help testing hardware prior to conducting field
462 experiments. We would like to thank Michael Allshouse and Thomas Peacock
463 for help with the experiments and stimulating discussions. Additionally, we are
464 thankful to Nicholas Fillo, who serves as the Observing Program Leader for the
465 National Weather Service Office in Blacksburg, VA, for coordinating access to the
466 Virginia Tech/Montgomery Executive Airport where GPS validation experiments
467 were conducted.

468 **Appendix A. GPS Performance Assessment**

469 *Appendix A.1. Validation of Pixhawk-GPS Measurements*

470 To characterize the accuracy of the Pixhawk-GPS modules, field experiments
471 were conducted next to a surveyed marker from the National Geodetic Survey.
472 The surveyed marker (lat 37.20601, lon -80.41452) is located within grounds of the
473 Blacksburg Airport and was accessed with permission from the National Weather
474 Service NWS Forecast Office located in Blacksburg, VA. During the experiment,

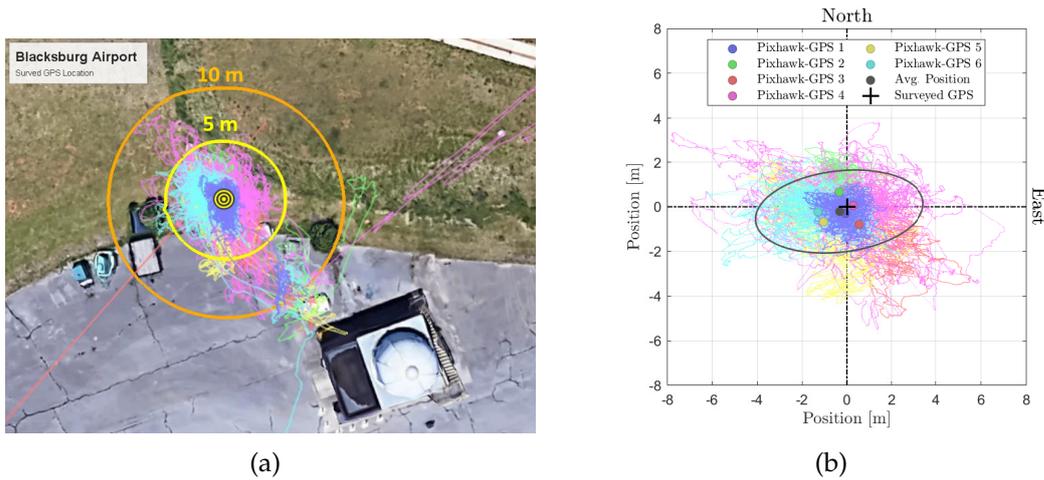


Figure A.21: Results from field experiments to characterize the position-tracking error of Pixhawk-GPS modules. a) Top view of the surveyed marker and Pixhawk-GPS measures with 5-m and 10-m distance radii overlaid. b) Position error measurements determined from Pixhawk-GPS position measurements recorded over the course of approximately ~ 3 hours.

475 the Pixhawk-GPS modules were turned on and then left to record position mea-
 476 surements laying over the surveyed marker from 20:14 to 22:56 EDT. Figure [A.21](#)
 477 shows position measurements from each Pixhawk-GPS module as well as corre-
 478 sponding position errors relative to the surveyed marker. Results show that the
 479 total error of Pixhawk-GPS modules is on average 1.87 ± 0.68 m.

Table A.6: Error analysis comparing Pixhawk-GPS position measurements and surveyed marker.

