

Pattern Recognition in Time Series for Space Missions: A Rosetta Magnetic Field Case Study

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Abstract

Time series analysis is a technique widely employed in space science. In unpredictable environments like space, scientific analysis relies on large data sets to enable interpretation of observations. Artificial signal interferences caused by the spacecraft itself further impede this process. The most time consuming part of these studies is the efficient identification of recurrent pattern in observations, both of artificial and natural origin, often forcing researchers to limit their analysis to a reduced set of observations. While pattern recognition techniques for time series are well known, their application is discussed and evaluated primarily on purpose built or heavily preprocessed data sets. The aim of this paper is to evaluate the performance of state of the art pattern recognition techniques in terms of computational efficiency and validity on a real-life testcase. For this purpose the most suitable techniques for different types of pattern are discussed and subsequently evaluated on various hardware in comparison to manual identification. Using magnetic field observations of the ESA Rosetta mission as a representative example, both disturbances and natural patterns are identified. Compared to manual selection a speed-up of a factor up to 100 is achieved, with values for recall and precision above 80%. Moreover, the detection process is fully automated and reproducible. Using the presented method it was possible to detect and correct artificial interference. Finally, the feasibility of onboard deployment is briefly discussed.

Keywords: Rosetta, Time Series, Machine Learning, Magnetic Field, Pattern Recognition

1. Introduction

In recent years machine learning algorithms have shown prominence in the context of time series analysis. While the range of possible application is never-ending, the common benefit is the performance of a task in a quick and automated fashion. The latter characteristics render the application of machine learning interesting for space science and technology.

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6 In the past their applicability has been, amongst other use cases, investigated in the context of star classification
7 [1–3], spacecraft health monitoring [4, 5], space weather analysis [6] and magnetometer data processing [7]. However,
8 previous work focused mainly on analysis of scientific data (time series forecasting, classification, object detection in
9 images) or leveraged a specific sensor configuration. In this paper we showcase the applicability of machine learning
10 algorithms for pattern recognition to enable large scale statistical studies. In unpredictable environments like space,
11 scientific analysis relies on large data sets to enable interpretation of observations. The most time consuming part
12 of these studies is the efficient identification of recurrent pattern in observations. The overhead of manual selection
13 often forces scientists to limit their analysis to a reduced set of observations. A good example is the vast amount
14 of data returned by the ESA Rosetta mission [8–10]. The Rosetta mission was the first of its kind that allowed
15 scientists to study the interaction of the solar wind with the comet 67P/Churyumov-Gerasimenko (67P/CG) over
16 the course of its journey around the sun. The comparatively long mission duration of more than two years resulted
17 in an extraordinary large dataset. Manual analysis of data is, therefore, a very time consuming and tedious task
18 and sometimes nearly impossible, making it a suitable example to demonstrate the benefits of machine learning.
19 By employing machine learning algorithms the identification process of patterns can be significantly accelerated
20 compared to manual selection, which in turn enables the use of a larger dataset for statistical analysis. The advantages
21 of pattern recognition do not only apply to offline scientific analysis. Moreover, it can be applied for real-time data
22 analysis to identify interesting patterns and to correspondingly adapt trajectories or dynamically allocate downlink
23 bandwidth. This is especially important for future mission like JUICE [11] and BepiColombo [12] whose aim it is
24 to investigate structures in great detail in the magnetosphere and atmosphere of Jovian moons and planet Mercury
25 respectively. The datasets used in this study are made available through the ESA Planetary Science Archive [13] and
26 the Planetary Data System of NASA.

27 The focus will be put on patterns in the magnetic field, the concepts are, however, extendable to any other kind of
28 time series. Scientists were able to observe specific recurrent patterns in the magnetic field and other plasma quantities
29 [14–17]. Because of their complexity these patterns can in general not be identified by simple statistical or spectral
30 measures. Additionally, disturbances caused by the spacecraft, sensor noise and changing background conditions
31 further impede the identification process. Both, the identification of artificial and natural patterns requires specifically
32 trained scientists. Even then, manual selection has the drawbacks of not being reproducible and being prone to visual
33 bias. In order to solve this problem we demonstrate on a real-world test case how patterns, both artificial and natural,
34 can be recognized in an efficient, automated and reproducible fashion using machine learning algorithms. This study
35 is organized as follows. Firstly, a representative example for natural and artificial patterns respectively is presented.
36 Subsequently, suitable detection methods depending on the nature of the pattern and data processing are discussed. In
37 Section 3 details on implementation for the latter methods are given, followed by their evaluation in terms of statistical
38 validity and computational complexity in Section 4.

