



The azimuth observation by GNSS: A case study at Kakioka

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5 **Abstract.** For the azimuth observation to be made at its magnetic observatories routinely, Japan Meteorological Agency (JMA) has adopted a traditional method based on Polaris sighting. Due to its difficulty to implement under overcast weather conditions and to its demand on observers, for overtime work into the evening, we are motivated to seek for an alternative method based on the GNSS observation that might potentially relieve those two disadvantages. An experiment is made at Kakioka to assess the eligibility and effectiveness of the GNSS method for JMA's unmanned observatories, Memambetsu and Kanoya. The
10 GNSS observations themselves achieve as high a precision as approximately 1 arcsecond, as far as they are analyzed with Static mode. Derived from the results of GNSS observation and some supplementary horizontal angle measurements, the azimuth of the azimuth mark for the absolute measurement is determined with a precision of a few arcsecond, which is comparable to the azimuth precision achieved by the Polaris sighting. However, we end up with their significant difference by about 10 arcseconds. We discuss this discrepancy to be possibly due to a local geoid gradient. The Polaris observation is made
15 with a theodolite tilted in the gravitational direction, also known as the vertical line deviation, whereas the GNSS observations are based on the azimuth of the compliant ellipsoid plane.

1 Introduction

The geomagnetic vector field consists of components such as "total magnetic force," "declination angle," "inclination angle," "horizontal partial force," and "vertical partial force." The declination represents the deflection of the magnetic north (north
20 pointed to by a magnetic compass) from the true north (the geographic north on a map). Although the true north is more relevant in everyday life, it is usually difficult to sense straightforwardly. As the magnetic north can easily be determined using a compass, the magnetic north is rather useful for indirectly pointing the true north by referring to a given value of the location's declination.

In the case of geomagnetic observations, the azimuth — defined hereafter as the horizontal angle (clockwise positive) of a
25 direction of interest with respect to the true north — must be determined by an independent method. One is the traditional astronomical method using a celestial body at night. In this method, which has been revitalized because of its high accuracy (see Barazzetti, 2025), the horizontal angle between an azimuth mark and a reference star, such as Polaris, is measured. Horizontal and elevation angles of the reference star in the equatorial coordinate system are provided by a celestial orbit calculation software. The predicted angle can then be combined with the observed angles to calculate the azimuth of the



30 azimuth mark. The same method has also been applied to the sun in many observatories (Jankowski and Sucksdorff, 1996),
although it is difficult to achieve a comparable accuracy due to the difficulty of centering of the sun with its much larger
appearance and quicker motion.

Alternatively, Global Navigation Satellite Systems (GNSS) can be used to determine the azimuth. By measuring positions
at two points by GNSS precisely, the azimuth of one point with respect to the other can be calculated. The positioning accuracy
35 is generally known to be a few millimeters (Static mode), less than a meter (Differential GPS), and more than a few meters
(Single mode). In terms of the azimuth, the reported accuracy is about a few arcseconds (e.g. Lalanne et al., 2013). The
INTERMAGNET technical reference manual (Bracke, 2025) recently updated suggests to apply Differential GPS, or otherwise
the traditional astronomical observation, when redetermination is necessary.

Japan Meteorological Agency has adopted the method using Polaris at its magnetic observatories, Kakioka, Memambetsu
40 and Kanoya, that are registered as the INTERMAGNET observatories (Love and Chulliat, 2013). It has been aware, however,
that there are difficulties with this method. First of all, it is subject to weather conditions, with the Polaris sighting being easily
precluded by clouds. Particularly, rain clouds make the observation totally infeasible. Furthermore, for an even more accurate
observation of Polaris, the optimal season is restricted to late Autumn, when the star migrates vertically rather than horizontally
during the typical observation hours in the early evening. These timing limitations make the opportunities of the observation
45 fewer. While this is actually not a major problem at Kakioka which has permanent staff, it significantly matters for
Memambetsu and Kanoya, which are unmanned observatories visited by observers only once every two weeks for maintenance
work and the absolute measurement. Another difficulty is the extra labor inevitable for the staff to make the azimuth
observation with Polaris, for which they have to work overtime after their normal office hours when the sky is sufficiently
dark. This requirement is especially burdensome for the staff visiting Memambetsu and Kanoya. There is only one observer
50 for each, travelling all the way there by car accompanied by a supporting member. Obviously, it would be preferable if they
had much more chance for the azimuth observations during the daytime.

