Workbook 2 Hand-in

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1	Ex 8: Transfer Orbit	
f	mport matplotlib.pyplot as plt rom math import pi rom space_base import GravBody, Probe rom numpy import linspace, sqrt, pi, cos, sin	
G	# Define constants E = 6.67e-11 # Gravitational constant Sun = GravBody(name="Sun", mass=1_988_500e24, radius=695_700e3) # Sun as anumobject with mass and radius	
	t Define conversion function lef UA_to_meters(UA): return UA * 1.496e11	

We must first calculate the Homman transfer orbit by using the perihelion and the aphelion constraint we have. Using the following equations:

$$a = \frac{r_{perihelion} + r_{aphelion}}{2}$$

$$e = \frac{r_{perihelion} - r_{aphelion}}{r_{perihelion} + r_{aphelion}}$$

```
[2]: r_per = UA_to_meters(1) # Perihelion distance = Earth-Sun distance
r_aph = UA_to_meters(1.524) # Aphelion distance = Mars-Sun distance
a = (r_per + r_aph) / 2 # Semi-major axis
a / 1.496e11 # Semi-major axis in UA
```

[2]: 1.262

[3]: 0.2076069730586371

We could calculate the velocity at a given coordinate using the orbital energy formula:

$$-\frac{GM_{sun}}{2a} = \frac{1}{2}V^2 - \frac{GM_{sun}}{r}$$

$$V = \sqrt{GM_{sun}(\frac{2}{r} - \frac{1}{a})}$$

[4]: 32.72071038681002

The full period of an elliptical orbit can be deduced from Kepler's third law of planetary motion, which gives us this:

$$P = \sqrt{\frac{4\pi^2}{GM_{sun}}a^3}$$

```
[5]: period = sqrt(4 * pi**2 * a**3 / (G * sun.mass)) # Orbital period period / (24 * 3600) # Orbital period in days
```

[5]: 517.9965102594434

Here, we calculate the trajectory of the spacecraft with the Sun as the primary interaction body.

```
[6]: def probeqns(_, posvel):
    r = sqrt(posvel[0] ** 2 + posvel[1] ** 2)
    f = -G * sun.mass / r ** 3
    gravity_force = f * posvel[0:2]
    axy = gravity_force

return posvel[2], posvel[3], axy[0], axy[1]
```

We can then simulate the probe as usual.

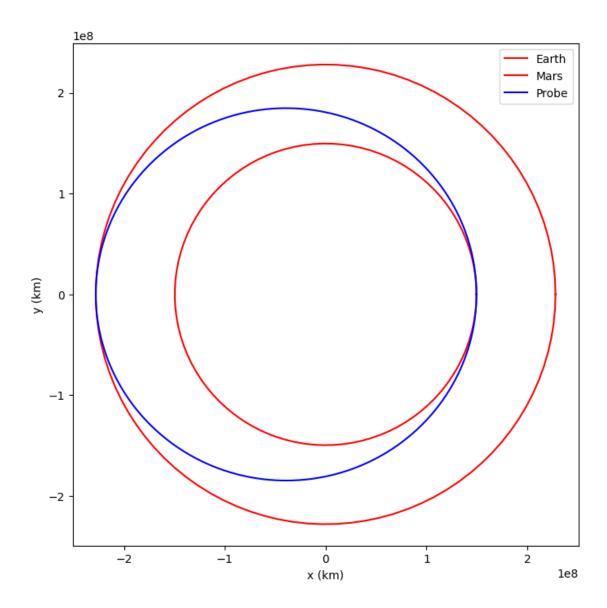
```
[7]: xy0 = [r_per, 0] # start position

vxy0 = [0, v_per] # start vertical speed

probe = Probe(probeqns, period, period / 3600, x0=xy0[0], vx0=vxy0[0],

y0=xy0[1], vy0=vxy0[1], event=r_per) # probe as an object

t, posvel = probe.odesolve() # solve the differential equations
```



