

Modeling & Analysis of Environmental Orbit Perturbation and Budgeting Their Effect on Orbital Elements

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ABSTRACT: This paper examines the impact of orbit perturbations on satellite translational dynamics, encompassing both major and minor forces. The former category includes atmospheric drag, Earth oblateness, solar radiation, and third-body attractions. Atmospheric drag is based on a solar activity model and its rotation due to meridional and zonal winds. Earth's oblateness is considered over a high order of Earth gravity harmonics, along with direct solar radiation pressure and the effect of third-body attraction, such as the Moon and Sun gravity, utilizing a high-accuracy ephemeris. Minor force effects include Earth's solid tides resulting from the Sun and Moon attraction, the effect of reflected solar radiation pressure from the Earth (Albedo), and relativity effects. The three primary theories employed to expand equations are perturbed potential function, force components, and acceleration. An investigative study was conducted to analyze the budget of perturbations in orbital elements at various altitudes. This approach applies to high orbit injection, orbit transfer using low electrical propulsion, and high-precision missions. The research underscores the significance of possessing a precise perturbed dynamic model, which facilitates high-revolution orbit transfer.

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1- Introduction

The unusual variations in orbital elements due to perturbations and satellite orbits cause different effects of orbital disturbances. The perturbed forces can be analyzed from different standpoints, such as considering conservative and non-conservative forces. Over years, researchers have studied different models based on various functions of perturbations. Aerodynamic drag effect has been studied on the satellite lifetime based on a simple atmospheric model considering density changes with altitude, solar periodic activities, as well as Earth's oblateness. The results of the models have been compared with actual samples. [1], based on MSISE90, MSISE77, DTM77, J71 density model, presented a model for estimating the satellite lifetime and satellite impact point, then tendered the accuracy of the model by comparing the results with the data of some low-altitude satellite. [2] studied the drag effect of the atmosphere on the NIMOSA satellite's perturbed acceleration and analyzed the satellite's lifetime based on changes in Ω and ω . [3] studied the drag effect with two density models, JR71 and MSISE-90, and the changes in solar intensity on 11 spherical satellites, among which five satellites were below 400km, two 500 km satellites, and three of them were between 750 to 850 km and one of them is about 1500 km. Based on the analysis, the MSIS-90 model is an acceptable and proper model for

up to 800km height. Regarding the atmosphere rotation and atmosphere oblateness, [4], studied and analyzed the drag effect for the Indian RS-7 satellite and [5] on the secular decay of the LARES semi-major axis too. These effects were used by incorporating the gravitational oblateness model of the Earth up to J6 with the motion equation method of KS [6]. It should be noted that significant research activities have been carried out to improve the analytical solution of the drag effect [7]. In a recent article analyzing the effect of the atmosphere on orbital parameters, no emphasis was placed on the impacts of solar activity variations, existing models, changes in the drag coefficient, atmospheric rotation, or zonal and meridional winds, nor was the flight angle addressed [8]. As specified, the analysis of atmospheric effect was done based on the NRLMSIS-00 density model with various solar activity indices, drag coefficient variation, and the effects of rotational atmosphere, and also the zonal and meridional winds were considered.

Many have studied the effect of direct solar radiation pressure and presented various models so far. Some of these models are analytical, and some are developed based on empirical models based on the observed data of satellites. [9], presented a model for studying the secular and short-periodic effects of solar radiation pressure on a spherical satellite based on Lagrange perturbation equations, and got the normal forces, and also reflected radiation from the Earth and considered the shadow model based on [10] suggestion

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and as a result, presenting other models like the accurate analytical model of SRP for GNSS, which was presented by [11] and is based on simulating the solar photon flux with a pixel array. In addition, some empirical models were presented that address the model presented by [12], which is a new empirical model for GPS satellites. Based on the data of these satellites in an interval of 4.5 years and after analysis, it was shown in these studies that this model, still being improved [13], can function up to 85% better than the best models. This effect is more significant in higher orbit objects, mainly including GEO satellites, spacecrafts, debris, and space asteroids [14]. In this study, the analysis of the SRP effect based on the suggested source model [9] by Earth's shadow has been done.