Given the circumstances above, we investigate the azimuth observations by GNSS in view of its potential to alleviate the
difficulties of our conventional observation. We compare the accuracy of the azimuth observations by GNSS and the Polaris
sighting, in order to assess if our conventional observations can eventually be replaced by the GNSS observations, especially
55 at Memambetsu and Kanoya. To this end, we conducted an experiment at Kakioka to investigate general performance of the
GNSS approach with reference to our requirement in the precision for the absolute measurement. This paper is organized as
follows. In Section 2, starting with an overview of the GNSS observation method, we give detailed description of individual
observations and the data processing method. Also, the precision of the azimuth resulting from the GNSS observations is
presented. In Section 3, the difference between the azimuth obtained by GNSS and Polaris sighting is discussed. Section 4
60 summarizes the entire report.



2 The azimuth derived by the GNSS observations

2.1 Overview of the whole observation

The entire observation area inside the premise of Kakioka is shown in Figure 1, in which the points of observation and as well as the azimuth mark are also indicated. The observatory's principal absolute pillar, marked as Point C in the figure, is indoors, a precise GNSS observation is hardly available right at that location. So is hardly possible right at the azimuth mark. Therefore, it is necessary to have at least two “eccentric points”, which are indicated as Point A and Point B in Figure 1. The baseline length in between is approximately 150 m. The whole observation consists of the GNSS observations and supplementary measurements of horizontal angles (as schematically illustrated in Figure 2). First, a GNSS observation is performed simultaneously at Points A and B to obtain the azimuth angle θ_{GNSS} (Section 2.2). Subsequently, horizontal angle observations are made at Points B and C to obtain β_1 and β_2 , respectively (Section 2.3). The azimuth angle of the azimuth mark, as represented by θ_2 in Figure 2, can generally be derived as (Section 2.4)

$$\theta_1 = \theta_{GNSS} + \beta_1 \pm 180^\circ, \quad (1)$$

$$\theta_2 = \theta_1 + \beta_2 \pm 180^\circ. \quad (2)$$

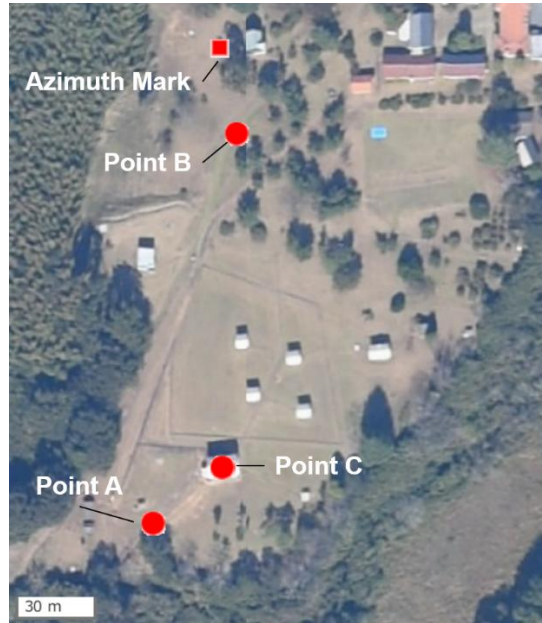


Figure 1: The area of the observations at Kakioka (Posted with data of points appended to the GSI Tiles).