2. Time Series Analysis for Space Missions

In this context statistical analysis of time series is a powerful tool [18, 19]. However, to enable scientific interpretation artificial interferences have to be identified and, if possible, corrected beforehand [7]. Contrary to controlled laboratory measurements, instruments on board of spacecrafts are subject to unavoidable interferences. Typical sources include attitude changes, thrusters, heaters, solar panels and other spacecraft systems [16, 20, 21]. Distinguishing between artificial disturbances and natural variations is challenging [20]. Even though ground based reference models are standard for many missions, testing of complex systems (e.g. propulsion) is unfeasible in many cases. Therefore, interferences have to be identified and corrected during or after flight.

In the study of celestial objects many kinds of time series can be encountered. Typical examples are seismic activity [22, 23], plasma interaction [24–28], astronomical spectroscopy [29] and exoplanet detection [30–32]. Because of the complexity of observations pattern detection is, in most cases, performed manually [15, 17, 33].

In the following magnetic field data obtained during the Rosetta mission is used as an representative example to showcase the benefits, problems and limitations of automated pattern recognition for time series. Because of high demands for active trajectory control and the novelty of scientific observations, combined with a comparatively long mission duration, the Rosetta mission offers a diverse data set. Magnetic field measurements were chosen because they have three components and are very sensitive to different kinds of interferences. Therefore, they can be considered as a worst case scenario. Onboard the Rosetta spacecraft two fluxgate magnetometers with a measurement range of ± 16384 nT, resolution of 31 pT and noise level of $22 \text{ pT}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$ were employed [34]. The measurements were calibrated following Richter et al. [16] and Goetz et al. [15] to remove offset errors, temperature drifts and spacecraft influences. For a detailed description of the data quality see [35–41]. However, as the focus of this study lies solely on the detection of patterns, without any scientific interpretation of these structures, the data quality is of secondary importance.

2.1. Patterns in the Magnetic Field

The top panel of Figure 1 shows an example of an artificial disturbance in the magnetic field. In the shaded area short, recurring drops in the magnetic field are visible. These disturbances are caused by Orbit Correction Maneuvers using thrusters, which occurred frequently to change Rosettas trajectory. In the bottom panel the current associated with thruster heaters is displayed. As the heaters are active during thruster firings, the current directly correlates with the occurrences of Orbit Correction Maneuvers, however it is not the inducing source of the disturbances. Nevertheless, the pattern in the heater current can be used as an additional criterion for identification and to define regions of interest. A direct source is often not identifiable, as processes on board the spacecraft include multiple systems activated simultaneously or in very short succession. As the source of these disturbances is based, in most cases, on a strictly defined routine, they have the distinct characteristic of being reproducible in length and shape.

As an example for pattern of scientific interest, large asymmetric magnetic field enhancements, in the following referred to as Steepened Waves, are chosen. Multiple occurrences of these Steepened Waves are shown in Figure 2.