Scientists extensively studied the effect of Earth's gravitational field model and developed it based on the Earth's harmonics. They extended these coefficients up to high order through satellite observations. However, in analytical study, the effect of high order harmonics has more important because the effect of J_2 is about 400 times greater than other zonal coefficients. Many researchers conducted analyses on the perturbed effects due to Earth's oblateness, which we can be found in works such as [15-19]. They focused on the effects of J_2 , and someone such as [20] and [21] developed this effect up to J_6 and J_8 . In this study, perturbed acceleration on a polar coordinate viewpoint is used to analyze the effect, and only the effect of zonal harmonics developed up to the order of 10 based on Legendre polynomials and its generalization of it in an analytical way, and analyzed based on the Gauss equation. [22] and [23] both found that this effect plays a crucial role in mission analysis accuracy and equipment calibration, respectively, such as determining the velocity of a planet's surface from orbital survey images captured by onboard cameras.

Many researchers have studied how the gravitational force affects the direction of spacecraft and suggested different models. [24] attempted to produce long and short periodic components of the gravitational potential. Also, [25] evaluated the perturbed effect of attraction using classic mechanics and secular terms. Other studies, such as, [26-33], used perturbed equations, potential functions, and numerical methods to estimate this effect. Investigating the long-term effects of third-body attraction on a satellite around an oblate body for a high-order expansion of disturbing function was done by [33]. Also [35] studied satellite formations which were perturbed by lunar gravity to describe the relative motions and in designing frozen orbits. Recent studies have explored the gravitational perturbations induced by a third body, with particular emphasis on its orbital inclination and eccentricity. While these investigations have examined variations in orbital dynamics and evaluated system sensitivity with respect to the mentioned parameters, a comprehensive analysis of the underlying mathematical models remains lacking [36] and [37].

The effects of small forces are frequently neglected in the comprehensive study of perturbations on satellite translational dynamics because they are of low order. They involve the

effect of Earth's solid tides created by the gravity of the Sun and Moon, oceanic tides, the general relativity effect, the impact of indirect solar radiation from the Earth (Albedo), and the Yarkovsky effect. [38], [39], [40] and [41] presented the effect of Earth's solid tides due to the Sun and Moon gravity, and the proper potential function for production. In addition, an accurate analysis of Earth's tides effects was done by [42] on the LARES satellite.

Einstein's discoveries have resulted in many attempts to expand the effect of the theory of general relativity on satellite motion equations, which were established using Newton's classical theory. Among these activities, [43] worked on a comparison of Newton's and general relativity models in the motion of a particle in a gravitational field. [44] suggested the model of relativity equations of motion for Earth's orbits. [45] created the perturbed potential function and used Lagrange perturbed equations to establish the connection between changes in orbital elements over time. Additionally, recent activities, such as [46] and [47]'s actions have had an impact on LEO and GPS satellites. In three distinct ways, relativity influenced the satellites in the equation of motion, signal propagation, and beat rate of the clocks.

Scientists have carried out thorough investigations on the Yarkovsky force, a phenomenon that causes heat drag and influences asteroids and meteoroids. Also, [48] provides a non-linear theory for coplanar cases and Yarkovsky diurnal effect on metric asteroids, while [49] studied the effect of Yarkovsky heat forces on the dynamics of asteroids and [50] presented an accurate model for Yarkovsky effect. In a recent study, [51] analyzed the orbital dynamics of asteroid (101955) Bennu, considering Yarkovsky and SRP effects. [52]'s investigation focused on an asteroid's movement under the Sun's gravity and perturbing acceleration. [53] aimed to explain this effect by analyzing the asteroid's radius and velocity vector.

A review of existing literature reveals that most studies analyze only one or two perturbation effects, typically limited to specific models. The novelty of this research lies in its comprehensive approach, which integrates all perturbation effects (both major and minor) through diverse equation frameworks. Furthermore, it quantifies each perturbation's contribution and examines its variation with orbital altitude, a critical gap in current literature. Consequently, this study establishes a foundational reference for orbital mechanics practitioners, particularly in high-precision mission design.

Long-duration, high-accuracy missions such as geostationary satellite station-keeping, constellation maintenance, and long-duration orbital transfers require rigorous analysis of minor perturbations. This need becomes particularly significant in low-thrust electric propulsion systems, where multi-revolution, long-duration transfers amplify the influence of perturbations.