No.	Samples	Duration UTC	RMSE			
			East-West	North-South	Total	
1	48,805	20:14-22:56	0.62 m	0.68 m	0.92 m	
2	48,485	20:14-22:56	0.66 m	0.96 m	1.17 m	
3	48,924	20:14-22:56	1.64 m	1.32 m	2.11 m	
4	48,219	20:14-22:56	2.21 m	1.42 m	2.62 m	
5	48,997	20:14-22:56	1.72 m	1.63 m	2.37 m	
6	48,556	20:14-22:56	1.84 m	0.79 m	2.0 m	
mean \pm stdev		291,986 total	-	1.45 ± 0.66 m	1.13 ± 0.38 m	1.87 ± 0.68 m

480 Appendix A.2. GPS Performance Comparison

481 Following the validation of Pixhawk-GPS modules next to a surveyed marker,
 482 the performance of the Pixhawk-GPS module and SPOT Trace GPS systems track-
 483 ing drifting assets were compared. This analysis involved quantifying for all manikin
 484 releases the RMSE of position measurements obtained from the Pixhawk-GPS and

485 SPOT Trace GPS systems,

$$\delta r_{S/P} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \|\mathbf{x}_P(k) - \mathbf{x}_S(k)\|^2} \quad (\text{A.1})$$

486 where \mathbf{x}_P and \mathbf{x}_S are the horizontal position vectors recorded by the Pixhawk and
 487 SPOT Tracker GPS systems and N is the number of measurements in the sam-
 488 ple. For this assessment, position measurements from the Pixhawk-GPS modules
 489 were averaged and interpolated to match the 5-minute resolution of SPOT Trace
 490 GPS measurements. Based on East-West and North-South position measurements,
 491 shown in Table A.7, the RMSE of total displacement exceed 20 m on average. These
 492 results suggest that the Pixhawk-GPS modules can track assets with higher reso-
 493 lution and accuracy.

Table A.7: Error analysis comparing Pixhawk-GPS modules and SPOT Trace GPS systems.

Track	Samples	Duration UTC	Distance	RMSE		
				East-West	North-South	Total
1	70	13:15-19:15	9.65 km	20.30 m	8.73 m	11.85 m
2	45	13:21-18:51	10.88 km	8.94 m	22.36 m	24.08 m
3	20	14:09-18:35	6.48 km	12.68 m	5.78 m	13.94 m
4	25	14:05-16:10	3.48 km	18.95 m	24.18 m	30.72 m
5	7	14:41-17:51	6.87 km	18.58 m	11.90 m	22.06 m
6	14	14:44-17:04	7.37 km	21.89 m	6.10 m	22.73 m
mean \pm stdev	181 total	-	7.5 \pm 2.6 km	17 \pm 5.0 m	13 \pm 8.1 m	21 \pm 7.0 m

494 Appendix B. Quadrotor Wind Sensing

495 Appendix B.1. Quadrotor Wind Estimation Framework

496 Wind velocity was measured over drifting objects with a quadrotor employing
 497 the model-based wind estimation algorithm presented in [17]. This approach to
 498 wind estimation does not require the quadrotor used for wind estimation to carry
 499 a dedicated flow sensor and air data system, which can shorten the flight duration
 500 of the quadrotor significantly as a result of the added weight. Instead, wind ve-
 501 locity measurements are inferred from the quadrotor’s dynamic response to wind
 502 perturbation using a model-based state estimator. The quadrotor model used for
 503 wind estimation is a linear time-invariant model characterizing the quadrotor’s