We check that the constraints are met, pherihelion and aphelion equal to 1UA and 1.524UA respectively.

```
[9]: plt.figure(figsize=(8, 8)) # create figure, figsize can be changed as preferred r = sqrt(posvel[:, 0] ** 2 + posvel[:, 1] ** 2) / 1.496e11 # distance from the Sun in UA

print(f"Minimum distance : {min(r)}UA & Maximum distance : {max(r)}UA")

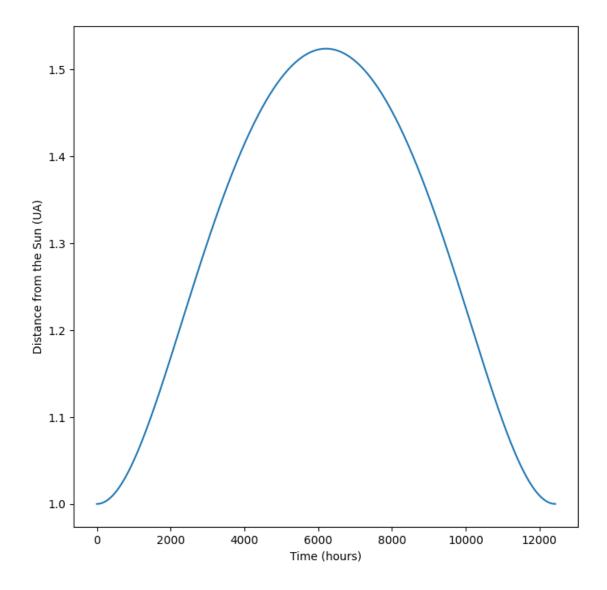
plt.plot(t / 3600, r)

plt.xlabel('Time (hours)')

plt.ylabel('Distance from the Sun (UA)')

plt.show()
```

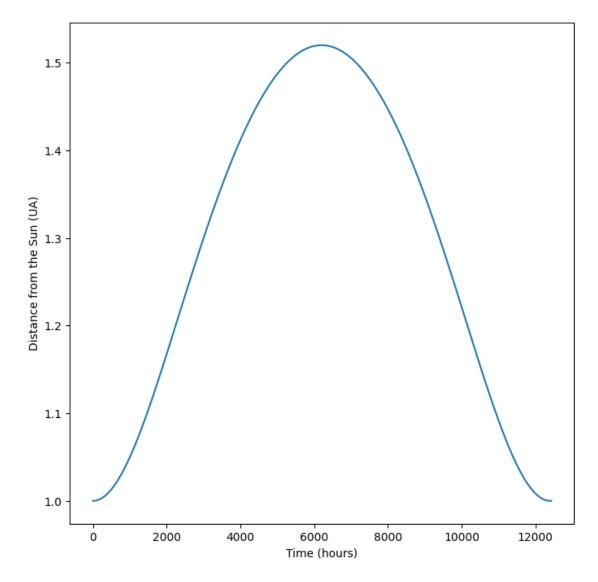
Minimum distance: 1.0UA & Maximum distance: 1.5240001451531557UA



By reducing the initial velocity to 99.95% of the required velocity to reach Mars, we are quite far from the planet in absolute terms.

```
plt.plot(t / 3600, r)
plt.xlabel('Time (hours)')
plt.ylabel('Distance from the Sun (UA)')
plt.show()
```

