Flight and Orbital Mechanics

Lecture slides





Material for exam: this presentation (*i.e.*, no material from text book).

Illustration shows a 3-burn transfer. This can be the most efficient transfer from circular Low Earth Orbit (LEO) to Geostationary (GEO) orbit.



Introduction picture.







For LEO satellites, an eclipse may take about one-third of an orbital revolution. During this period there is no inflow of energy for the power subsystem, nor for the thermal control of the vehicle. Also, the Sun is not available as a point of reference for the attitude control system (if only for the fail-safe mode). The design of the satellite has to be such that this situation can be accommodated for.



The far majority of satellites orbit Earth in (near-)circular orbits. Parameters "Re" and "a" represent the Earth radius and the semi-major axis of the satellite orbit (for circular orbits: the orbit radius r), respectively. $T_{orbit} = 2\pi \sqrt{(a^3/\mu)}$.



For LEO satellites, eclipse length expressed in minutes is more-or-less constant (V_{circ} at 500 km altitude is 7.61 km/s, V_{circ} at 1500 km is 7.11 km/s). Consequences for the design of the (secondary) batteries.



Answers (TRY YOURSELF FIRST!!):

- a) $T_{orbit} = 6052.4$ s, or 100.87 min.
- b) $T_{eclipse} = 35.1 \text{ min}$
- c) a = 42164.14 km
- d) $T_{eclipse} = 69.4 \text{ min}$



The vector \mathbf{R}_{Θ} gives the position of the Sun w.r.t. the center of the Earth. The vector \mathbf{r} gives the position of the satellite w.r.t. the center of the Earth. The latter vector can be decomposed in components "d" (parallel to the direction towards the Sun) and "a" (perpendicular to the direction towards the Sun; not to be confused with the semi-major axis!). The angle Ψ is the angle between the direction to the Sun and the direction to the satellite.



Both conditions have to be satisfied!

Question: can we come up with expressions for the angle Ψ and the distance a?



Parameters " ξ " and " η " represent two position components of the satellite within its orbital plane: the first parameter is measured from the focal center along the major axis, in the direction of the pericenter (for which the true anomaly θ is equal to 0°), whereas the 2nd parameter is measured in the direction where θ is equal to 90°.

Parameter $p = a(1-e^2)$, "semi-latus rectum".



The parameters " l_1 " through " n_2 " together represent the coordinates transformation from this in-plane situation to a full 3-dimensional situation, and are dependent on the <u>orientation</u> of the satellite orbit only (and not so much its position within the orbital plane):

$$\begin{split} l_1 &= \cos(\Omega)\cos(\omega) - \sin(\Omega)\sin(\omega)\cos(i) \\ l_2 &= -\cos(\Omega)\sin(\omega) - \sin(\Omega)\cos(\omega)\cos(i) \\ m_1 &= \sin(\Omega)\cos(\omega) + \cos(\Omega)\sin(\omega)\cos(i) \\ m_2 &= -\sin(\Omega)\sin(\omega) + \cos(\Omega)\cos(\omega)\cos(i) \\ n_1 &= \sin(\omega)\sin(i) \\ n_2 &= \cos(\omega)\sin(i) \end{split}$$

So, the 3D position of a satellite in a Kepler orbit can be fully represented with a single time-dependent variable (*i.e.*, θ).

The position of the Sun can be obtained from an almanac (or a simple analytical model: a(nother) Kepler orbit if needed!).



The (big) "dot" in the first equation represents the inner product between two vectors. This inner product can be developed in two ways: (1) multiplication of vector elements (as shown on the previous sheet) and summation, or (2) multiplication of vector lengths and cosine of angle-in-between. Parameters " α bar" and " β bar" can be considered as constants for a given epoch (or, 1st-order approximation, during one complete revolution – see subsequent sheets).

The conditions for eclipse are directly developed form the 2 elementary conditions mentioned on sheet 10.



Parameter "p" represents the so-called semi-latus rectum: $p = a(1-e^2)$.

Equation after "so": combine expressions for $\sin\Psi$ and $\cos\Psi$ of previous sheet and re-arrange. Holds for condition of entering/leaving eclipse!

For a given epoch and satellite Kepler orbit, the shadow function S varies with true anomaly θ only. Solution?



Whether the satellite is in eclipse (Earth shadow) or not is now fully determined by 2 parameters: Ψ and S. The (requirement on the) shadow function S replaces the (requirement on) the distance "a".