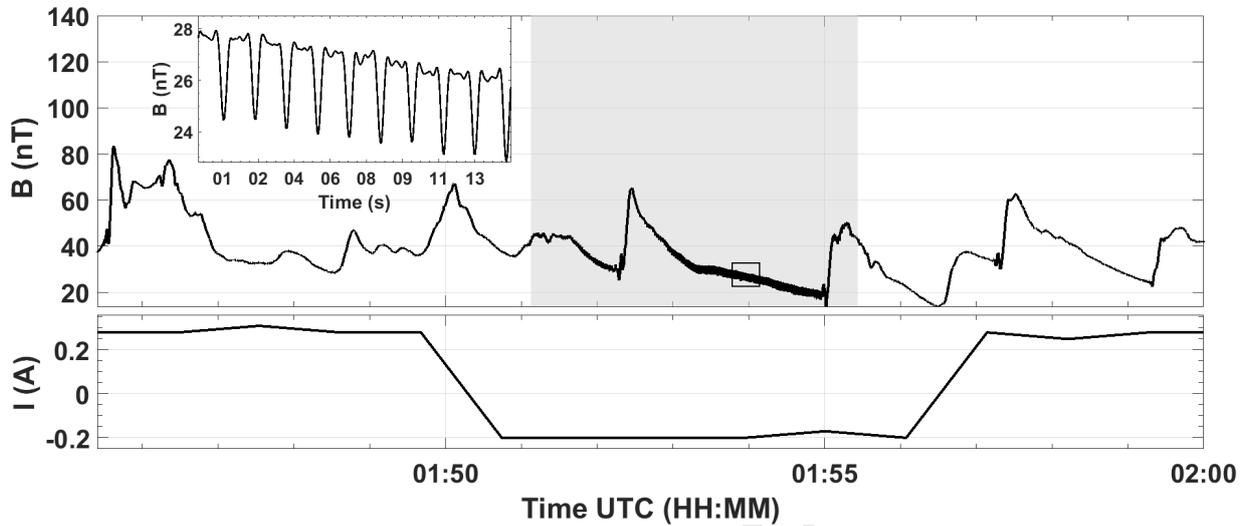


Figure 1: The top panel shows an example of the influence of Orbit Correction Maneuvers on the magnetic field on August, 1st 2015. The current for the thruster heaters (NPWDA320) is shown in the bottom panel. The shaded area marks the time interval in which interferences are visible in the magnetic field.

73 They are characterised by a sudden sharp increase in magnetic field, directly followed by a slowly decreasing edge. In
 74 general structures of scientific interest are governed by highly dynamical background conditions and have, therefore,
 75 a highly variable shape. This circumstance significantly complicates automated detection.

76 2.2. Methods

77 Depending on the properties of the time series and the pattern, different approaches to pattern recognition are possible.
 78 One possibility is to use a similarity measure based on a metric to find patterns similar in shape to a reference
 79 pattern. Popular measures are for example cross-correlation, Constraint Dynamic Time Warping [42] and euclidean
 80 distance. However, this approach only works well for exact replicas of the reference pattern, which makes them
 81 perfectly suited for the detection of interferences. While Constrained Dynamic Time Warping is a widely used and
 82 popular method [43, 44], it is susceptible to scaling and offsets. Hence, additional computationally expensive prepro-
 83 cessing steps are needed. The same argument applies to euclidean distance with the addition that it is not invariant
 84 to temporal shift. In contrast cross-correlation is invariant to scaling, temporal shift and offsets. In comparison to
 85 Constrained Dynamic Time Warping and euclidean distance it performed best in terms of computational efficiency
 86 and statistical validity for this use case.

87 Other possible pattern recognition techniques are Hidden Markov Models [45] or deep learning methods, e.g
 88 Long Short Term Memory (LSTM) networks [46] and 1D Convolutional Neural Networks [47]. Compared to the
 89 shape based similarity approach the latter methods have the advantage that they can identify patterns by their char-
 90 acteristics instead of similarity to a reference pattern. Patterns induced by physical processes are subject to strong

