

## A STUDY ON ORBITS OF ARTIFICIAL SATELLITES

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### I. INTRODUCTION

Technological developments in the fields of rocket propulsion and guidance have made possible the launching of artificial satellites into one of the many possible space orbits. Once a body has been put into an orbit beyond the influence of the atmosphere, its total energy remains constant and equal to that at rocket burnout. The total energy establishes the class of orbit, which may vary from an ellipse to a hyperbola, the circle and the parabola being limiting cases. However, an infinite number of orbits of the same class are possible for a given total energy at a specified point in space, and the heading angle of the velocity vector at rocket burnout must specify the particular orbit from the many possible orbits passing through this point.

### II. GENERAL MOTION UNDER AN INVERSE SQUARE CENTRAL FORCE

We will assume that the satellite is launched to a sufficient height beyond the influence of the atmosphere. The equations of motion are then<sup>1,2</sup>.

Radial force

$$\ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2 = -\frac{\mu}{r^2} \quad (1)$$

Force normal to radius

$$r\ddot{\theta} + 2\dot{r}\dot{\theta} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{d}{dt}(r^2\dot{\theta}) = 0 \quad (2)$$

Wherein  $r$  is distance from centre of Earth,  $\theta$  is angle or from reference  $r_1$ ,  $\mu = GM = g_0 R^2$ . As a consequence of equation (2) we arrive at the result:

$$r^2\dot{\theta} = \lambda \quad (3)$$

where  $\lambda$  is a constant equal to twice the area swept out by the radial line per unit of time.

By the substitution of  $r = \frac{1}{u}$ , the independent variable  $t$  is changed to the independent variable  $\theta$ , and equation (1) becomes:

$$\frac{d^2u}{d\theta^2} + u = \frac{\mu}{\lambda^2} \quad (4)$$

with the general solution,

$$u = \frac{\mu}{\lambda^2} + C \cos(\theta - \theta_1) \quad (5)$$

We can next consider the energy relationship per unit mass. The kinetic energy per unit mass is

$$T = \frac{1}{2} \nu^2 = \frac{1}{2} [\dot{r} + (r\dot{\theta})^2] = \frac{\lambda^2}{2} \left[ \left( \frac{du}{d\theta} \right)^2 + u^2 \right] \quad (6)$$

Where  $\nu$  is velocity, with no dissipation, the sum of the kinetic and potential energies per unit mass is a constant equal to the total energy per unit mass at burnout.

$$E = T + V \quad (7)$$

Where T, V is kinetic and potential energy per unit mass respectively. Equation (6) can now be written as

$$\left( \frac{du}{d\theta} \right)^2 + u^2 = \frac{2(E - V)}{\lambda^2} \quad (8)$$

which is the energy equation accompanying equation (4).

For the launching of satellites, the total energy with respect to the Earth's surface is of interest, so that we will take the potential energy to be zero at the Earth's surface.

$$V = \int_r^R \frac{\mu}{r^2} dr = -\frac{\mu}{R} \left( 1 - \frac{R}{r} \right) = \frac{\mu}{R} (1 - Ru) \quad (9)$$

Where R is radius of Earth. Substituting equations (5) and (9) into equation (8), the constant C can be evaluated<sup>3</sup> as

$$C^2 = \left( \frac{\mu}{\lambda^2} \right)^2 \left[ 1 + \frac{2E\lambda^2}{\mu^2} - \frac{2\lambda^2}{\mu R} \right] \quad (10)$$

and by rotating the base line of  $\theta=0$  to perigee (point of minimum distance from the origin of  $r$ ), equation (5) can be put in the final form,

$$u = \frac{1}{r} = \frac{\mu}{\lambda^2} (1 + e \cos \theta) \quad (11)$$

where eccentricity  $e$  is

$$e = \sqrt{1 + \frac{2E\lambda^2}{\mu^2} - \frac{2\lambda^2}{\mu R}} \quad (12)$$

This is the most general solution for the inverse square central force problem, and the class of orbit is established by the value of  $e$  as follows:

- Hyperbola if  $e > 1$
- Parbola if  $e = 1$
- Ellipse if  $e < 1$ , with perigee corresponding to  $\theta = 0$
- Circle if  $e = 0$
- Ellipse if  $e < 0$ , with apogee corresponding to  $\theta = 0$



The value of  $e$  is determined by the initial conditions at rocket burnout, indicated by the subscript 0, and we will examine the problem without placing restrictions on  $e$ .