To interpret the consequences for *e.g.* S<0 and S>0, consider the situation where Ψ =90° (*i.e.* we know for sure that the satellite must be in Sunlight): it can easily be derived (do!) that for that case S<0, so this apparently corresponds with the situation "in sunlight".



Sun is in direction (1,0,0). Legend: "i" is inclination, "O" is Ω (w.r.t. direction to Sun).



Answer: see previous sheets.





Answers (DID YOU TRY?):

See treatment and derivation on previous pages.



Scales and effects are exaggerated. Umbra is the situation when the satellite is in full shadow; in penumbra part of the sunlight can still hit the vehicle.

GEO satellite: the vehicle lacks an inflow of 1371 $W/m^2\,during\,120\,sec\ldots$



Can you verify these numbers?



Answers (TRY YOURSELF FIRST!!):

- a) $T_{\text{orbit}} = 6052.4 \text{ s, or } 100.87 \text{ min.}$
- b) $T_{eclipse} = 34.93 \text{ min}$
- c) $T_{eclipse} = 35.13 \text{ min}$
- d) Difference $T_{eclipse} = 0.20 \text{ min}$



Magnitude of effect on eclipse length is similar to that of penumbra.





So far, the occurrence of eclipse during the course of a single revolution of the satellite around Earth was investigated. How about the behaviour during its overall lifetime?

Mission design aspect: power supply, thermal control, attitude control, What can we expect during say 10 years?



Fundamental criterion: hiding behind Earth, yes/no?

Eclipse condition: projection of orbit perpendicular to direction to Sun is smaller than Earth radius. Being in front of Earth or behind it does not matter since the satellite will be in both positions during one revolution. In the illustration, the size of the orbit is too large to be in eclipse anywhere, but when the orbit size reduces it becomes a possibility. Assumption: circular orbit. Note that in this and subsequent sheets, parameter "a" represents the semi-major axis again. The components of the vector **n** are given in an equatorial reference frame (*i.e.*, z-axis points in the direction of the Earth's North pole). Check: $\cos(\beta_{sun})=\sin(\beta_{sun})$.



Eclipse condition: projection of orbit perpendicular to direction to Sun is smaller than Earth radius. Consider these 2 situations for a GEO satellite (*i.e.* at an altitude of 6 Earth radii), and the Sun at a declination of $+23.5^{\circ}$ (top plot; exaggerated angle...) or at $+2^{\circ}$.

In both plots, the orbital plane is perpendicular to the sheet, *i.e.* the satellite exits (or enters) the sheet at right angles.



Note: Sun-synchronous only says something about the (average) orientation of the orbital plane w.r.t. the direction to the Sun. It does NOT mean that the satellite is in full sunlight continuously!!!!





For sake of simplicity, assume e=0.



In this picture, the satellite orbital plane is at right angles with the sheet (so the satellite is entering the sheet at right angles, in this sketch (or leaving it, for that matter....)). So, the vector normal to the orbital plane lays within the sheet.

If we do not have a sun-synchronous orbit, the relative orientation of the Sun w.r.t. the orbital plane will have all possible directions over the course of years. Unless it is "under control" by the precession of Ω induced by the J₂-effect.

The angle β_{sun} was already defined on sheet 26.



For sun-synchronous orbits, we have a strict 1-on-1 relation between semi-major axis and inclination (assuming e=0) (cf. lecture hours 15+16).

The 2^{nd} equation holds for a given value of $\delta_{\text{sun}},$ of course.

The last equation corresponds with the requirement on sheets 10 and 26.



Requirement $a \times \sin\beta_{sun} > R_e$ satisfied for all 3 cases? Yes, for inclinations 101.5-115.4°.



Inclination -> semi-major axis -> altitude.

Nice idea, but quite a number of drawbacks... \rightarrow no practical application.

Van Allen Belts are regions in space with huge concentrations of (trapped) charged particles, causing fast degradation of instruments, solar cells, etcetera; they start at about 1000 km altitude.



Orbit transfers: *e.g.* a transfer from Low Earth Orbit (LEO) to Geostationary Orbit (GEO). Orbit maintenance: *e.g.* to compensate for atmospheric drag losses.



Note the **bold** notation when referring to vectors, and the plain notation when referring to scalar values. The big "dot" in the last equation represents taking the inner product of two vectors.

