

Introduction to Orbital Dynamics

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In this lecture we aim to cover the following topics:

1. [The Eccentricity Vector](#)
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The Eccentricity Vector

Deriving The Eccentricity Vector

The Eccentricity vector \mathbf{e} helps us describe the shape of an orbit and its direction. We can find it by taking the cross product of the velocity and the specific angular momentum:

1. Such as:

$$\ddot{\mathbf{r}} = -\frac{\mu}{r^3}\mathbf{r}$$

Taking the cross product with the specific angular momentum, \mathbf{h} :

$$\ddot{\mathbf{r}} \times \mathbf{h} = -\frac{\mu}{r^3}\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{h}$$

Using the rule for $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c} = (\mathbf{c} \cdot \mathbf{a})\mathbf{b} - (\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{a})\mathbf{c}$ with $\mathbf{h} = \mathbf{r} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{r}}$:

$$-\frac{\mu}{r^3}[(\dot{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \mathbf{r})\mathbf{r} - (\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{r})\dot{\mathbf{r}}] \rightarrow -\frac{\mu}{r^3}(\dot{r}\mathbf{r}\mathbf{r} - r^2\dot{\mathbf{r}}) \rightarrow -\frac{\mu}{r^2}(\dot{r}\mathbf{r} - r\dot{\mathbf{r}}) \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt}\left(\mu\frac{\mathbf{r}}{r}\right)$$

us:

$$\Rightarrow \dot{\mathbf{r}} \times \mathbf{h} - \mu\frac{\mathbf{r}}{r} = \text{constant}$$

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equations here as per point 6
in yesterday's lecture 3 review.

Which can be rewritten as: $\mathbf{e} = \frac{\dot{\mathbf{r}} \times \mathbf{h}}{\mu} - \frac{\mathbf{r}}{r}$ This is our equation for the eccentricity vector!

that bottom r or top r should not be in bold, check again.

2. The first integrals of motion:

- \mathbf{e} is a constant vector, implying both constant direction and magnitude.
- \mathbf{e} lies in the plane of motion and is fixed.

Let's define:

$$e = \frac{|\mathbf{e}|}{\mu}$$

where e is the eccentricity.

Properties

- \mathbf{e} lies in the plane of motion and (since it is constant) has a fixed magnitude and direction. $\Rightarrow \hat{i} \equiv \mathbf{e}$, so we can use the eccentricity as one of the axes.
- The eccentricity, $e = |\mathbf{e}| \geq 0$, determines the shape of the orbit:
 - $e = 0$: Circular orbit
 - $0 < e < 1$: Elliptic orbit
 - $e = 1$: Parabolic orbit

- $e > 1$: Hyperbolic orbit

The Equation of the Orbit

If we look at the dot product of $\mathbf{e} \cdot \mathbf{r}$ we know that: $\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{e} = r \cos \theta$ and if we recall

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{c} \text{ then: } \$ \frac{\mathbf{r} \cdot (\dot{\mathbf{r}} \times \dot{\mathbf{h}})}{\mu} - \frac{\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{r}}{r} = \frac{(\mathbf{r} \times \dot{\mathbf{r}}) \cdot \mathbf{h}}{\mu} - \frac{r^2}{r} = \frac{h^2}{\mu} - r$$

$$\text{So then this equivalence implies : } r = \frac{\frac{h^2}{\mu}}{1 + e \cos \theta} \$$$

θ is called the true anomaly.

This is another way of expressing **Kepler's 1st Law** - the orbit of a planet is an ellipse with the sun at one of the two focii. This is an **Equation of the Orbit**.

Note: θ can also be expressed as v or f

r describes the shape of the orbits as conic sections through the varying eccentricities shown before but it is important to note that:

- Operative orbits are always circular or elliptic. As these keep the satellite closest to the planet of interest for as long as possible.
- Hyperbolic orbits are maneuvers used on interplanetary missions to reduce propellant use by using the gravity of a body to reach another target body.

Elliptic Orbits

Example Image

a = semi-major axis

b = semi-minor axis

p = semi-latus rectum

\mathbf{e} is aligned with the apsides and point towards the perigee

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Key Parameters

1. semi-major axis a : This is the axis of the ellipse that has the longest diameter.

2. semi-minor axis b : This is the axis of the ellipse with the shortest diameter.
3. Semi-latus rectum p : This is the distance from the foci (orbited body) to the orbit measured perpendicular to the semi-major axis.

$$p = a(1 - e^2)$$

4. Perigee (r_p): The lowest point in an orbit/the point closest to the orbited body. \$

$$r_p = a(1 - e)$$
5. Apogee (r_a): The highest point in an orbit/the point furthest from the orbited body. \$

$$r_a = a(1 + e)$$

Determination of the Orbit

1. Given focus \mathbf{r}_o and \mathbf{v}_o , compute \mathbf{h} and \mathbf{e} .
2. Compute the semi-latus rectum, $p = \frac{h^2}{\mu}$
3. Compute the semi-major axis, a , using p : $a = \frac{p}{1 - e^2}$
4. Compute the apsides points (most extreme points in the orbit):

$$r_p = a(1 - e), r_a = a(1 + e)$$

(content:vis-viva-equation=)

Vis-Viva Equation

The Vis-Viva Equation is used to find the velocity at any given r when a maneuver is planned.

The Equation:

The total energy of the orbit is the sum of the kinetic energy and the potential energies of the orbit. \$
$$E = \frac{1}{2}v^2 - \frac{\mu}{r} = \frac{1}{2}\dot{r}^2 + \frac{1}{2}\frac{h^2}{r^2} - \frac{\mu}{r} = \frac{1}{2}\dot{r}^2 + \phi_{eff}$$

The sum of the potential energies is the effective potential energy, ϕ_{eff} :

$$\phi_{eff} = \frac{1}{2}\frac{h^2}{r^2} - \frac{\mu}{r}$$

At perigee and apogee the velocity = 0 so $E_{r_p} = \phi_{eff}(r_p)$ so we can derive an equation for the specific orbital energy as a function of a . \$
$$E = -\frac{\mu}{2a}$$

\Rightarrow orbits with the same semi-major axis have the same orbital energy.

This means that the **Vis-Viva Equation** is: $E = \frac{1}{2}v^2 - \frac{\mu}{r} = -\frac{\mu}{2a}$

So the velocity of an orbiting body can be found whether you have the position or the semi-major axis of its orbit.

Conclusion

- The eccentricity vector is a fundamental constant vector in orbital mechanics.
- The orbit equation describes different conic sections based on the value of the eccentricity e .
- The Vis Viva equation is a crucial tool in mission planning for calculating velocities at various points in an orbit.