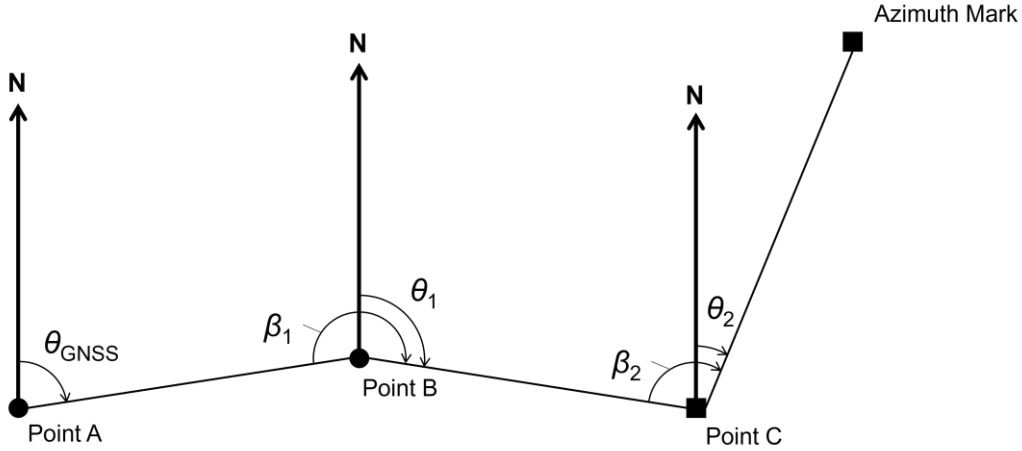


Figure 2: A schematic diagram of the whole observation.

80 2.2 GNSS observation and its data processing

The observation equipment consists of two GNSS receivers (Trimble Alloy and Trimble R750) and two antennas (both are Zephyr3 Rover) (Figure 3). The measurement is made for an hour at a sampling rate of 1 Hz. The obtained data are then analysed by using RTKLIB ver. 2.4.2 (Takasu et al., 2007) with a setting as summarized in Table 1. In this experiment, the results with Static mode are employed for the assessment of the azimuth observation by GNSS, because it is widely considered
85 the most accurate (see also our experiment in Appendix A). The L1, L2 and L5 signals are used for the satellite types GPS, GLONASS and QZSS. Because of the short baseline length, neither the atmospheric delay correction nor the ionospheric delay correction is made. The range and standard deviation $\sigma_{\theta_{GNSS}}$ of the azimuth θ_{GNSS} thus calculated (Figure 4) are found to be less than 10 arcseconds and about 0.4 arcsecond, respectively.



Figure 3: A photo the GNSS equipment mounted on a tripod.

Table 1: The settings of GNSS analysis.

Item	Contents
Software	RTKLIB ver2.4.2
Positioning Mode	Static
Types of satellite	GPS, GLONASS, QZSS
Frequencies	L1, L2, L5
Satellite Ephemeris	Broadcast
Ionosphere Correction	None
Troposphere Correction	None

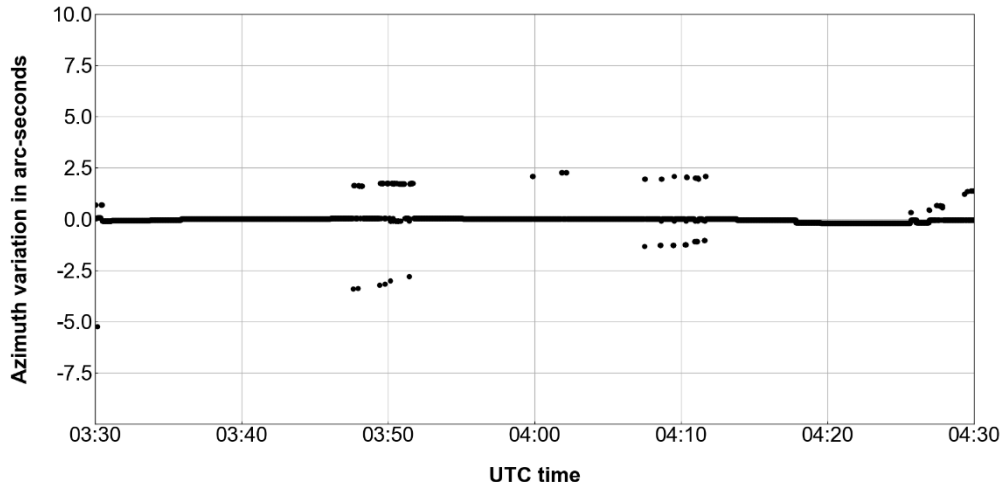


Figure 4: Observed azimuth θ_{GNSS} at Point A as a function of time.

2.3 Supplementary measurement of horizontal angles and its processing

For the observations of β_1 and β_2 , either a theodolite Zeiss (THEO-010B) or a total station (Trimble M3) is used (Figure 5).