2- Atmosphere Drag

Atmospheric drag plays a significant role in the lifetime of a satellite, which can be extended by raising its altitude. This factor is particularly crucial below 600 km. Due to the

non-conservative force, the energy of the orbit decreases, leading to a decrease in the semi-major axis and eccentricity. The work done by drag on orbit is

$$\dot{E} = F_{\text{Drag}} \cdot V = \left(-\frac{1}{2} \rho v^3 S C_d \right) = \frac{d}{dt} \left(-\frac{\mu}{2a} \right) \quad (1)$$

$$\dot{a} = -\frac{\rho S C_d a^2 v^3}{\mu} \quad (2)$$

The effect of drag, based on an exponential density model, is studied by [54]. Nevertheless, changes in latitude and longitude are the most important factors affecting the trend of density changes. The maximum density occurs at approximately 2 pm local time, while the minimum density occurs at roughly 4 am local time, as indicated by the contour of density change. The variance angle from the center of the daytime bulge is the primary determinant of density. According to the [54], we have

$$\rho = \rho_0 (1 + F \cos \phi) \exp \left(-\frac{r - r_0}{H} \right) \quad (3)$$

The solar flux index changes during the day and night, depending on height, season, and year variation. It has a range of 60 to 250 in the unit of $10^{-22} \text{ W m}^{-2} \text{ Hz}^{-1}$ and is expressed as maximum and minimum.

$$\frac{\rho_{\text{max}}}{\rho_{\text{min}}} = \frac{1 + F}{1 - F} \quad (4)$$

The angular deviation of the satellite position to the day time bulge is ϕ , and [54] has explained the details about it in formula (3). ρ_0 is the density for $\phi = 90^\circ$ in r_0 in which often the initial position is perigee, and r is the instantaneous position of the satellite. We can analyze the effect of density in the Gaussian equations and components of the force, which influences along the velocity vector in the opposite direction, that we can consider as f_T , and the effect of the Lift could be considered as f_N .

$$f_T = -\frac{D}{m} = -\frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 \frac{S C_D}{m} \quad (5)$$

The above equation showcases V is the satellite's velocity relative to the air and its orbit to Earth's center. However, atmospheric rotation's impact is also important. In fact V is

$$V = v - V_A \quad ; \quad V_A = r \omega \cos \varphi \quad (6)$$

re ω represents the angular velocity of the atmosphere relative to the Earth's axis, φ denotes the geocentric latitude, and v corresponds to the satellite's velocity vector. By reducing the complexity based on the relationship of parameters in the formed spherical triangle between satellites, also $u = w + \phi$ and neglecting small terms like as $r^2 \omega^2$ respect to V^2 .

$$V^2 = v^2 \left(1 - \frac{r_p \omega}{v_p} \cos i \right)^2 = v^2 F \quad (7)$$

Therefore, the connection between drag and satellite velocity in relation to inertia can be expressed as:

$$D = \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 F S C_D \quad (8)$$

Another significant point for analyzing the drag effect considered in this paper is the inequality of the drag force vector with the radial component. The velocity vector of the satellite has a flight angle θ to the radial direction, so the Gauss equations define the relationship between f_T and f_N . force components based on the flight angle θ and true anomaly φ , which can be expressed as follows:

$$f_t = \frac{1}{v} \left(\frac{\mu}{P} \right)^{1/2} \{ f_T (1 + e \cos \theta) + f_N e \sin \theta \} \quad (9)$$

$$f_r = \frac{1}{v} \left(\frac{\mu}{P} \right)^{1/2} \{ f_T e \sin \theta - f_N (1 + e \cos \theta) \} \quad (10)$$

The effect of aerodynamic normal force (f_N) on the orbital plane can be examined by analyzing the rotation of the atmosphere and meridional winds. Since v is in the orbital plane and V_A makes an angle such as γ' with the orbital plane, the vertical component of V could be considered as:

$$V_n = V_A \sin \gamma' = r \omega \cos \phi \sin \gamma' \quad (11)$$

And by using the trigonometric relations,

$$V_n = r \omega \sin i \cos u \quad (12)$$

And the result will be,

$$f_n = -\frac{\rho v \delta}{2\sqrt{F}} r w \sin i \cos u \quad (13)$$

To analyze the effects of meridional wind, assume that the vector \mathbf{V}_A will make an angle like $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ in respect of West-East line. So the velocity of the meridional wind $\mathbf{V}_A \sin$ after simplifying, and its correlation with the inertial speed and orbital elements is:

$$f_n = -\frac{\rho v \delta}{2\sqrt{F}} \left\{ r w \sin i \cos u - \frac{r \Phi \cos i}{(1 - \sin^2 i \sin^2 u)^{1/2}} \right\} \quad (14)$$

The formula (14) is the result of perpendicular force caused by zonal and meridional winds and $\dot{\phi}$ implies the meridional wind's angular rate. The speed of the atmospheric wind is roughly 500 ms^{-1} estimated based on experimental data, while the speed of meridional winds is estimated to be less than 100 ms^{-1} .