Minimum distance: 1.0UA & Maximum distance: 1.5201603801771235UA



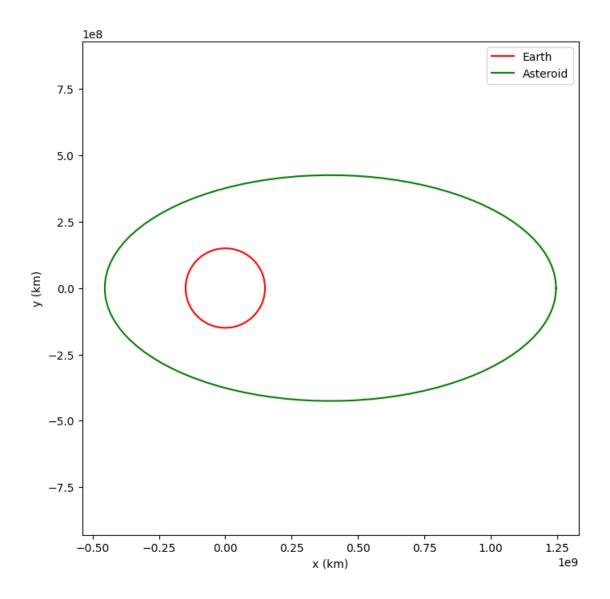
```
[11]: UA_to_meters(1.524 - max(r)) / 1e3 # Distance from Mars in km
```

[11]: 574407.1255023251

1.1 Asteroid $2013LA_2$ analyze

Now we will study the transfer from Earth to a steroid $2013LA_2.$

```
[12]: ast_e = 0.4656 # Eccentricity of asteroid
      ast_a = UA_to_meters(5.6841) # Semi-major axis of asteroid
      ast_per = ast_a * (1 - ast_e) # Perihelion distance of asteroid
      ast_aph = ast_a * (1 + ast_e) # Aphelion distance of asteroid
[13]: ast per / 1e3 # Perihelion distance of asteroid in km
[13]: 454422422.784
[14]: ast_aph / 1e3 # Aphelion distance of asteroid in km
[14]: 1246260297.216
[15]: plt.figure(figsize=(8, 8)) # create figure, figsize can be changed as preferred
      # Plotting Earth's orbit
      uang = linspace(0, 2 * pi, 100)
      x = (UA_to_meters(1) / 1e3) * cos(uang)
      y = (UA_to_meters(1) / 1e3) * sin(uang)
      plt.plot(x, y, color='red')
      # Plotting Asteroid's orbit
      u=(ast_a - ast_per) / 1e3
      v=0
      a=ast_a / 1e3
      b=a / 2
      t = linspace(0, 2*pi, 100)
      x = u+a*cos(t)
      y = v+b*sin(t)
      plt.plot(x, y, color='green')
      plt.xlabel('x (km)')
      plt.ylabel('y (km)')
      plt.axis('equal')
      plt.legend(['Earth', 'Asteroid'])
      plt.show() # make plot appear
```



1.1.1 Least transit time

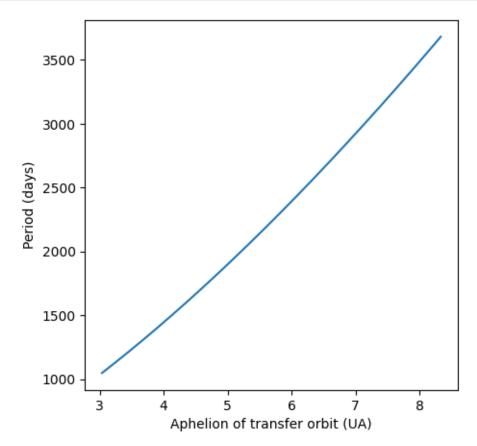
First, let's find the transfer that will take the least time. Looking at the graph above, we can think that this orbit will be from the Earth's orbit to the asteroid's perihelion, as this is the closest point the asteroid can get.

We can confirm this by analysing the period formula: $P = \sqrt{\frac{4\pi^2}{GM_{sun}}a^3}$ with $a = \frac{r_{perihelion} + r_{aphelion}}{2}$

```
[16]: ast_alts = linspace(ast_per, ast_aph, 10000)
a = (ast_alts + UA_to_meters(1)) / 2

plt.figure(figsize=(5, 5)) # create figure, figsize can be changed as preferred
p = sqrt((4 * pi**2 * a**3)/(G * sun.mass))
```

```
plt.plot(ast_alts / 1.496e11, p / (24*3600))
plt.xlabel('Aphelion of transfer orbit (UA)')
plt.ylabel('Period (days)')
plt.show()
```