100 The observations are undertaken basically in compliance with Japanese standard regulations for surveying. To qualify results of those observations, we take 15 and 8 arcseconds respectively as thresholds in terms of the double angle difference and the observation difference. After having acceptable results, extra observations are made repeatedly to verify their accuracy, i.e. 5 times and 6 times for β_1 and β_2 (Figure 6), their standard deviations, σ_{β_1} and σ_{β_2} , being 2.3 and 2.1 arcseconds, respectively.



Figure 5: A set of instruments for the horizontal angle observation.

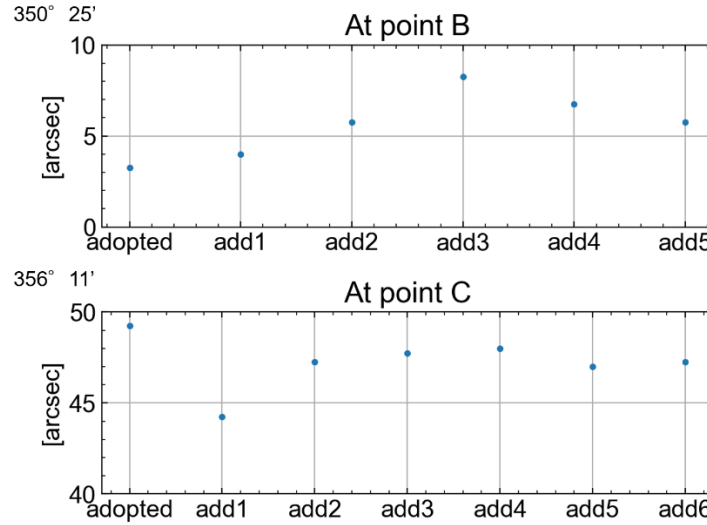


Figure 6: The adopted results of the horizontal angles, β_1 and β_2 , and the results of additional observations.

2.4 Calculation of the azimuth to azimuth mark

110 The results of individual observations are summarized in Table 2. From these values and equations (1) and (2), the azimuth θ_2 to the azimuth mark at the absolute pillar, or Point C in Figure 1, is calculated to be $0^\circ 32' 44.6''$. Its standard deviation σ_{θ_2} is estimated to be 3.1 arcseconds by applying the propagation law to those of the individual observations while assuming non-correlation among them:

$$\sigma_{\theta_2} = \sqrt{\sigma_{\theta_{GNSS}}^2 + \sigma_{\beta_1}^2 + \sigma_{\beta_2}^2}$$

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Table 2: The observed results of θ_{GNSS} , β_1 , β_2 and the azimuth θ_2 calculated from them.

	Value	Standard deviation
Azimuth θ_{GNSS} at Point A	$13^\circ 55' 52.0''$	0.4"
Horizontal angle β_1 at Point B	$350^\circ 25' 3.3''$	2.3"
Horizontal angle β_2 at Point C	$356^\circ 11' 49.3''$	2.1"
Azimuth θ_2 at Point C	$0^\circ 32' 44.6''$	3.1"



3 Comparison with the azimuth obtained from Polaris observations

120 To compare the accuracy and precision of the azimuth observations by GNSS and Polaris sighting, let us first introduce our
conventional observations at Kakioka. Annually around October, the observations are performed independently by as many
observers as ten, where a single observer sights Polaris eight times. Figure 7 shows the azimuth values derived from the Polaris
observations at the Kakioka since 1997. It is implied that the annual mean azimuths are stably around $13^{\circ} 55' 55''$. While there
are apparently variances in the results among the observers, the standard deviation of the azimuth by Polaris sighting is usually
125 less than three arcseconds.

The current experiment reveals that the azimuth by GNSS (θ_2 in Table 2) is smaller by about 10 arcseconds than that by Polaris
sighting. The difference is unlikely attributable to the observation error, considering the high precision of each observation
indicated by their standard deviations as small as a few arcseconds.

What is the cause of this significant difference? Here we will consider Deflection of the Vertical (DoV), which is well known
130 in the field of geodetic surveying (see Vittuari et al., 2016; and the references therein). DoV is defined as a deviation angle
between the direction of gravity and the geometric normal to the reference ellipsoid's surface at a given location. Measurement
of an angle with the traditional instruments, such as total stations and theodolites, is based on local direction of the gravity,
while GNSS observations are based on the ellipsoidal normal. As illustrated in Figure 7, azimuths obtained from the Polaris
and GNSS observations can differ if the plumb line differs from the ellipsoidal normal.