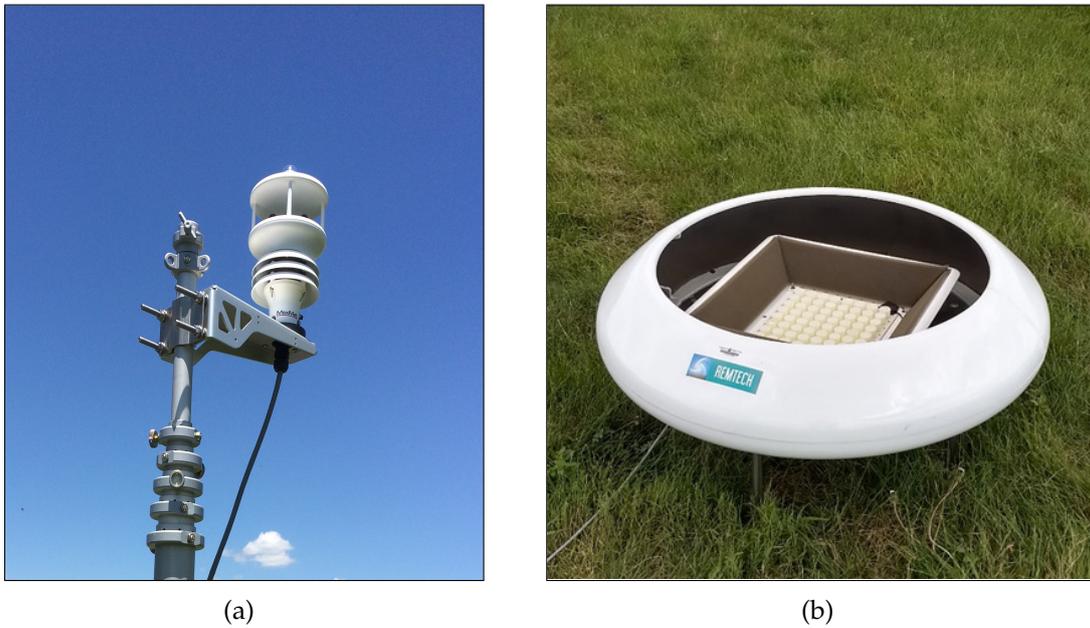


Figure B.22: Ground-based atmospheric sensors used to validate quadrotor wind estimates. a) WindSonic anemometer mounted on a 10-m telescoping tower. b) The Remtech PA-0 SoDAR capable of profiling wind velocity from 10 to 200 ASL.

504 rigid-body flight dynamics in hovering flight. The rigid-body model was charac-
 505 terized using system identification experiments presented in [17, 21] employing
 506 the methodology described in [22]. The accuracy of quadrotor wind estimates was
 507 then assessed through field experiments next to conventional atmospheric sensors.

508 *Appendix B.2. Validation of Quadrotor Wind Estimates*

509 Flight experiments to validate quadrotor wind estimates were conducted in an
 510 open field next to the Virginia Tech Kentland Experimental Aerial Systems (KEAS)
 511 Laboratory. The validation procedure involved flying the quadrotor next to the
 512 sonic anemometer and SoDAR sensor shown in Figure B.22 to measure wind ve-
 513 locity simultaneously. The sonic anemometer used in validation experiments was
 514 mounted on a telescoping tower 10 m AGL. The SoDAR sensor, on the other hand,
 515 was fixed at the ground. Performance characteristics of the sonic anemometer and
 516 SoDAR used in validation experiments are shown in Table B.8. Results from val-
 517 idation experiments were used to determine the accuracy of quadrotor wind esti-
 518 mates using sonic anemometer and SoDar wind observations as ground truth.

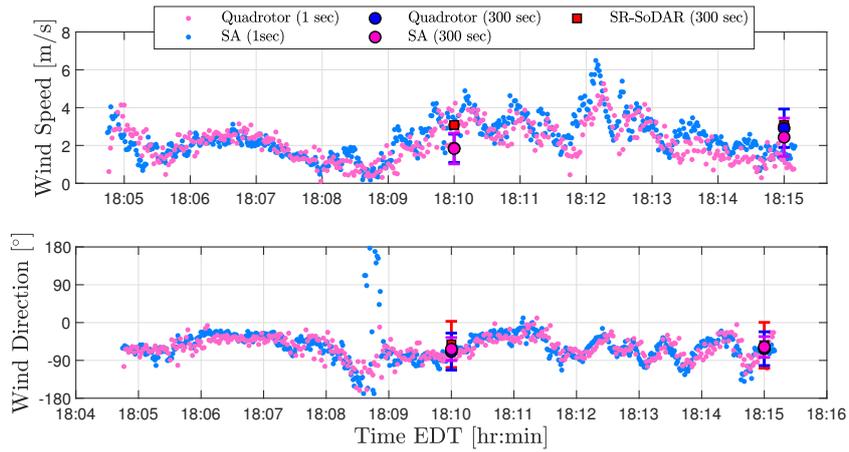
Table B.8: Temporal resolution and accuracy of wind sensors used in validation experiments.