As we can see the further the aphelion the longer the orbital period, so for this transfer to be the fastest we will set our perihelion to the radius of the Earth's orbit and the aphelion to the asteroid's perihelion.

```
[17]: r_per = UA_to_meters(1) # Perihelion distance = Earth-Sun distance
r_aph = ast_per # Aphelion distance = Asteroid Perihelion distance
a = (r_per + r_aph) / 2 # Semi-major axis
a / 1.496e11 # Semi-major axis in UA
```

[17]: 2.01879152

```
[18]: e = (r_aph - r_per) / (r_aph + r_per) # Eccentricity e # Eccentricity
```

[18]: 0.5046541507168606

We can check what are the values of the period and the differences in speed at arrival.

```
[19]: period = sqrt((4 * pi**2 * a**3)/(G * sun.mass))
period / (24 * 3600) # Orbital period in days
```

[19]: 1048.0331243098324

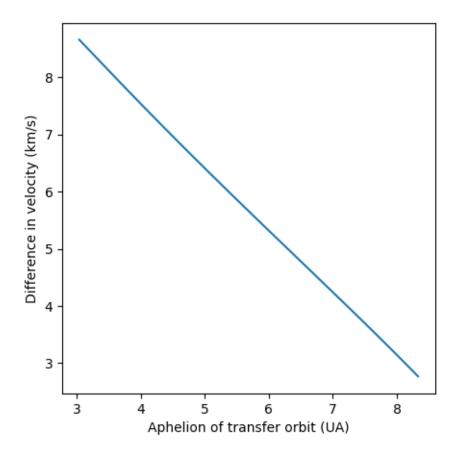
```
[20]: ast_vel = sqrt(G * sun.mass * (2 / r_aph - 1 / ast_a)) # Velocity of asteroid vel = sqrt(G * sun.mass * (2 / r_aph - 1 / a)) # Velocity of probe abs(vel - ast_vel) / 1e3 # Difference in velocity in km/s
```

[20]: 8.65849398421716

1.1.2 Smallest burn on arrival

For the second orbit, we are looking for the smallest burn on arrival, which means we want to have the smallest difference between the velocity of the asteroid and that of the spacecraft.

Firstly, we can imagine that we should target the asteroid's aphelion, as this is where its velocity is lowest. To confirm this, we could plot the difference in velocity between the two using the energy formula.



We can clearly see that the further away we are from the asteroid, the smaller the difference in speed. So for this orbit we will set our perihelion to the distance between the Sun and the Earth and our aphelion to the asteroid's aphelion.

```
[23]: r_per = UA_to_meters(1) # Perihelion distance = Earth-Sun distance
r_aph = ast_aph # Aphelion distance = Asteroid Perihelion distance

a = (r_per + r_aph) / 2 # Semi-major axis
a / 1.496e11 # Semi-major axis in UA
```

[23]: 4.66530848

```
[24]: e = (r_aph - r_per) / (r_aph + r_per) # Eccentricity
e # Eccentricity
```

[24]: 0.7856519018437983

We can use the graph to check that the final value is what we expected.

```
[25]: ast_vel = sqrt(G * sun.mass * (2 / r_aph - 1 / ast_a)) # Velocity of asteroid vel = sqrt(G * sun.mass * (2 / r_aph - 1 / a)) # Velocity of probe
```

```
abs(vel - ast_vel) / 1e3 # Difference in velocity in km/s
```

[25]: 2.765259722793685

```
[26]: period = sqrt((4 * pi**2 * a**3)/(G * sun.mass))
period / (24 * 3600) # Orbital period in days
```