135 Atumi (1933) first reported DoV in Japan. According to his investigation at Tsukubasan which is roughly 10 km west of
Kakioka (Table 1 of Atumi (1933)), the astronomical latitude and longitude are $36^{\circ} 13' 22.0''$ N and $140^{\circ} 5' 55.0''$ E, respectively,
while the geodetic latitude and longitude are $36^{\circ} 13' 22.3''$ N and $140^{\circ} 5' 67.2''$ E, respectively. The east-west component of
DoV η can be estimated by

$$\eta = (\lambda_a - \lambda_g) \cos \varphi_g$$

140 where λ_a is the astronomical longitude and φ_g and λ_g are the geodetic latitude and longitude, respectively. Using the values
reported by Atumi (1933), the η turns out to be -9.8 arcseconds. The effect of the DoV η on the difference δ between the
azimuth by the GNSS and Polaris observations can be estimated by applying the level correction equation (cf. Kakioka
Magnetic Observatory, 1987)

$$\delta = b \tan h ,$$

145 where b is the tilt of the instrument and h is the altitude angle of Polaris (as illustrated in Figure 8b). Assuming that b is
represented by η (Figure 8a) at Tsukubasan, δ is about 7 arcseconds, which roughly explains the observed difference between
the azimuth by the Polaris and GNSS observations. For a more rigorous verification, observation or calculation of the very
local DoV at Kakioka would be necessary, as the instrument tilt b can still be somewhat different from the DoV at Tsukubasan
 η .

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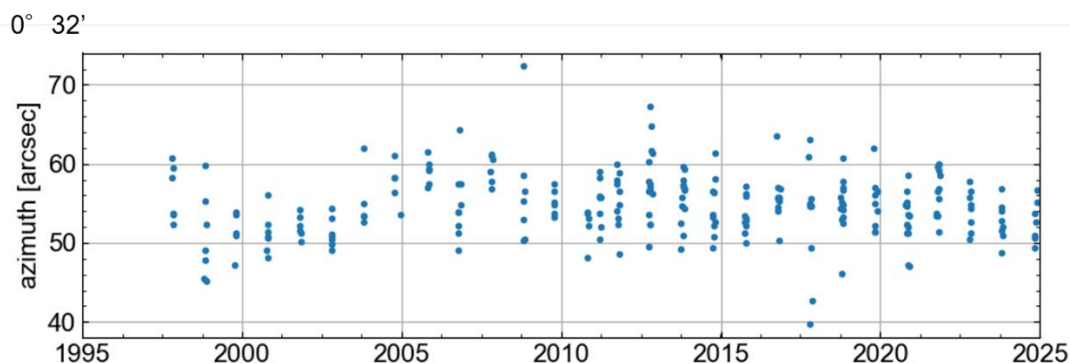


Figure 7: Record of the azimuth by Polaris observation at Kakioka since 1997.