Make/Model	Temporal Resolution	Accuracy	
		Wind Speed	Wind Direction
Remtech PA-0 SoDAR	300 s	< 0.2 m/s above 6 m/s	3° above 2 m/s
Gill GMX541	0.01 s	±3.0% to 40 m/s	±3° to 40 m/s

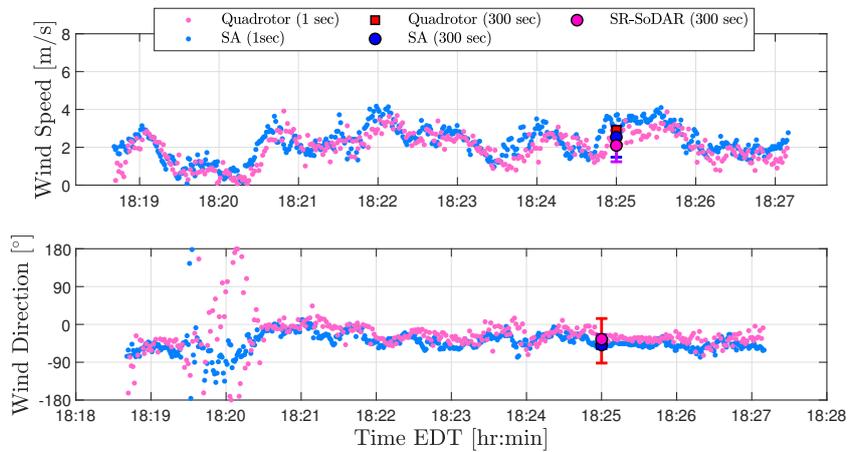
519 *Appendix B.3. Wind Estimation Validation Results*

520 The quadrotor wind estimation algorithm was validated via field experiments
521 next to the sonic anemometer and SoDAR sensor described in [Appendix B.2](#). Val-
522 idation results for three flights taking place between 18:17 and 20:17 are shown
523 in Figure [B.23](#). Prevailing wind conditions during this time period were from the
524 northwest direction with wind speed varying between 1 m/s and 6 m/s. How
525 well wind measurements from the quadrotor and atmospheric sensors agreed was
526 determined by quantifying both the root mean squared error (RMSE) and mean
527 bias error (MBE). **Mean absolute error (MAE)** of MBE and RMSE values, shown
528 in Table [B.9](#), demonstrate quadrotor and sonic anemometer (SA) measurements to
529 be within mean absolute errors of 0.3 m/s for wind speed and 9.9° for wind direc-
530 tions. Quadrotor and SoDAR comparisons, on the other hand, show wind speed
531 and wind direction measurements to agree within mean absolute errors of 1.0 m/s
532 and 9.9°, respectively. Hence, quadrotor wind estimates were found to be compa-
533 rable to wind observations from ground-based atmospheric wind sensors for the
534 range of wind conditions experienced during validation experiments.

535 **Validation results of quadrotor wind estimates suggest that the uncertainty of**
536 **leeway parameters associated with wind estimation errors to be small when wind**
537 **speed conditions are below 6 m/s. However, this range of wind conditions is not**
538 **sufficiently representative of the entire range of wind conditions at sea. For this**
539 **reason, more validation experiments are required to characterize how the error**
540 **of multirotor wind estimates increases with intensity of wind speed conditions.**
541 **Knowing this relationship is critical toward understanding how the uncertainty of**
542 **leeway parameters will be affected by error in multirotor wind measurements.**



(a) Quadrotor-based wind estimates between 18:04 and 18:16 EST.



(b) Quadrotor-based wind estimates between 18:18 and 18:28 EST.

Figure B.23: Wind speed and direction from the sonic anemometer, Remtech SoDAR, and quadrotor at 10 m above ground level (AGL).

Table B.9: Comparison of five-minute averages of wind speed and wind direction observations collected from the quadrotor, SA, and SoDAR at 10 m AGL on June, 5th 2018 from 18:05 to 20:17 EDT.