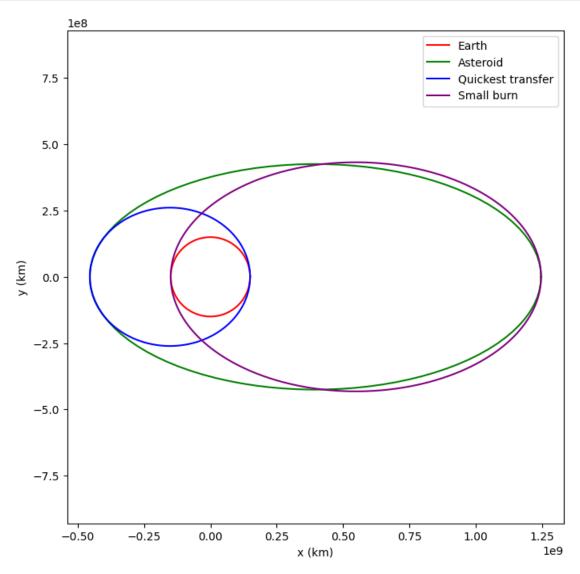
[26]: 3681.784370700488

1.1.3 Final plot

Finally, we can see the two trajectories to visually confirm our simulation. It is important to understand that burn on arrival and orbit period are inversely related and we have to make a trade-off, as we cannot lower one without raising the other and vice versa.

```
[28]: plt.figure(figsize=(8, 8)) # create figure, figsize can be changed as preferred
      # Plotting Earth's orbit
      uang = linspace(0, 2 * pi, 100)
      x = (UA_to_meters(1) / 1e3) * cos(uang)
      y = (UA_to_meters(1) / 1e3) * sin(uang)
      plt.plot(x, y, color='red')
      # Plotting Asteroid's orbit
      u=(ast_a - ast_per) / 1e3
      v=0
      a=ast a / 1e3
      b=a / 2
      t = linspace(0, 2*pi, 100)
      x = u+a*cos(t)
      y = v+b*sin(t)
      plt.plot(x, y, color='green')
      # Plotting probe's orbit with quickest transfer
      plt.plot(quickest_posvel[:, 0] / 1e3, quickest_posvel[:, 1] / 1e3, color='blue')
      # Plotting probe's orbit with small burn
      plt.plot(smallburn_posvel[:, 0] / 1e3, smallburn_posvel[:, 1] / 1e3,
       ⇔color='purple')
      plt.xlabel('x (km)')
```

```
plt.ylabel('y (km)')
plt.axis('equal')
plt.legend(['Earth', 'Asteroid', 'Quickest transfer', 'Small burn'])
plt.show() # make plot appear
```



2 Ex 9: The Martian

```
[29]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt from math import pi

from space_base import GravBody, Probe from numpy import linspace, sqrt, pi, cos, sin, arccos
```

```
# Define constants

G = 6.67e-11  # Gravitational constant

mars = GravBody(name="Mars", mass=0.64169e24, radius=3389.5e3)  # Mars as anu object with mass and radius

sun = GravBody(name="Sun", mass=1_988_500e24, radius=695_700e3)  # Sun as anu object with mass and radius

# Define conversion function

def UA_to_meters(UA):
    return UA * 1.496e11
```

The first step is to design a circular orbit at an altitude of 200km. To do this, we can use the previous energy formula and simplify it for a perfectly circular orbit.

$$a = \frac{r_{perihelion} + r_{aphelion}}{2}$$

$$r_{perihelion} = r_{aphelion} = r = a$$

$$V = \sqrt{GM_{sun}(\frac{2}{r} - \frac{1}{a})}$$

$$V = \sqrt{\frac{GM_{sun}}{r}}$$

```
[30]: r = 200e3 + mars.radius  # Radius distance in meters
v_init = sqrt(G * mars.mass / r)  # Velocity on initial circular orbit
v_init / 1e3  # Velocity at perihelion in km/s
```

[30]: 3.4530953751079427

We also need to calculate the required velocity the spacecraft must have at its aphelion to return to Earth using a Hohmann transfer. This will be our required residual velocity.

[31]: 21.47028240604332

This velocity is relative to the Sun. As we are going to simulate the departure from Mars, we need to have the velocity relative to the planet.