The two observations hold for the case when doing in-plane maneuvers.



So-called dog-leg maneuvers change the orientation of the velocity (and possibly also the magnitude).



 $V_{circ} = \sqrt{(\mu/a)}$ (where "a" is semi-major axis, not altitude!). The most efficient launch from Kennedy Space Center results in an orbit with an inclination of 28.5°. When going for a GEO (i=0°), a large ΔV is required no matter what. Translate into propellant mass with Tsiolkovsky's equation....

Kourou (+Ariane, or Soyuz) is a better choice (since it is located at 5°)!



Note: the target velocity V_f stretches all the way, from lower left to lower right! General definitions; impulsive shots. $\Delta \theta$ is the angle between V_i and V_f . A combined maneuver is more efficient than 2 separate ones.



General definitions; impulsive shots. The angle between V_i and V_f is equal to 28.5°. Additional parameter values: $\mu = 398600.4415 \text{ km}^3/\text{s}^2$; R_e = 6378.137 km.



General definitions; impulsive shots. The angle between V_i and V_f is equal to 28.5°. Additional parameter values: $\mu = 398600.4415 \text{ km}^3/\text{s}^2$; $R_e = 6378.137 \text{ km}$.



Answers (DID YOU TRY??):

- a) a = 42164.125 km
- b) $V_c = 3.075 \text{ km/s}$
- c) $\Delta V = 0.268 \text{ km/s}$



Concept of Hohmann orbit. Essential: touches initial and final orbits in tangential direction. Impulsive shots.

This plot sketches Hohmann transfers, both for low \rightarrow high (green velocity changes, 2x) and for high \rightarrow low (red, also 2 maneuvres).

It holds for transfer of orbits around Earth (since the ΔV 's directly translate into orbit changes). In the case of interplanetary missions, one would need to evaluate the effect of a ΔV in the pericenters of the departure and arrival hyperbola to the excess velocities.



Equations for Hohmann transfers around one and the same planet. Equations hold for transfer from low orbit to high orbit, but similar expressions exist for transfer in other direction. Note: circular initial and target orbits, so $r_1=a_1$ and $r_2=a_2$. Use the vis-viva equation (*i.e.*, the energy equation, re-arranged) to compute the velocities in pericenter and apocenter.



Equations for Hohmann transfers around 1 and the same planet. Additional parameter values: $\mu = 398600.4415 \text{ km}^3/\text{s}^2$; $R_e = 6378.137 \text{ km}$.



Equations for Hohmann transfers around 1 and the same planet. Additional parameter values: $\mu = 398600.4415 \text{ km}^3/\text{s}^2$; $R_e = 6378.137 \text{ km}$.



Answers (DID YOU TRY FIRST??):

- a) $V_{c.185} = 7.793 \text{ km/s}, V_{c.800} = 7.452 \text{ km/s}$
- b) a = 6870.5 km, e = 0.045
- c) $\Delta V_1 = 0.173 \text{ km/s}, \Delta V_2 = 0.169 \text{ km/s}, \Delta V_{\text{tot}} = 0.342 \text{ km/s}$
- d) 2834 s = 47.2 min

Maneu	ivers (cnt'd)				
LEO (at 250 km, i = 28.5°) to GEO: some options					
	approach	total ΔV [km/s]			
Entire plane Hohmann tra	change at 250 km followed by separate Insfer to GEO	7.730			
Hohmann tra separate plar	ansfer to GEO altitude followed by ne change	5.425			
Combined m	aneuver, entire plane change at perigee	6.483			
Combined m	aneuver, entire plane change at apogee	4.273			
Combined m 24.5° plane d	aneuver, 4° plane change at perigee, change at apogee	4.265			
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Real mission operations: a good understanding of what's ongoing is crucial for the lifetime of the mission (in terms of ΔV budget).

Translate these ΔV values to propellant mass (using Tsiolkovsky's equation) and you'll understand why you're either employee of the year or you find yourself fired.....



Answers (DID YOU TRY??):

- a) $V_{c 185} = 7.793 \text{ km/s}, V_{c 400} = 7.669 \text{ km/s}$
- b) $\Delta V_{\text{Hohmann}} = 0.125 \text{ km/s}$
- c) $\Delta V_{\text{dogleg}} = 3.652 \text{ km/s}$
- d) $\Delta V_{total} = 3.777 \text{ km/s}$
- e) $\Delta V_{\text{total}} = 0.063 + 3.579 = 3.579 \text{ km/s}$



The plane change is being done at a very high altitude, where the in-plane velocity of the vehicle is very modest. Takes more (in-plane) energy to arrive at this point, though. Only interesting when $r_{target}/r_{initial} > 11$.