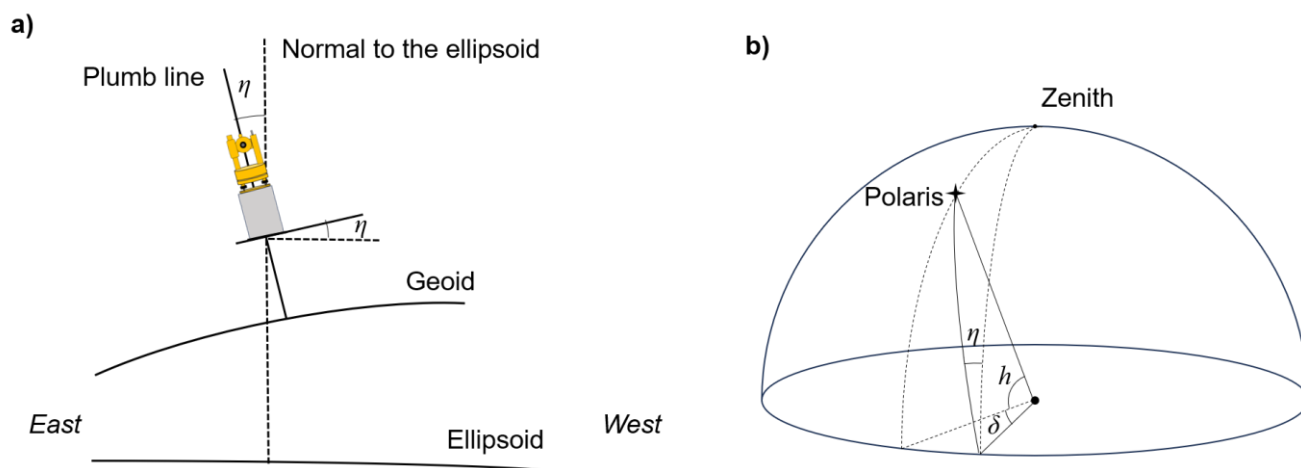


Figure 8: a) An image of DOV in an east-west inclined geoid. b) The deviation δ in the azimuth, as observed by sighting Polaris at an elevation angle η in the presence of DoV by η .

4 Summary

While the azimuth observation -- the measurement of deflection angle of an azimuth mark with respect to the true north -- is essential for the absolute measurement at magnetic observatories, the method with star sighting is associated with difficulties due to weather-dependent observation conditions, as well as demands for overtime work into the evening. A way to mitigate these hardships would be introducing an alternative method with GNSS observation. To examine the applicability of the GNSS technique to the azimuth observations especially at our unmanned observatories, Memambetsu and Kanoya, an experiment is conducted using the GNSS technique at Kakioka in 2024. Under the setting of observation necessarily including horizontal angle measurements at eccentric points (Section 2), the precision of the azimuth of the azimuth mark is found to be a few



170 arcsecond, which is comparable to that derived from previous Polaris observations. A significant difference of about 10 arcseconds is revealed between those resulting from the two methods. This is due most likely to the DoV, according to the azimuth deviation predicted by using a report of measurement plumb line direction acquired at a distance of roughly 10 km to the west. It indicates a necessity of further investigation, such as an in situ observation of the DoV. In transitioning to the method with GNSS, it will also be necessary to consider even more efficient procedure for these tasks; in this experiment the series of work consisted of an hour of GNSS observations, 30-minute horizontal angle observations, calculations, and preparation of the equipment.



175 Appendix A: Comparison of azimuths among different positioning mode

We introduce some results of the GNSS analysis by choosing different positioning modes. In Figure A1 the positions for different modes are plotted with colored dots on a horizontal plane. Those for Single and Differential GPS (DGPS) modes are relatively largely dispersed, whose ranges are 3 to 5 m and about 1 m, respectively. Figure A2 shows a zoomed-in view for Static and Kinematic modes. Their ranges are about 2 cm and below 1 cm for Kinematic and Static modes, respectively. Figure
180 A3 shows histograms of the azimuth angles θ_{GNSS} at the main absolute pillar at Kakioka (Point C in Figure 1) converted from equations (1) and (2). Here the horizontal angles, β_1 and β_2 , are fixed so that the histogram distributions concern only the GNSS observations. The solid black curves illustrate normal distributions representing the mean and standard deviations of the azimuth derived from the Polaris observations in 2024. Obviously, the azimuth derived with Static mode is determined much more precisely than that with the Polaris observation (see also Table 2). The precision provided by Kinematic mode is
185 comparable to the Polaris observation, whereas DGPS and Single modes are much inferior in the precision, and are not suitable as an alternative to the Polaris observation.