[32]: -2.6491694858055017

To find the periapsis velocity of our spacecraft around Mars so that it can escape, we can use the energy formula. We already know that $E = \frac{1}{2}V^2 - \frac{GM_{mars}}{r}$, so if $r \to \infty$; $E = \frac{1}{2}V_{hyp}^2$. So,

$$\begin{split} \frac{1}{2}V_{hyp}^2 &= \frac{1}{2}V_{per}^2 - \frac{GM_{mars}}{r_{per}} \\ 2*(\frac{1}{2}V_{hyp}^2 + \frac{GM_{mars}}{r_{per}}) &= V_{per}^2 \\ V_{per} &= \sqrt{V_{hyp}^2 + \frac{2GM_{mars}}{r_{per}}} \end{split}$$

[33]: v_per = sqrt(v_hyp**2 + 2*G*mars.mass/r)
v_per / 1e3 # Velocity at perihelion in km/s

[33]: 5.555702863158424

We can also calculate a and e for this escape orbit using:

$$a = \frac{GM_{mars}}{V_{hyp}^2}$$
$$e = \frac{r_p}{a} + 1$$

[34]: a = G*mars.mass / (v_hyp**2) # Semi-major axis a / 1e3 # Semi-major axis in km

[34]: 6098.620611701382

[35]: e = 1 + (r / a) # Eccentricity
e # Eccentricity

[35]: 1.5885757171241068

We can also derive the β angle with $\cos \beta = \frac{1}{e}$.

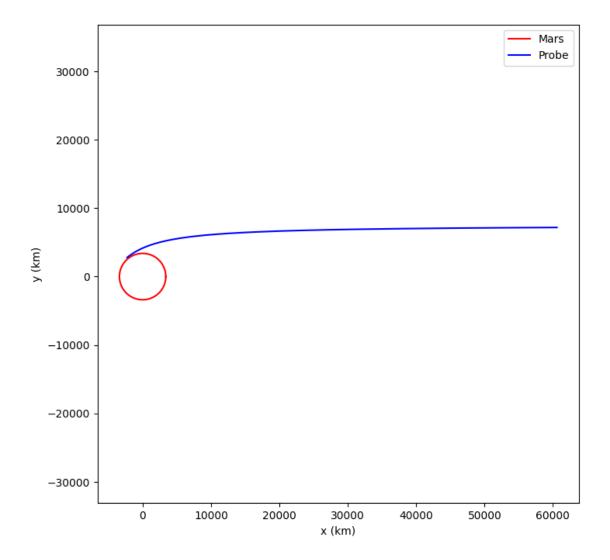
[36]: beta_angle=arccos(1/e) beta_angle * 180 / pi # Beta angle in degrees

[36]: 50.98714749340521

With these settings, we will fire our spacecraft in the opposite direction from Mars' orbit, as we will need to slow down to lower our perihelion to match Earth's orbit.

Finally, we can plot the trajectory until the probe reaches a point PM, which is up to 18 times the Martian radius from the centre of the planet. We can overestimate the time it will take the probe to reach this point by taking the lowest average speed (v_hyp) and using an event condition to trigger the end of the simulation at the right time.

```
[37]: def probeqns(_, posvel):
    r = sqrt(posvel[0] ** 2 + posvel[1] ** 2)
    f = -G * mars.mass / r ** 3
        gravity_force = f * posvel[0:2]
        axy = gravity_force
    return posvel[2], posvel[3], axy[0], axy[1]
```



As we can imagine, the real time of flight to the point is smaller.