Consider the Hohmann trajectory as the reference; can we do faster? More efficient?

Γ	Maneuvers (cnt'd)				(B) Holmann Training (B) Holma	nster
	transfer type	orbit type	typical acceleration	Δ٧	transfer time	
	high-energy	elliptic or hyperbolic	10 g	> Hohmann	< Hohmann	
	Hohmann	elliptic	1-5 g	Hohmann	Hohmann	
	low-thrust chemical	Hohmann segments	0.02-0.5 g	< Hohmann	6-8 * Hohmann	
	electric prop.	spiral transfer	0.0001-0.001 g	diff. between V _{circ}	60-120 * Hohmann	
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Design: trade time vs. propellant mass (or: payload mass).



The picture shows the phase around the Moon, where the orbit was lowered and made less eccentric.

Maneuvers (cnt'd)				
Can we do better (cnt'd)?				
3) Use alternative techniques for out-of-plane transfer				
me	thod	mechanism		
ΔV at lowest v	elocity	small velocity is easier to change		
combine ∆V w	ith orbit raising	vector sum is smaller than sum of compo	onents	
3-burn transfe	r	use intermediate high altitude for ΔV and lower	then	
differential not	de rotation	natural mechanism (J_2) for plane change: $f(\Delta a,i)$		
aero-assist		aerodynamic forces cause plane change		
planetary fly-b	<i>Y</i>	gravity pull of planet causes plane chang	e	
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Options in general, and (some) for interplanetary flight only.



The interplanetary orbit went from $i=0^{\circ}$ to $i=80.2^{\circ}$ because of the 3-dimensional swingby (a.k.a. gravity-assist, slingshot, flyby) at Jupiter. An impulsive maneuver with traditional rocket engines would have cost us an impossible 42 km/s.



De-orbit is costing energy. Here, you do only the first burn of a Hohmann transfer. How much do you want to spend, and how rapidly does your satellite burn up? Trade...



Use Tsiolkovsky's equation to get propellant mass.



ANSWERS: (DID YOU TRY??)

- a) $\Delta V = 167.3 \text{ m/s}$
- b) $M_{prop} = 55.3 \text{ kg}$
- c) Lifetime = $-H/(\Delta a_{2\pi})$ (cf. topic "Perturbations") ~ 6,647,000 revs ~ 475,380 days ~ 1301 yrs. This estimate is based on drag conditions at an altitude of 900 km; with the pericenter of the orbit at 800 km and the apocenter at 1500 km, drag shows a big variation throughout a single revolution around Earth. Representative (constant) drag conditions which can be applied along the entire orbit (and which should be used in the computation of $\Delta a_{2\pi}$ and the selection of density scale height H) should hold at an altitude somewhere in between these 2 extremes. But: since atmospheric density behaves in an exponential way, it's not so much the direct average altitude ((1500+800)/2=1150km) where one finds the average drag, but somewhere below. Assume here that 900 km is reasonable.
- d) $\Delta V = 245.2 \text{ m/s}; M_{\text{prop}} = 79.9 \text{ kg};$ lifetime ~ 111,000 revs ~ 7462 days ~ 20.4 yrs (based on drag conditions at a representative altitude of 600 km)

Maneuvers (cnt'd)

Question 8 (cnt'd):

Effect of atmospheric drag on semi-major axis after 1 revolution, and on lifetime:

$$\Delta a_{2\pi} = -2\pi (C_D A/m) \rho a^2$$
 [m]

$$L = -H / \Delta a_{2\pi} \qquad [rev]$$

$$C_{\rm D} = 2.2$$

$$\mathbf{A} = 10 \ \mathbf{m}^2$$

m = 1000 kg

Altitude Atmospheric Density scale [km] density [kg/m³] height [km] 4.9×10^{-13} 500 64.5 1.0×10^{-13} 600 74.8 2.7×10^{-14} 700 99.3 9.6×10^{-15} 800 151 4.7×10^{-15} 900 226 2.8×10^{-15} 296 1000 1.1×10^{-15} 1250 408 1500 5.2×10^{-16} 516

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ANSWERS: (DID YOU TRY??)