Flight Time EDT	Wind Speed MBE		Wind Speed RMSE	Wind Direction MBE		Wind Direction RMSE
	SA	SR-SoDAR	SA	SA	SR-SoDAR	SA
18:05-18:15	0.0 m/s 0.5 m/s	1.2 m/s 0.7 m/s	0.8 m/s	7.0° 4.0°	-4.0° -6.0°	57.6°
18:19-18:27	-0.5 m/s	-0.8 m/s	0.6 m/s	4.7°	12.7°	260.6°
20:08-20:17	-0.1 m/s	-1.2 m/s	0.4 m/s	-23.6°	-17.0°	374.5°
MAE	0.3 m/s	1.0 m/s	0.6 m/s	9.9°	9.9°	230.9

543 References

- 544 [1] Jake Sturmer. Japanese rescue crews find another survivor from miss-
 545 ing live export ship. Available at [https://www.abc.net.au/news/](https://www.abc.net.au/news/2020-09-04/live-export-ship-second-survivor-found/)
 546 [2020-09-04/live-export-ship-second-survivor-found/](https://www.abc.net.au/news/2020-09-04/live-export-ship-second-survivor-found/)

-
- 547 [12632278](#), 2020. Last accessed 4 September 2020.
- 548 [2] Christine Hauser and Marie Fazio. Marines locate missing vehicle and human
549 remains after california accident. Available at <https://www.nytimes.com/2020/07/31/us/marine-accident-california.html>,
550 2020.
551 Last accessed 28 September 2020.
- 552 [3] Dan Cook. Intensive drownings study shows majority didn't wear lifejack-
553 ets. Available at [https://www.rnz.co.nz/news/national/431683/
554 intensive-drownings-study-shows-majority-didn-t-wear-lifejackets](https://www.rnz.co.nz/news/national/431683/intensive-drownings-study-shows-majority-didn-t-wear-lifejackets),
555 2020. Last accessed 11 November 2020.
- 556 [4] Øyvind Breivik, Arthur A Allen, Christophe Maisondieu, and Jens Christian
557 Roth. Wind-induced drift of objects at sea: The leeway field method. *Applied
558 Ocean Research*, 33(2):100–109, 2011.
- 559 [5] Sheng-zheng Wang, Hao-bing Nie, and Chao-jian Shi. A drifting trajectory
560 prediction model based on object shape and stochastic motion features. *Jour-
561 nal of Hydrodynamics, Ser. B*, 26(6):951–959, 2015.
- 562 [6] Ben A. Brushett, Arthur A. Allen, Victoria C. Futch, Brian A. King, and
563 Charles J. Lemckert. Determining the leeway drift characteristics of tropical
564 pacific island craft. *Applied Ocean Research*, 44, 2014.
- 565 [7] Ben A Brushett, Arthur A Allen, Brian A King, and Charles J Lemckert. Ap-
566 plication of leeway drift data to predict the drift of panga skiffs: Case study
567 of maritime search and rescue in the tropical pacific. *Applied ocean research*,
568 67:109–124, 2017.
- 569 [8] Arthur A Allen. Leeway divergence. Technical Report CG-D-05-05, U.S. Coast
570 Guard Research and Development Center, Groton, Connecticut, January 2005.
571 <https://apps.dtic.mil/dtic/tr/fulltext/u2/a435435.pdf>.
- 572 [9] Peter J Nolan, Hosein Foroutan, and Shane D Ross. The understand-
573 ing of pollutant transport in the atmosphere: Lagrangian coherent struc-
574 tures. Poster presented at the 17th Annual CMAS Conference, Octo-