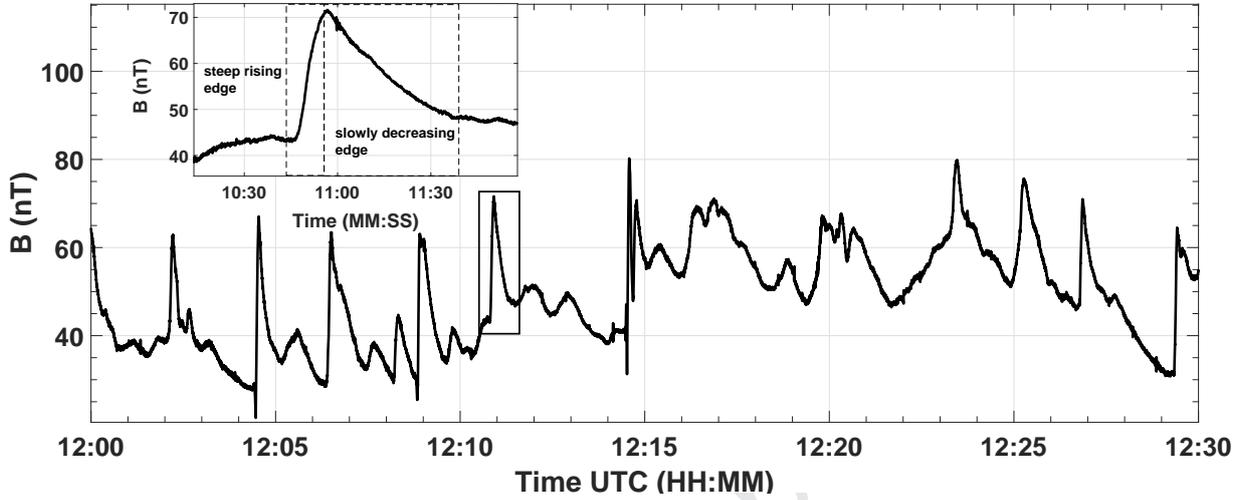


Figure 2: The magnetic field is shown for an exemplary time interval of 30 min on July, 27th 2015. Multiple occurrences of Steepened Waves with different amplitude and width are visible.

91 variations because of highly variable general conditions and general instability of the process. For these kind of pat-
 92 terns Hidden Markov Models and deep learning methods are better suited than similarity measures. Hence, LSTM
 93 networks are used for pattern recognition in the case of Steepened Waves, whereas for Orbit Correction Maneuvers
 94 cross-correlations is employed.

95 2.3. Data Preprocessing

96 Preprocessing of data is an integral step in pattern recognition as the quality of the data directly affect the success
 97 rate of recognition, especially for deep learning methods. The patterns discussed in the previous section have varying
 98 amplitudes and occur at different time scales. For the absolute amplitude a lower threshold is used to filter the obser-
 99 vations. As only the relative amplitude is of importance for pattern recognition, the magnetic field B is normalized as
 100 follows:

$$B_n = \frac{B - \min(B)}{\max(B) - \min(B)}. \quad (1)$$

101 Moreover, having features with widely different scales may cause the network to weight them differently, which in
 102 turn can lead to bad convergence. In some cases it can even prevent the network from learning successfully. In
 103 order to improve convergence normalization of input data is a necessity. To handle different time scales the data
 104 is downsampled to different sampling frequencies $f_1 = f_0/f_{rs}$, where $f_0 = 20$ Hz is the magnetometer sampling
 105 frequency and f_{rs} is a resampling factor. Pattern recognition is then performed for every downsampled data set
 106 independently. Additionally, a 6th order butterworth [48] low-pass filter with a cut-off frequency of 200 mHz was

107 applied to remove high frequency sensor noise. For the cross-correlation based approach no preprocessing steps are
 108 needed.

109 3. Implementation

110 3.1. Cross-correlation

111 In the following section, implementation details on how to efficiently identify and correct Orbit Correction Ma-
 112 neuvers with cross-correlation are discussed. The cross-correlation of two discrete time series f and g is defined
 113 as

$$(f \star g)(\tau) = \sum_{t=-\infty}^{\infty} f(t)^* g(t + \tau), \quad (2)$$

114 where $f(t)^*$ denotes the complex conjugate of $f(t)$. In practice, cross-correlation is implemented using Fast Fourier
 115 Transform to reduce run time complexity from $O(N^2)$ to $N \log(N)$ [49, 50]. However, as the frequency resolution
 116 scales with the window length this implementation is not suited for the small window sizes (2 s) in the case of Orbit
 117 Correction Maneuvers. Hence, an implementation based on Equation (2) is used. For the initial search one example
 118 of a pattern for the current and magnetic field respectively, as seen in Figure 1, is used as a reference signal. An Orbit
 119 Correction Maneuver is successfully identified if both the pattern in the magnetic field as well as the pattern in the
 120 current are matched. For detection a sliding window approach is employed. However, as a single example of the
 121 disturbance can be overlapped by other disturbances and natural variations, its shape is not representative. To improve
 122 results all interferences identified in the first pass are classified by the shape based clustering algorithm k-Shape [49].
 123 The algorithm sorts signals into clusters based on their distance to an average cluster shape S , which is obtained by
 124 computing the average of the aligned signals in the cluster. Each S is then used as a new reference signal to identify
 125 more disturbances. The procedure is repeated until the cluster shapes do not change significantly.