Letting  $r_1$  be the perigee distance, equation (11) becomes

$$u = \frac{1+e \cos \theta}{r_1(1+e)} \tag{13}$$

$$\frac{\lambda^2}{\mu} = r_1(1+e) \tag{14}$$

From the kinetic energy and total energy, two additional equations can be obtained and expressed in non-dimensional form:

$$\left(\frac{r\nu^2}{\mu}\right) = 2 - \frac{r}{r_1}(1-e) \tag{15}$$

$$\left(\frac{ER}{\mu}\right) = 1 - \frac{R}{2r} \left[2 - \left(\frac{r\nu^2}{\mu}\right)\right] \tag{16}$$

### III. INITIAL CONDITIONS

With these equations we will specify the initial values as burnout, which are shown in Fig. 1.

$$\begin{aligned} r &= r_0 & \beta &= \beta_0 \\ \nu &= \nu_0 & \theta &= \theta_0 \end{aligned}$$



Fig. 1. Initial conditions.

The components of the initial velocity<sup>4</sup> are:

$$\begin{aligned} \nu_0 \cos \beta_0 &= r_0 \dot{\theta}_0 = \frac{\lambda}{r_0} \\ \nu_0 \sin \beta_0 &= \dot{r}_0 = -\lambda \left(\frac{du}{d\theta}\right)_{\theta=\theta_0} = \frac{\mu e \sin \theta_0}{\nu_0 r_0 \cos \beta_0} \end{aligned}$$

From equation (11) we have at launch:

$$\frac{1}{r_0} = \frac{\mu(1+e \cos \theta_0)}{\nu_0^2 r_0^2 \cos \beta_0}$$

Solving for  $e \sin \theta_0$  and  $e \cos \theta_0$  and dividing, the angular position from perigee is found:

$$\tan \theta_0 = \frac{\left(\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu}\right) \sin \beta_0 \cos \beta_0}{\left(\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu}\right) \cos^2 \beta_0 - 1} \tag{17}$$

Since the value of E is constant after burnout, equation (16) can now be written as:

$$\left(\frac{ER}{\mu}\right) = 1 - \frac{R}{2r_0} \left[ 2 - \left(\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu}\right) \right] \tag{18}$$

From equations (12), (18), and  $\lambda = r_0 v_0 \cos \beta_0$ , the quantity  $e$  is found:

$$e^2 = \left[ \left(\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu}\right) - 1 \right]^2 \cos^2 \beta_0 + \sin^2 \beta_0 \tag{19}$$

Equations (17) and (19) are sufficient to completely establish the orbit for any initial condition, and equation (18) indicates the required energy.

#### IV. INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

##### 1. Special Case $\beta_0 = 0$

We will first examine the special case where the satellite is launched with a zero heading angle,  $\beta_0 = 0$ . From equation (17) it is evident that  $\theta_0 = 0$ , so that  $r_0 = r_1$ . Equation (15) now becomes:

$$e = \left(\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu}\right) - 1 \tag{15*}$$

where the (\*) is used for the special case  $\beta_0 = 0$ , and (\*\*) for the further restricted case of circular orbit. The quantity  $e$  and the total energy from equation (18) are plotted in Fig. 2 and 3, which clearly classify the type of orbit.

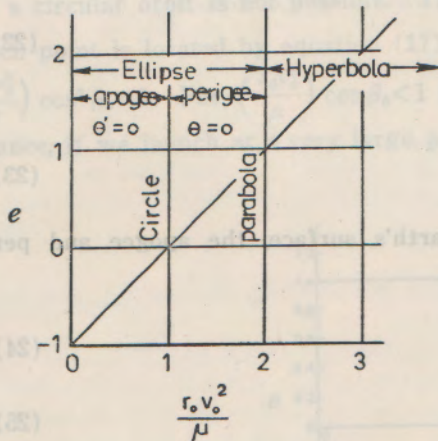


Fig. 2.

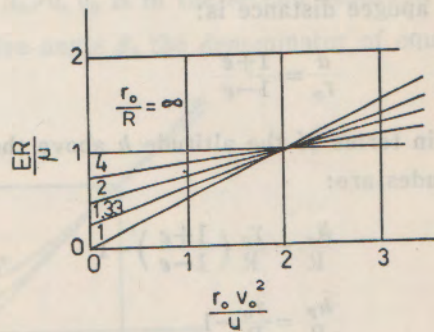


Fig. 3.

If we are able to launch a satellite with  $\beta_0 = 0$  at a given value of  $r_0/R$ , as shown in Fig. 4, we would get a circular orbit ( $e = 0$ ) only when  $r_0 v_0^2 / \mu = 1$ . The corresponding total energy is then:



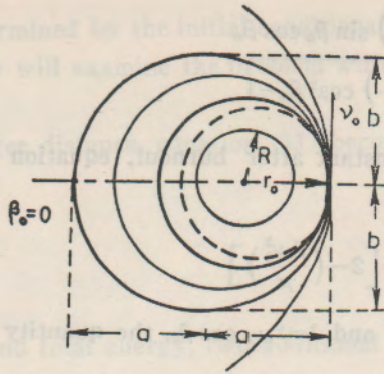


Fig. 4.