- a) $a_{GEO} = 42163 \text{ km}$
- b) $\Delta V = 4.54 + 4.53 = 9.07 \text{ m/s}$
- c) Tsiolkovsky: $m_{prop} = 3.1 \text{ kg}$
- d) $\Delta V = 9.04 + 9.02 = 18.06 \text{ m/s}; \text{ m}_{\text{prop}} = 6.2 \text{ kg}$



Some space missions require guaranteed 100% continuity (e.g.

telecommunication services, from GEO) -> a spare vehicle is available in the proper orbit already, but not at the location of the satellite that fails. Orbits with different semi-major axes will show a different orbital period -> can be used to drift in-plane w.r.t. original position.



The red box represents a satellite in the red orbit; the blue dot is a satellite in the blue orbit. The green circle represents Earth. Picture is not to scale. Because of the difference in orbital period, the blue satellite "overtakes" the red one.

So, if satellite is originally in red orbit, but temporarily switches to the blue orbit, it will alter its position w.r.t. the position it would have if it were to remain in the red orbit.



Parameter "n_{org}" is mean motion (in original orbit; $n_{org} = \sqrt{(\mu/a^3) [rad/s]}$).

"Trial and error": try various altitudes for pericenter altitude of temporary orbit, and see what you end up with (transfer times, total ΔV).



Parameters "a" and "T" refer to original orbit (*i.e.*, not the transfer orbit).

Note 1: the first equation linearizes the effect on orbital period of a small change in semi-major axis.

Note 2 : $n_{org}T = 2\pi$, so $n_{org} = 2\pi/T$ (easier here than the standard $n_{org} = \sqrt{(\mu/a^3)}$). Note 3: $T_{total} = N \times T$ of course.



Illustration: $2a_T = a + a + \Delta a \rightarrow a_T = a + \Delta a/2$. $r_1 = a$. Velocity change for entering transfer orbit is identical to first step in Hohmann transfer (cf. sheets 43,44). Return from transfer orbit to original circular orbit requires exactly the same ΔV . Velocity in pericenter follows from vis-viva equation.



Full linearization for small changes in orbits (to save propellant).

Parameter "a" refers to original orbit; parameter " a_T " refers to the transfer orbit. The terms between brackets are expanded with a Taylor series, with first 2 terms only $(1+\epsilon)^k \sim 1+k\epsilon + O(\epsilon^2)$ for $\epsilon <<1$.

The maneuver is given twice, so the value for ΔV here is the total amount required. The last equation follows from the equations of a Hohmann transfer.

Ма	Maneuvers (cnt'd)				
Example option 2: reposition GEO satellite 60° further in orbit. First approach: within 3 days, 2 nd approach: within 30 days.					
		3 days	30 days		
	T [s] 86164		164		
	a [km]	42163			
	T _{total} [s]	259,200	2592,000		
	Δa [km]	1557.3	155.7		
	V _c [km/s]	3.075			
	V _p [km/s]	3.102	3.078		
	ΔV _{tot} [km/s]	0.054	0.006		
	M _{prop} [kg]	37.0	4.1		
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Compare results with required ΔV to transfer to graveyard orbit, or ΔV to compensate for 3rd-body perturbations from Sun and Moon (total 51 m/s/yr).

Computation propellant mass: Tsiolkovsky, with dry mass satellite assumed to be 2000 kg and $I_{\rm sp}$ = 300 sec.



Answers: (DID YOU TRY??)

2 days: $\Delta a = 735.8 \text{ km}$, $\Delta V = 53.8 \text{ m/s}$, $m_{prop} = 9.2 \text{ kg}$ 5 days: $\Delta a = 294.3 \text{ km}$, $\Delta V = 21.5 \text{ m/s}$, $m_{prop} = 3.7 \text{ kg}$ 10 days: $\Delta a = 147.2 \text{ km}$, $\Delta V = 10.8 \text{ m/s}$, $m_{prop} = 1.8 \text{ kg}$ 30 days: $\Delta a = 49.1 \text{ km}$, $\Delta V = 3.6 \text{ m/s}$, $m_{prop} = 0.6 \text{ kg}$ 60 days: $\Delta a = 24.5 \text{ km}$, $\Delta V = 1.8 \text{ m/s}$, $m_{prop} = 0.3 \text{ kg}$