126 As an additional criterion for the detection the prominence of the pattern is included. Similar shapes with steep
 127 edges in the magnetic field can also be caused by sensor noise, however these magnetic field variations are typically
 128 of low amplitude and can, therefore, be easily ignored. A shape based approach, which is invariant to scaling in the
 129 magnitude, would, however, classify instances of sensor noise as disturbances because of the similarity in shape. For
 130 this reason the relative amplitude of the pattern in respect to the typical level of variation in the sliding window is
 131 included in the recognition process. The similarity threshold used for detection is determined by minimizing the loss
 132 function

$$L = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i^N (p_i - y_i)^2 \quad (3)$$

133 where N is the number of samples, p_i the predicted class and y_i the predefined class for the i th samples. The compu-
 134 tation is performed on a data set containing 1500 manually labeled samples with positive and negative examples.

135 In general, correction of these disturbances is difficult, as it would require a model based on the inducing currents.
 136 This is further impeded by a loss of information in the form of aliasing effects and superposition of different distur-
 137 bances. However, the typical shape S obtained by clustering gives a good approximation of the average interference

138 in the magnetic field and is therefore suitable for an initial correction. All non-systematic features are eliminated by
 139 the computation of S , leaving only the process specific signature in the magnetic field. To realize this, the average
 140 shape S_i $i \in \{x, y, z\}$ for every of the three magnetic field components is computed as described above. Following
 141 this, the computed shapes are aligned to the identified Orbit Correction Maneuvers and scaled to actual field strength.
 142 However, these interferences are subject to slight variations caused by e.g. aliasing effects. To account for those, the
 143 matched shape S_i is adjusted so that the function

$$f_i(c) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} (B_{i,k} - A_i(c_k))^2, \quad i \in \{x, y, z\} \quad (4)$$

144 is at its minimum. Hereby, N is the number of data points, $B_{i,k}$ is the magnetic field of component i at point k and c
 145 are coefficients of the piece-wise linear approximation of S_i of the form $A_i(c_k) = c_k + A_i(c_{k-1})$ and $A_i(c_0) = c_0$. The
 146 function f_i is minimized using the interior-point algorithm [51] with lower and upper bounds of $c_k \pm 0.5$ for every
 147 coefficient c_k . The bounds for the coefficients allow only for small modifications so that the overall shape is still
 148 maintained. Finally, the adjusted shape is subtracted from the respective magnetic field component, thereby removing
 149 the interference.

150 3.2. LSTM Network

151 In this section, details on how to efficiently train a neural network are given. In order to train a neural network a
 152 suitable set of features has to be chosen. In general the choice of features depends on the problem at hand. As the
 153 Steepened Waves are similar in shape to the solution of the inviscid Burger's Equation [52]

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial t} + B \frac{\partial B}{\partial x} = 0 \quad (5)$$

154 the magnitude and its first and second derivative are chosen as features. The next step is the compilation of a training
 155 data set. Pattern recognition can be viewed as a binary classification problem with a positive and negative class. The
 156 problem is the large set of different shapes and parameters that need to be covered, especially for the negative class.
 157 By using Burger's Equation a training data set covering a large parameter space can be quickly and automatically
 158 generated. For the positive class 40000 Steepened Waves with varying skewness and width were produced. The
 159 negative class contains 40000 examples of symmetric pulses, square waves and partially obscured Steepened Waves.
 160 Finally, the design of the network was determined by means of grid search. For most applications a network with
 161 one layer is completely sufficient. The number of nodes, the activation function and other hyperparameters have to be
 162 adapted to the respective problem. To reduce overfitting, dropout was added. Training for 20 epochs takes around 8
 163 min on a NVIDIA Tesla P100-SXM2-16GB using Tensorflow [53]. Using typical workstation GPUs (NVIDIA RTX
 164 2070, NVIDIA GeForce 1080) computational times increase up to a factor of 5 compared to the P100. To further
 165 improve performance a feedback mechanism is used to fine tune the weights of the neural network. A subset of
 166 intervals classified by the pre-trained network is reevaluated by hand and labeled accordingly. This new data set is
 167 used to retrain the network. Its purpose is to enable the network to recognize the specific shape of Steepened Waves

168 encountered at the comet, whereas the pre-training focused on the general shape of Steepened Waves idealized by
 169 the Burger's Equation. Furthermore, the fine tuning has the purpose to extend the negative class by typical negative
 170 examples encountered at a comet. This second training data set consists of 1500 examples, again with a 1:1 ratio, and
 171 is, therefore, significantly smaller than the first data set used for pre-training. Fine-tuning takes up to 1 min on the
 172 P100. For the detection a sliding window approach is employed, with a minimal window size of 20 s and an overlap
 173 of 10 s. To account for the varying width of the Steepened Waves the magnetic field interval is resampled to different
 174 lengths. A Steepened Wave is correctly identified by the algorithm if a peak in probability above a certain threshold
 175 is present in the time interval of the Steepened Wave. The threshold used for identification is computed analogously
 176 to the similarity threshold in Section 3.1, using the same data set employed for fine tuning of the neural network.