3- Direct solar radiation pressure

Solar radiation pressure can cause a force on the satellite surface that is proportional to,

$$\vec{F}_{SR} = P_{SR} A C_p ; P_{SR} = 4.51 \times 10^{-6} \frac{N}{m^2} \quad (15)$$

The number of C_p absorbent and reflective objects can be anywhere from 0 to 2 and A is perpendicular plane of the satellite to the sun. Often, the effects of radiation for orbits with high altitude are very important. The relative position of the Sun, satellite, and the Earth in various instances, which leads to shadow effects, has striking and remarkable influences. Different models have been developed to analyze the solar radiation impact that all of which were based on the force component, and the only difference is the modeling of eclse influence.

The structure of equations in some phrasings includes the analytical effect of shadows, with the main body of the equation expressing the two real anomaly entrance and exit angles of the satellite as it enters and exits the shadow of the Earth, as found in [55]. Nonetheless, according to another model used to analyze this disturbance effect [56], it is assumed that the shadow of the Earth is cylindrical, and by checkg the position of the Sun and the satellite's entrance and exit angles instantaneously, the value of F_{SR} will be zero during the shadow interval.

$$\dot{a} = 2na^3(1-e^2)^{-1/2} F \left[eS(\theta) \sin v + T(\theta) \frac{p}{r} \right] \quad (16)$$

$$\dot{e} = na^2(1-e^2)^{1/2} F \left[\frac{S(\theta) \sin \theta + T(\theta) \left[\cos(\theta) + \frac{1}{e} \left(1 - \frac{r}{a} \right) \right]}{T(\theta) \left[\cos(\theta) + \frac{1}{e} \left(1 - \frac{r}{a} \right) \right]} \right] \quad (17)$$

$$\dot{i} = na^2(1-e^2)^{-1/2} F W \frac{r}{a} \cos u \quad (18)$$

$$\frac{\sin i d\Omega}{dt} = na^2(1-e^2)^{-1/2} F W \frac{r}{a} \sin u \quad (19)$$

$$\dot{\omega} = -\cos i \dot{\Omega} + \frac{na^2(1-e^2)^{1/2}}{e} + na^2 \frac{(1-e^2)^{1/2}}{e} F \times \left[\frac{-S(\theta) \cos \theta + T(\theta) \left(1 + \frac{r}{a} \right) \sin \theta}{T(\theta) \left(1 + \frac{r}{a} \right) \sin \theta} \right] \quad (20)$$

$$\dot{M} = n - 2na^2 F S(\theta) \frac{r}{a} - (1-e^2)^{1/2} (\dot{\omega} + \dot{\Omega} \cos i) \quad (21)$$

Mentioned parameters indicated $S(\theta)$, $T(\theta)$ and $W(\theta)$, are force components of direct solar radiation in the radial direction, perpendicular to the radius, and are perpendicular to the plane, respectively.

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{Bmatrix} S(\theta) \\ T(\theta) \end{Bmatrix} &= -\cos^2 \frac{i}{2} \cos^2 \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \begin{Bmatrix} \cos \\ \sin \end{Bmatrix} (\lambda_{\odot} - u - \Omega) - \\ &\quad - \sin^2 \frac{i}{2} \sin^2 \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \begin{Bmatrix} \cos \\ \sin \end{Bmatrix} (\lambda_{\odot} - u + \Omega) - \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{2} \sin i \sin \varepsilon \left[\begin{Bmatrix} \cos \\ \sin \end{Bmatrix} (\lambda_{\odot} - u) - \begin{Bmatrix} \cos \\ \sin \end{Bmatrix} (-\lambda_{\odot} - u) \right] - \\ &\quad - \sin^2 \frac{i}{2} \cos^2 \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \begin{Bmatrix} \cos \\ \sin \end{Bmatrix} (-\lambda_{\odot} - u + \Omega) - \\ &\quad - \cos^2 \frac{i}{2} \sin^2 \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \begin{Bmatrix} \cos \\ \sin \end{Bmatrix} (-\lambda_{\odot} - u - \Omega) \end{aligned} \quad (22)$$