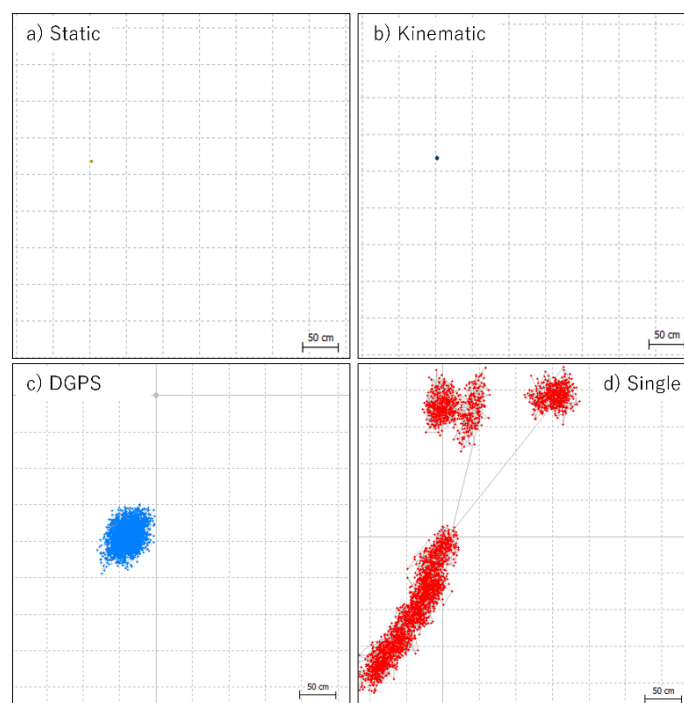


Figure A1: Distribution of the positions by different positioning modes.

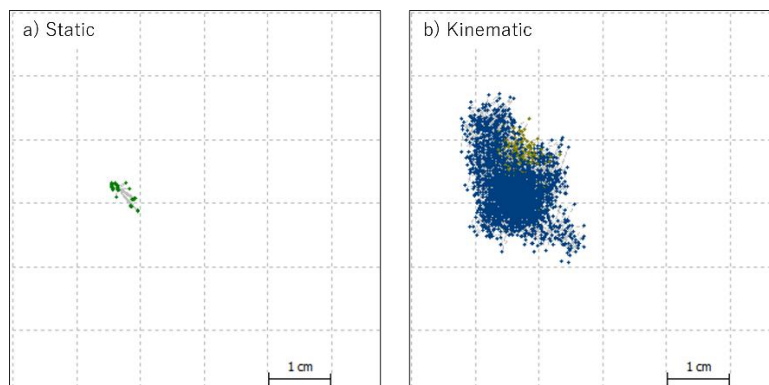


Figure A2: Zoom-in distribution on the positions for Static and Kinematic modes in the Figure A1.

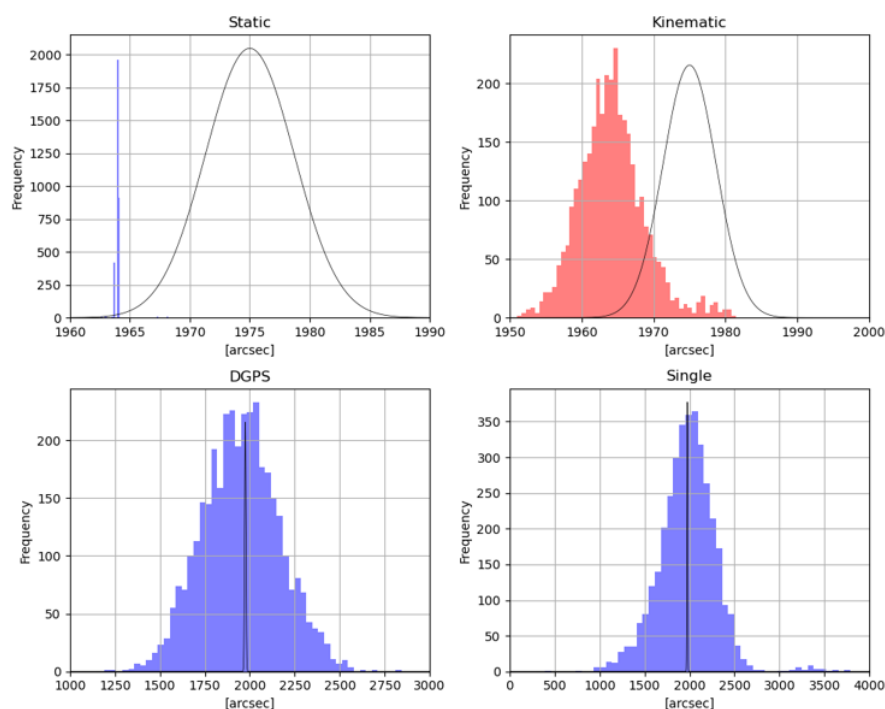


Figure A3: The histograms of the azimuth by GNSS and the normal distribution of the azimuth by Polaris observation (black line).

Acknowledgements

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