177 For most applications in physics a simple detection of a pattern, however, is not sufficient, because for data analysis
 178 the beginning and end of a structure are important. For the application at hand neural networks are not suitable for data
 179 segmentation as they require an unreasonable amount of data to learn to distinguish suitable boundaries. Therefore,
 180 cross-correlation is used to identify the boundaries of the Steepened Waves in the window identified by the neural
 181 network, similar to Section 3.1.

182 4. Evaluation

183 4.1. Evaluation of Orbit Correction Maneuver Detection

In order to evaluate the performance of the approach presented in section 3.1 a test data set, in which all occurring
 Orbit Correction Maneuvers are identified by hand and labeled accordingly, is compiled. Additionally, time intervals
 not containing Orbit Correction Maneuvers were added to the test data set in order to evaluate the robustness of the
 approach in the absence of Orbit Correction Maneuvers. In total a test data set comprised of 700 Orbit Correction
 Maneuvers in 144 hours of magnetic field observations was used (Table 1). To evaluate the performance the metrics
 precision and recall [54] were employed. The precision illustrates how many positive classifications were correct and
 the recall how many actual positives were correctly predicted. This can be expressed as:

$$\text{precision} = \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{TP} + \text{FP}} \quad (6)$$

$$\text{recall} = \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{TP} + \text{FN}}, \quad (7)$$

184 hereby TP is the number of true positives, FP the number of false positives and FN the number of false negatives. The
 185 evaluation shows that above 85 % of all Orbit Correction Maneuvers present in the test data are correctly classified.
 186 The main advantage of the automatic procedure lies in the massive parallelizability and the simultaneous processing
 187 of multiple time series consisting of magnetic field observations and house keeping currents. For one day of magnetic
 188 field observations sampled at 20 Hz the average processing time amounts to approximately 10 s using 24 threads on
 189 a typical enterprise level CPU (Intel(R) Xeon(R) CPU E5-2620 using FP32), which results in a total computational
 190 time of around 2 h for 2 years of data. The top panel of Figure 3 shows the uncorrected and corrected magnetic field.

191 The Orbit Correction Maneuver signature visible in Figure 3(a) was removed in 3(b) with some residual fluctuations
 192 remaining. In the bottom panel the power spectral density (PSD) of the respective time intervals are depicted. Multiple
 193 peaks, which can be attributed to Orbit Correction Maneuvers, are visible in Figure 3(c). In Figure 3(d) the peaks are
 194 not visible anymore or are significantly reduced. A list of all identified Orbit Correction Maneuvers is provided as
 195 supplementary material.