- 575 ber 2018. [https://cmasceneter.org/conference//2018/slides/](https://cmasceneter.org/conference//2018/slides/foroutan_understanding_pollutant_2018.pdf)
576 [foroutan_understanding_pollutant_2018.pdf](https://cmasceneter.org/conference//2018/slides/foroutan_understanding_pollutant_2018.pdf).
- 577 [10] Peter J Nolan, James Pinto, Javier González-Rocha, Anders Jensen, Christina
578 Vezzi, Sean Bailey, Gijs de Boer, Constantin Diehl, Roger Laurence, Craig
579 Powers, Shane D Ross, and David G Schmale III. Coordinated unmanned
580 aircraft system (UAS) and ground-based weather measurements to predict
581 Lagrangian coherent structures (LCSs). *Sensors*, 18(12):4448, 2018.
- 582 [11] M I Varentsov, A Yu Artamonov, A D Pashkin, and I A Repina. Experience in
583 the quadcopter-based meteorological observations in the atmospheric bound-
584 ary layer. *IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science*, 231:012053,
585 feb 2019.
- 586 [12] Brian R Greene, Antonio R Segales, Tyler M Bell, Elizabeth A Pillar-Little, and
587 Phillip B Chilson. Environmental and sensor integration influences on tem-
588 perature measurements by rotary-wing unmanned aircraft systems. *Sensors*,
589 19(6):1470, 2019.
- 590 [13] L. K. Barbieri, S. T. Kral, S. C. C. Bailey, A. E. Frazier, J. D. Jacob, P. B. Chil-
591 son D. Brus, C. Crick, J. Elston, H. Foroutan, J. González-Rocha, B. R. Greene,
592 M. I. Guzman, A. L. Houston, A. Islam, O. Kemppinen, E. A. Pillar-Little,
593 J. Reuder, S. D. Ross, M. Sama, D. G. Schmale III, T. J. Schuyler, S. Smith,
594 S. Waugh, A. Doddi, D. Lawrence, C. Dixon, S. Borenstein, and G. de Boer.
595 Small unmanned aircraft systems (sUAS) in atmospheric science: Measure-
596 ment intercomparison for LAPSE-RATE. *Sensors*, 2019.
- 597 [14] T. S. Bates, P. K. Quinn, J. E. Johnson, A. Corless, F. J. Brechtel, S. E. Stalin,
598 C. Meinig, and J. F. Burkhardt. Measurements of atmospheric aerosol vertical
599 distributions above svalbard, norway, using unmanned aerial systems (uas).
600 *Atmospheric Measurement Techniques*, 6(8):2115–2120, 2013.
- 601 [15] José L Araus and Shawn C Kefauver. Breeding to adapt agriculture to climate
602 change: affordable phenotyping solutions. *Current Opinion in Plant Biology*,
603 45:237–247, 2018.

- 604 [16] Miguel R Varela, Ana R Patrício, Karen Anderson, Annette C Broderick, Leon
605 DeBell, Lucy A Hawkes, Dominic Tilley, Robin TE Snape, Matthew J West-
606 oby, and Brendan J Godley. Assessing climate change associated sea-level rise
607 impacts on sea turtle nesting beaches using drones, photogrammetry and a
608 novel gps system. *Global change biology*, 25(2):753–762, 2019.
- 609 [17] Javier González-Rocha, Craig A Woolsey, Cornel Sultan, and Stephan F J
610 De Wekker. Sensing wind from quadrotor motion. *Journal of Guidance, Control,*
611 *and Dynamics*, 42(4):836–852, 2019.
- 612 [18] Michael R Allshouse, Gregory N Ivey, Ryan J Lowe, Nicole L Jones, CJ Beegle-
613 Krause, Jiangtao Xu, and Thomas Peacock. Impact of windage on ocean sur-
614 face Lagrangian coherent structures. *Environmental Fluid Mechanics*, 17(3):473–
615 483, 2017.
- 616 [19] Francisco J Beron-Vera, Maria J Olascoaga, and Rick Lumpkin. Inertia-
617 induced accumulation of flotsam in the subtropical gyres. *Geophysical Research*
618 *Letters*, 43(23):12–228, 2016.
- 619 [20] Mattia Serra, Pratik Sathe, Irina Rypina, Anthony Kirincich, Shane D Ross,
620 Pierre Lermusiaux, Arthur Allen, Thomas Peacock, and George Haller. Search
621 and rescue at sea aided by hidden flow structures. *Nature communications*,
622 11(1):1–7, 2020.
- 623 [21] Javier González-Rocha, Stephan FJ De Wekker, Shane D Ross, and Craig A
624 Woolsey. Wind profiling in the lower atmosphere from wind-induced pertur-
625 bations to multirotor uas. *Sensors*, 20(5):1341, 2020.
- 626 [22] Vladislav Klein and Eugene A Morelli. *Aircraft System Identification: Theory*
627 *and Practice*. American Institute of Aeronautics and Astronautics Reston, Va,
628 USA, 2006.