$$\begin{aligned} W &= \sin i \cos^2 \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \sin(\lambda_{\odot} - \Omega) - \\ &\quad \sin i \sin^2 \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \sin(\lambda_{\odot} + \Omega) - \cos i \sin \varepsilon \sin \lambda_{\odot} \end{aligned} \quad (23)$$

which $\lambda_{\odot} = \theta_{\odot} + \omega_{\odot}$, is the angle between the Sun position vector and the vernal equinox, and also ε is the

obliquity of the Sun to the equator, which has the average value of 23.45° .

For analyzing the shadow instantaneous effect, we refer to the pattern in [55]. This presentation suggests that, assuming the Earth's shadow as cylindrical, the true anomaly angle (θ) corresponds to the angle of the satellite's entry and exit from the shadow, which satisfies this equation.

$$R_E^2(1 + e \cos \theta)^2 + p^2(\beta_1 \cos \theta + \beta_2 \sin \theta)^2 - p^2 = 0 \quad (24)$$

in which R_E^2 is the radius of the Earth at the equator, (e) eccentricity of satellite orbit, $p = a(1 - e^2)$, β_1 and β_2 are

$$\beta_1 = \frac{\vec{R}_S \cdot \vec{P}}{|\vec{R}_S|} \quad ; \quad \beta_2 = \frac{\vec{R}_S \cdot \vec{Q}}{|\vec{R}_S|} \quad (25)$$

\vec{R}_S is the Sun position vector in the inertial system and \vec{P} and \vec{Q} are

$$\vec{P} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \omega \cos \Omega - \sin \omega \sin \Omega \cos i \\ \cos \omega \sin \Omega + \sin \omega \cos \Omega \cos i \\ \sin \omega \sin i \end{bmatrix} \quad (26)$$

$$\vec{Q} = \begin{bmatrix} -\sin \omega \cos \Omega - \cos \omega \sin \Omega \cos i \\ -\sin \omega \sin \Omega + \cos \omega \cos \Omega \cos i \\ \cos \omega \sin i \end{bmatrix} \quad (27)$$

The angle of shadow entry and exit can be calculated by arranging function (24) and solving the derived equation using recursive methods such as Newton-Raphson with constraints.

$$f(x) = Ax^2 + Bx + C\sqrt{1 - x^2} + D = 0 \quad (28)$$

In the earlier equation $x = \cos \theta$ and the condition for the answer is the following terms $f(1)f(-1) \leq 0$, $-1 \leq x \leq 1$, then solving method such as Newton are used.

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x)}{f'(x)} \quad ; \quad n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots \quad (29)$$

To ensure the equation has been solved correctly, a momentary check is necessary.

$$|f(x)| \leq \text{Desired Tolerance} \quad (30)$$

4- Earth Oblateness

As the influence of the Earth on the object is a conservative force and impact, we use the potential function gradient like $V(r) = -\mu/r$. The model described earlier would only be usable if the Earth were a complete sphere and were homogeneous in mass distribution, whereas it is not that; it needs to define the potential function for our planet. Supposing the Earth is elliptical, we can generalize the potential function with a factor like $\beta(r, \phi, \lambda)$ which is a function of position and geocentric latitude, and longitude, as described in [57].

$$V(r) = -\frac{\mu}{r} + \beta(r, \phi, \lambda) \quad (31)$$

Calculating the coefficients of equations based on Earth gravity harmonics, solving Laplacian equations, and using spherical coordinates, we can determine the potential function, which can be expressed by the following series. The method of producing the potential function and adjusting the coefficients is explained in [58].

$$V = -\frac{\mu}{r} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{r_e}{r} \right)^n \sum_{m=1}^n P_n^m(\cos \theta) \times [C_{nm} \cos m\phi + S_{nm} \sin m\phi] \quad (32)$$

By matching the spherical harmonics S_{nm} and C_{nm} to the Legendre polynomial series, the coefficients are classified into three categories representing the Earth, which P_n^m is the Legendre polynomial. Conservative forces can be expressed as a force component pattern. The force components derived from a non-spherical Earth model are analyzed using a spherical system to study the Gaussian Equation. Zonal harmonics are the only components included, as well as Legendre's polynomials and their extension, described in [55] are used.