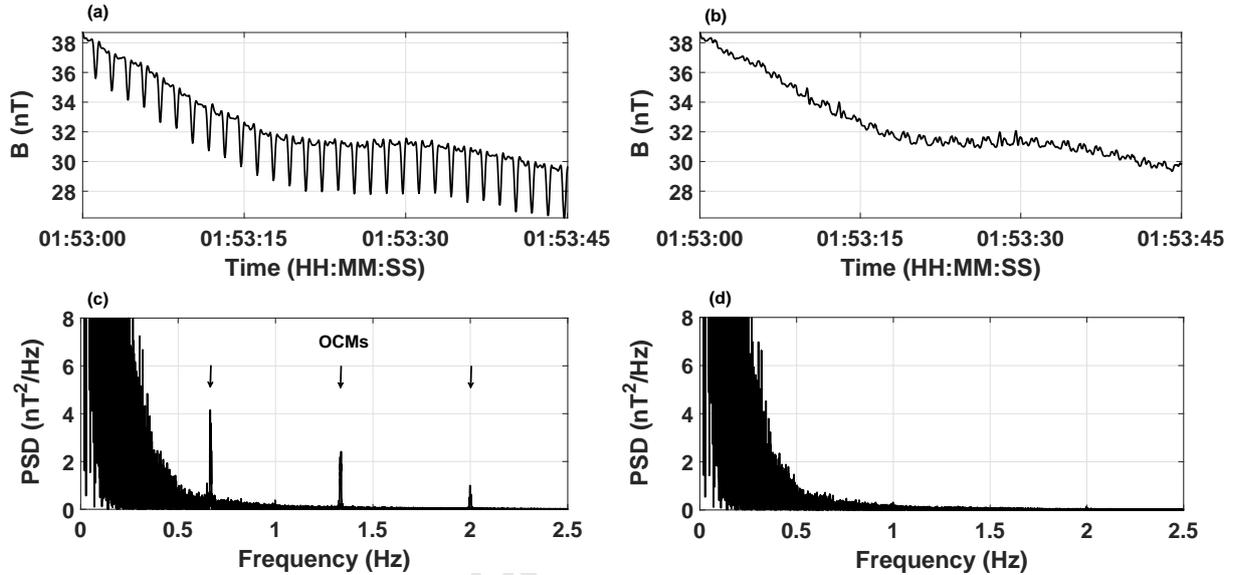


Figure 3: The top panel shows the uncorrected (left) and corrected (right) magnetic field for an exemplary time interval on August, 1st 2015. The Orbit Correction Maneuver signatures in the left figure were removed in the right figure, following the procedure described in section 3.1. The bottom panel shows the respective spectra. The spectral peaks caused by the Orbit Correction Maneuvers vanish after correction.

Orbit Correction Maneuvers	Precision	Recall
700	92.06 %	83.57 %

Table 1: Evaluation results of Orbit Correction Maneuver detection with cross-correlation.

196 4.2. Evaluation of Steepened Waves Detection

197 The performance of the procedure presented in section 3.2 is evaluated on an artificially generated and a real-world
 198 data set. The former is used to assess performance in a controlled environment and to examine limitations of the
 199 approach. On the other hand evaluation on a real-world data set illustrates the applicability in practice. The artificial
 200 test data set is generated by placing signals of varying amplitude, width and skewness, computed with Equation (5),
 201 at predefined times. To account for realistic noise and natural variations we use actual magnetic field data at where no
 202 natural Steepened Waves are present. This approach ensures a fair and comprehensible evaluation of the procedure
 203 as the times of pattern occurrences are known a priori. Evaluation was performed for a total of 96 hours of magnetic

Test Data	Steepened Waves	Precision	Recall
artificial	1250	89.01 %	85.10 %
Rosetta	460	80.62 %	82.13 %

Table 2: Precision and recall for the performance of the LSTM on the artificial and the real-world test cases.

204 field data with 1250 artificial Steepened Waves. The results are summarized in the top column of Table 2. For the
 205 real-life test case Steepened Waves were labeled manually for various time intervals. Figure 4 shows an example of
 206 a 22 min long magnetic field time interval, where Steepened Waves are highlighted in green and negative examples
 207 are highlighted in red. The bottom panel shows the classification probability for two different resampling factors.
 All true positives, false negatives and false positives are labeled accordingly in the time interval. The required time