[42]: 61011.50753647896

As expected, the actual distance travelled is greater than the direct distance between the last point and the centre of Mars.

```
[43]: total_dist / 1e3 # Total distance in km
```

[43]: 63492.58205912211

By calculating the actual distance travelled by the spacecraft, we were able to determine its average speed during this journey.

```
[44]: (total_dist / t[len(t)-1]) / 1e3 # average speed in km/s
```

[44]: 3.3367936564991236

3 Ex 10: The moment of inertia tensor of a Space Station

Let's assume a space station define by the given modules:

Module	Mass	X	У	z
Astrophysics module	3	6	-2	0
Robotics repair plant	4	3	1	-2
Power plant	7	-4	1	2
Docking module	5	-4	-2	-4
Communications module	4	3	2	-1
Solar arrays	3	2	-1	6

We can then calculate the total mass, center of mass and inertia matrix of the station.

[45]: 26

The center of mass of the space station can be find using the mass and position off all the submodules:

$$\begin{split} x_{com} &= \frac{\sum m_i * x_i}{m_{total}} \\ y_{com} &= \frac{\sum m_i * y_i}{m_{total}} \\ z_{com} &= \frac{\sum m_i * z_i}{m_{total}} \end{split}$$

[46]: array([0., 0., 0.])

Center of mass is at the origin of the coordinate system.

We can find the inertia matrix of the system with:

$$I = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} I_{xx} & I_{xy} & I_{xz} \\ I_{xy} & I_{yy} & I_{yz} \\ I_{xz} & I_{yz} & I_{zz} \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} \sum m(y^2+z^2) & -\sum mxy & -\sum mxz \\ -\sum mxy & \sum m(x^2+z^2) & -\sum myz \\ -\sum mxz & -\sum myz & \sum m(x^2+y^2) \end{array} \right)$$

All symmetrical inertia matrices can be diagonalised using eig vectors as the new base and the moments of inertia for these primary directions will be the corresponding eig values.

```
[48]: w,v=eig(inertia)
print('E-value:', w)
print('E-vector', v)

E-value: [293.95245163 447.74525937 622.302289 ]
E-vector [[-0.98681235 -0.16155017 0.01014485]
[-0.02793964 0.10826326 -0.99372956]
[-0.15943887 0.98090805 0.11134918]]
```

3.1 New Solar arrays mass

Now, let's update the modules tables with the below values and find the new center of mass and inertia matrix.

Module	Mass	X	У	\mathbf{z}
Astrophysics module	3	6	-2	0
Robotics repair plant	4	3	1	-2
Power plant	7	-4	1	2
Docking module	5	-4	-2	-4
Communications module	4	3	2	-1
Solar arrays	5	2	-1	6

```
[49]: 28
```

```
[50]: array([ 0.14285714, -0.07142857, 0.42857143])
```

```
inertia += np.array([[inertia_moment(m, y-center_of_mass[1],__
       \( \siz - \text{center_of_mass[2]} \), \( - \text{inertia_product(m, x-center_of_mass[0],} \), \( \text{inertia_product(m, x-center_of_mass[0],} \).
       ⇒z-center_of_mass[2])],
                               [-inertia_product(m, x-center_of_mass[0],__
       y-center of mass[1]), inertia moment(m, x-center of mass[0], □
       ⇒z-center_of_mass[2]), -inertia_product(m, y-center_of_mass[1],__
       ⇔z-center_of_mass[2])],
                               [-inertia_product(m, x-center_of_mass[0],__
       ⇒z-center_of_mass[2]), -inertia_product(m, y-center_of_mass[1],__
       ⇒z-center_of_mass[2]), inertia_moment(m, x-center_of_mass[0], ___

    y-center of mass[1])]])
      inertia
[51]: array([[366.71428571, -2.28571429, -46.28571429],
             [ -2.28571429, 694.28571429, -8.85714286],
             [-46.28571429, -8.85714286, 455.28571429]])
[52]: w_new,v_new=eig(inertia)
      print('E-value:', w)
      print('E-vector', v)
     E-value: [293.95245163 447.74525937 622.302289 ]
     E-vector [[-0.98681235 -0.16155017 0.01014485]
      [-0.02793964 0.10826326 -0.99372956]
      [-0.15943887 0.98090805 0.11134918]]
[53]: w_new - w
[53]: array([52.89849109, 27.07498192, 72.31224128])
```