$$\left(\frac{ER}{\mu}\right) = 1 - \frac{R}{2r_0} \quad (18^{**})$$

If  $v_0$  is then increased so that  $\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu} > 1$ , the orbit will be an ellipse with  $e$  and  $ER/\mu$  as determined from equations (15\*) and (18) or from Fig. 2 and 3. For values of  $\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu} > 2$  the orbit will become a hyperbola, and the satellite will escape from the Earth, never to return. Thus  $\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu} = 2$  corresponds to the velocity of escape at height  $r_0 = R + h$

$$v_e = \sqrt{\frac{2\mu}{r_0}} = R \sqrt{\frac{2g_0}{r_0}} \quad (20)$$

Considering the geometry of the elliptic orbit, the semimajor and semi-minor axes are:

$$\text{semi-major } \frac{a}{r_0} = \frac{1}{1-e} \quad (21)$$

$$\text{semi-minor } \frac{b}{r_0} = \sqrt{\frac{1+e}{1-e}} \quad (22)$$

The apogee distance is:

$$\frac{a}{r_0} = \frac{1+e}{1-e} \quad (23)$$

and in terms of the altitude  $h$  above the Earth's surface, the apogee and perigee altitudes are:

$$\frac{h_a}{R} = \frac{r_0}{R} \left( \frac{1+e}{1-e} \right) - 1 \quad (24)$$

$$\frac{h_p}{R} = \frac{r_0}{R} - 1 \quad (25)$$

Numerical values for a few values of  $e$  are given in Table to illustrate that the elliptic orbits are nearly circular. The ratio of apogee to perigee altitudes, however, can be quite large. For an eccentricity of 0.20, this ratio is 6.50 when the launch height is  $\frac{r_0}{R} = 1.10$ , or approximately 400 miles above the Earth's surface,

It is interesting to note that the ratio of the semi-major to semi-minor axes is only 1.02, and that these results are attained by an increase of launching speed of only 9.6% above that of the circular orbit speed.

Table for Calculation of Launching Altitude  $\frac{r_0}{R} = 1.10$

$e$	$\frac{1+e}{1-e}$	$\frac{h_a}{h_p}$	$\frac{a}{b}$	$\frac{\gamma_0 v_0^2}{\mu}$	$\left(\frac{\text{Elliptic Speed}}{\text{Circular Speed}}\right)$ at launch
0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
0.05	1.105	2.15	1.00+	1.05	1.025
0.10	1.22	3.40	1.007	1.10	1.05
0.20	1.50	6.50	1.02	1.20	1.096

We can next investigate the case  $\frac{\gamma_0 v_0^2}{\mu} < 1.0$ . Examination of equation (11) with negative  $e$  shows that we have an ellipse with the starting point corresponding to apogee, an perigee is at  $\theta = 180^\circ$ . The speed is then not sufficient to balance the attractive force of the Earth, and the satellite distance  $r$  will diminish from its initial value  $r$ . With negative  $e$ , the centre of the allipse falls between the origin and the launching point. It is evident from the previous set of numbers that the satellite will fall into a region when atmospheric drag becomes important, even for a small negative  $e$ .

2. General Case  $\beta_0 \neq 0$

We now examine the more general case where the heading angle at launch is not zero. For any value of  $\frac{\gamma_0 v_0^2}{\mu}$  and, the quantity  $e$  is established from Eq. (19) which is plotted in Fig. 5. It is evident that if  $\beta_0 \neq 0$   $e$  can never become zero, so that a circular orbit is not possible. The perigee position  $\theta_0$  with respect to the launch point is located by equation (17). The equation indicates that  $\theta_0$  is  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  when  $\left(\frac{\gamma_0 v_0^2}{\mu}\right) \cos^2 \beta_0 = 1$ . For  $\left(\frac{\gamma_0 v_0^2}{\mu}\right) \cos \beta_0 < 1$  and  $\beta_0 > 0$ ,  $\theta_0$  is in the second quadrant. For instance, if we launch at a very large positive angle  $\beta_0$  the denominator of equation

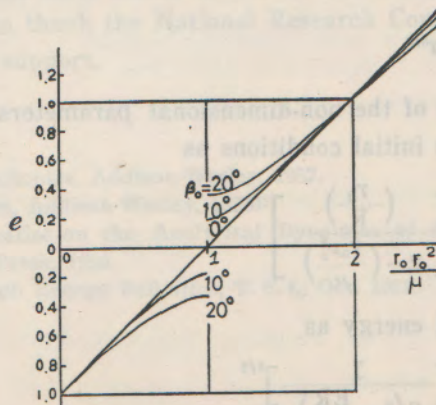


Fig. 5.



(17) is nearly  $-1$ , so that  $\tan \theta_0$  approaches zero in the second quadrant, or  $\theta_0$  is slightly under  $180^\circ$ , and we have a very slender ellipse by equation (19).