$$f_r = \frac{\mu}{r^2} \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} J_n(n+1) \left(\frac{R_e}{r} \right)^n P_n(\sin i \sin u) \quad (33)$$

$$f_t = -\frac{\mu}{r^2} \sin i \cos u \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} J_n \left(\frac{R_e}{r} \right)^n P_n'(\sin i \sin u) \quad (34)$$

$$f_n = -\frac{\mu}{r^2} \cos i \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} J_n \left(\frac{R_e}{r} \right)^n P_n'(\sin i \sin u) \quad (35)$$

In which P_n is Legendre polynomial and P_n' is

the combination of the Legendre polynomial

$$c \quad (36)$$

$$\text{and} \quad \alpha = \sin(i) \sin(u)$$

5- The effect of the third body

The third body produces an additional gravitational effect to that of the Earth.

$$V = \frac{\mu_3}{r_3} \left[\left(1 + \frac{r^2}{r_3^2} - \frac{2r}{r_3} \cos \psi \right)^{-1/2} - \frac{r \cos \psi}{r_3} \right] \quad (37)$$

Potential function (38) in [59] is based on the viewpoint of Kozai - Kaufman, in which subscript \mathfrak{r} belongs to the perturbed object, μ_3 is the constant gravitational parameter and m_3 is the body mass of the third object (Sun or Moon). The distance of a satellite from the center of the Earth (\mathbf{r}), and the third object from the Earth's center (\mathbf{r}_3), along with the angle between their vectors (ψ), can be used to expand the potential function. By using the orbital elements of both objects, the potential function based on Kozai and Kaufman's viewpoint can be produced.

$$V = \frac{a^2 n_3^2}{2} \left(\frac{a_3}{r_3} \right)^3 \left\{ \left[\frac{3}{2} (A^2 + B^2) - 1 \right] \left[1 + \frac{3e^2}{2} \right] + \frac{3}{2} (A^2 - B^2) \frac{5e^2}{2} \right\} \quad (38)$$

and $\bar{A} = \bar{P} \bar{e}_3$, $\bar{B} = \bar{Q} \bar{e}_3$ and \bar{P}, \bar{Q} are the unit vectors of the perifocal coordinate system, which had been mentioned in relation (27) and (28) and vector \bar{e}_3 is the unit vector directed to the third object.

$$\bar{e}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \Omega_3 \cos u_3 - \sin \Omega_3 \sin u_3 \cos i_3 \\ \sin \Omega_3 \cos u_3 + \cos \Omega_3 \sin u_3 \cos i_3 \\ \sin u_3 \sin i_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad (39)$$

u_3, i_3, Ω_3 are respectively the argument of latitude, inclination, and RAAN of the third object. By expanding $A^2 + B^2$, $A^2 - B^2$ using the series and working on the potential function (39) The Lagrange equations can be derived to study the changes in orbital elements due to third-body gravity.

$$\frac{da}{dt} = 0 \quad (40)$$

$$\frac{de}{dt} = -\frac{15}{8} e \gamma s(IMW) \quad (41)$$

$$\frac{di}{dt} = -\frac{3}{4} \frac{\gamma \csc i}{s} \left[\left(1 + \frac{3}{2} e^2 \right) IPO + \frac{5}{2} e^2 (IMO - \cos i IMW) \right] \quad (42)$$

$$\frac{d\Omega}{dt} = \frac{3}{4} \frac{\gamma}{s} \left[\left(1 + \frac{3}{2} e^2 \right) \left(\frac{\cos i}{\sin i} IPS - IPC \right) + \frac{5}{2} e^2 \left(\frac{\cos i}{\sin i} IMS - IMC \right) \right] \quad (43)$$

$$\frac{d\omega}{dt} = \frac{3}{2} s \gamma \left[\frac{3}{2} (A^2 + B^2) - 1 + \frac{5}{2} (A^2 - B^2) \right] - \cos i \frac{d\Omega}{dt} \quad (44)$$

$$\frac{dM}{dt} = n - 2\gamma \left\{ \left(1 + \frac{3}{2} e^2 \right) \left[\frac{3}{2} (A^2 + B^2) - 1 \right] + \frac{15}{4} e^2 (A^2 - B^2) - \frac{3}{2} s^2 \gamma \left[\frac{3}{2} (A^2 + B^2) - 1 + \frac{5}{2} (A^2 - B^2) \right] \right\} \quad (45)$$