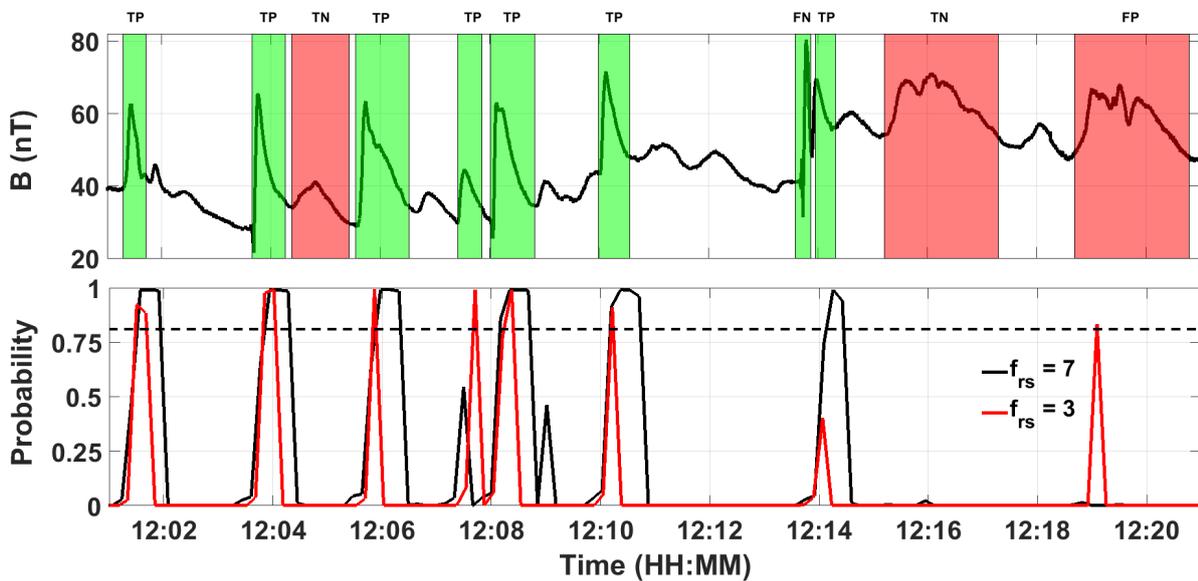


Figure 4: Example for the detection of Steepened Waves in the magnetic field for two different resampling factors. The top panel shows the magnetic field and the bottom panel depicts the probability computed by the LSTM network. The Steepened Waves labeled manually are highlighted in green. Examples for negative pattern are highlighted in red. All true positives (TP), false positives (FP) and false negatives (FN) are marked accordingly. The dashed line marks the probability threshold used for detection.

208
 209 for preprocessing and pattern detection for a 24 h interval of 20 Hz amounts to around 10 seconds on a Tesla P100-
 210 SXM2, resulting in a total computational time of around 2 h for 2 years of data. However, this time span can further
 211 be reduced by splitting the data set using a divide and conquer approach. A list of all identified areas with Steepened
 212 Waves is provided as supplementary material.

213 5. Conclusion and Outlook

214 Two different methods for pattern recognition in time series were implemented and exemplarily evaluated on
215 magnetic field data obtained during the Rosetta mission. In total a number of around 70000 Steepened Waves and
216 18000 Orbit Correction Maneuvers were identified in the magnetic field observations using neural networks and
217 cross-correlation, respectively. Assuming a conservative time of 10 s per pattern required for manual selection on
218 average, the identification per hand would have taken around 194 h for the waves and 50 h for the Orbit Correction
219 Maneuvers, while maintaining the same coverage. The significant speed-up of up to a factor of 100 and automated
220 fashion enable large scale statistical studies, especially for large data sets with comparatively few pattern occurrences.
221 As background conditions for space missions cannot be controlled, contrary to laboratory studies, scientist have to
222 rely on large data sets to enable physical interpretation. With a recall and precision above 80 % the performance is
223 comparable to manual detection. Moreover, the automated identification is deterministic and therefore reproducible.

224 By computing a representative disturbance shape it was possible to correct the magnetic field so that the Orbit
225 Correction Maneuvers signatures in the spectrum were removed. However, it has to be emphasized that the proposed
226 method only works for recurring disturbances with a constant shape. Therefore, these time intervals still have to be
227 evaluated with caution. For future work the mining of technical house keeping data, e.g. currents, in combination
228 with scientific observations to detect correlated recurring patterns to identify disturbances will be the focus. This is
229 especially useful in cases where multiply systems acting simultaneously cause a disturbance, as it is unfeasible to
230 process such a large amount of data manually.

231 Another area of interest for future work is the onboard employment of pattern recognition methods. Because of
232 power constraints, systems on board of spacecrafts are subject to strongly restricted power budgets. In this context
233 Field Programmable Gate Arrays have gained more and more in prominence for onboard computing. Their archi-
234 tecture enables massive parallel processing with a relatively low power consumption. Consequently, they are a topic
235 of interest in the context of machine learning and are perfectly suitable for onboard pattern recognition. A conser-
236 vative upper bound for the power consumption for training and pattern recognition on typical Graphical Processing
237 Units was measured to be 12 Wh for a training data set with 80000 samples and 5.2 mWh for one day of 20 Hz data
238 respectively. With a typical power budget of at least 3 W per subsystem, onboard pattern recognition is perfectly
239 feasible. Even onboard training is theoretically feasible if needed. This is especially applicable for the deployment
240 of magnetometers for scientific applications as spacecrafts are subject to a magnetic cleanliness program which intro-
241 duces severe limitations. In combination with a corresponding sensor configuration, pattern detection can be used to
242 efficiently detect and correct disturbances which in turn allows to reduce magnetic cleanliness requirements.

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