To determine the effect of  $\beta_0$  alone, we might take a case where the speed at launch is equal to that of the circular orbit,  $\left(\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu}\right) = 1$ , and vary  $\beta_0$ . The total energy  $\frac{ER}{\mu}$  depends only on  $\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu}$  and  $\frac{r_0}{R}$ , so that it will be the same for all orbits passing through the launch point with the same speed. For  $\beta_0 = 0$  and  $\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu} = 1$ , we have a circle and  $\theta_0$  has no significance. For very small angle  $\beta_0$ , and  $\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu} = 1$ , equation (17) can be written as:

$$\tan \theta_0 \cong -\frac{1}{\beta_0} \tag{26}$$

therefore we find  $\theta_0$  proceeding from  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  to  $\pi$  as  $\beta_0$  increases. If  $\beta_0$  is negative,  $\theta_0$  proceeds from  $\frac{3\pi}{2}$  to  $2\pi$ .

If we next hold  $\beta_0$  at some fixed positive value and increase  $\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu}$ , we would find  $e$  increasing and  $\theta_0$  increasing from some value near  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  in the first quadrant when  $\left(\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu}\right) \cos^2 \beta_0 > 1$ , to  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  at  $\left(\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu}\right) \cos^2 \beta_0 = 1$ , and into the second quadrant for  $\left(\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu}\right) \cos^2 \beta_0 < 1$ .

When  $r_0 v_0^2 = 2$ ,  $e = 1$ , and we have a parabola regardless of the value of  $\beta_0$ . The total energy is then  $\frac{ER}{\mu} = 1$ , and the reference angle  $\theta_0$  starts at 0 for small  $\beta_0$  and increases to  $90^\circ$  when  $\cos^2 \beta_0 = \frac{1}{2}$  or  $\beta_0 = 45^\circ$ . Further increase in  $\beta_0$  shifts  $\theta_0$  into the second quadrant.

For  $\left(\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu}\right) > 2$ , similar conclusions hold, except that the orbit is now a hyperbola for all values of  $\beta_0$ , which can only change the reference angle  $\theta_0$ .

### V. PERIOD OF CLOSED ORBITS

For closed orbits, ellipses or circles, the period of the satellite is a quantity which can be readily measured. It can be found from the areal rate as

$$\tau = \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{\mu}} a^{3/2} \tag{26}$$

Substituting  $a$  in terms of the non-dimensional parameters, the period can be expressed in terms of the initial conditions as

$$\tau = \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{\frac{g_0}{R}}} \left[ \frac{\left(\frac{r_0}{R}\right)}{2 - \left(\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu}\right)} \right]^{3/2} \tag{27}$$

or in terms of the total energy as

$$\tau = \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{\frac{g_0}{R}}} \left[ \frac{1}{2\left(1 - \frac{ER}{\mu}\right)} \right]^{3/2} \tag{28}$$

where  $g_0$  is the acceleration of gravity at Earth's surface,  $h=0$ . Thus we find that the period depends only on the total energy, and all orbits passing through a given point with the same velocity will have the same period, regardless of the heading angle.

## VI. CONCLUSIONS

- (1) The orbits of artificial satellites are specified by three non-dimensional parameters at rocket burnout  $\frac{r_0}{R}$ ,  $\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu}$  and  $\beta_0$ .
- (2) A circular orbit is possible only under the condition  $\beta_0=0$  and  $\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu}=1$  and the required energy is given by equation (18\*\*).
- (3) With  $\beta_0=0$  and  $\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu} \neq 1$ , we have the following orbits
  - (a) Ellipse with launch point corresponding to apogee if  $0 < \left(\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu}\right) > 1$ .
  - (b) Ellipse with launch point corresponding to perigee if  $1 < \left(\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu}\right) < 2$ .
  - (c) Parabola with launch point corresponding to perigee if  $\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu} = 2$ .
  - (d) Hyperbola with launch point corresponding to perigee if  $\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu} > 2$ .
 Corresponding values of  $e$  are found from Eq. (15\*).
- (4) For the general case  $\beta_0 \neq 0$ , the quantity  $e$  and the perigee position with respect to the launch point are established from equation (19) and (17) respectively, and the orbits are
  - (a) Ellipses for  $0 < \left(\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu}\right) < 2$ .
  - (b) Parabola for  $\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu} = 0$ .
  - (c) Hyperbola for  $\frac{r_0 v_0^2}{\mu} > 2$ .
- (5) For the case  $\beta_0=0$ , the ratio of apogee to perigee heights above Earth surface may deviate greatly from unity, although the orbits are nearly circular.
- (6) When  $\beta_0 \neq 0$  elliptic orbits of large eccentricity are possible for large  $\beta_0$ .

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