so $S = \sqrt{1 - e^2}$, $\gamma = \frac{n_3^2}{n} \left(\frac{a_3}{r_3} \right)^2 R_m$ and R_m is the mass ratio. So if the Moon is the third object $R_m = 1/27$, for the Sun $R_m = 1$ and parameters IMW, IMS, IMC, IMO, IPO, IPS and IPC are:

$$IMS = \begin{bmatrix} -\sin i \sin^2 i_3 \cos 2\omega \\ + (1/4) \sin 2i_3 \left[(1 - \cos i) \cos(2\omega - \Delta\Omega) - (1 + \cos i) \cos(2\omega + \Delta\Omega) \right] \\ + (1/2) \sin i \sin i_3 [\cos 2(u_3 - \omega) + \cos 2(u_3 + \omega)] \\ + (1/4) \sin i_3 \left[(1 + \cos i)(1 + \cos i_3) \cos(2u_3 - 2\omega - \Delta\Omega) + (1 - \cos i)(1 - \cos i_3) \cos(2u_3 - 2\omega + \Delta\Omega) - (1 - \cos i)(1 + \cos i_3) \cos(2u_3 + 2\omega - \Delta\Omega) - (1 + \cos i)(1 - \cos i_3) \cos(2u_3 + 2\omega + \Delta\Omega) \right] \end{bmatrix} \quad (46)$$

$$IPO = -\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\sin i \left\{ \begin{aligned} &\cos i \sin 2i_3 \sin \Delta\Omega + \sin i \sin^2 i_3 \sin 2\Delta\Omega \\ &-\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\sin i \left[\begin{aligned} &\left(1 + \cos i_3\right)^2 \sin 2(u_3 - \Delta\Omega) \\ &-\left(1 - \cos i_3\right)^2 \sin 2(u_3 + \Delta\Omega) \end{aligned} \right] \\ &+ \cos i \sin i_3 \left[\begin{aligned} &\left(1 + \cos i_3\right) \sin(2u_3 - \Delta\Omega) \\ &+ \left(1 - \cos i_3\right) \sin(2u_3 + \Delta\Omega) \end{aligned} \right] \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (47)$$

$$IPC = \left\{ \begin{aligned} &\cos i \left[1 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\sin^2 i_3 \right] + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\sin i \sin 2i_3 \cos \Delta\Omega \\ &-\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\cos i \sin^2 i_3 \cos 2\Delta\Omega + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\cos i \sin^2 i_3 \cos 2u_3 \\ &+ \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\sin i \sin i_3 \left[\begin{aligned} &\left(1 - \cos i_3\right) \cos(2u_3 + \Delta\Omega) \\ &-\left(1 + \cos i_3\right) \cos(2u_3 - \Delta\Omega) \end{aligned} \right] \\ &-\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\cos i \left[\begin{aligned} &\left(1 + \cos i_3\right)^2 \cos 2(u_3 - \Delta\Omega) \\ &+ \left(1 - \cos i_3\right)^2 \cos 2(u_3 + \Delta\Omega) \end{aligned} \right] \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (48)$$

$$IPS = \left\{ \begin{aligned} &\sin i \sin^2 i_3 + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\cos i \sin 2i_3 \cos \Delta\Omega - \sin i \sin^2 i_3 \cos 2u_3 \\ &+ \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\cos i \sin i_3 \left[\begin{aligned} &\left(1 - \cos i_3\right) \cos(2u_3 + \Delta\Omega) \\ &-\left(1 + \cos i_3\right) \cos(2u_3 - \Delta\Omega) \end{aligned} \right] \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (49)$$

$$IMW = \left\{ \begin{aligned} &\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\sin^2 i \left[3\sin^2 i_3 - 2 \right] \sin 2\omega \\ &-\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\sin^2 i_3 \left[\begin{aligned} &\left(1 - \cos i\right)^2 \sin 2(\omega - \Delta\Omega) + \left(1 + \cos i\right)^2 \sin 2(\omega + \Delta\Omega) \end{aligned} \right] \\ &+ \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\sin i \sin 2i_3 \left[\begin{aligned} &\left(1 + \cos i\right)^2 \sin(2\omega + \Delta\Omega) - \left(1 - \cos i\right)^2 \sin(2\omega - \Delta\Omega) \end{aligned} \right] \\ &+ \left(\frac{1}{8}\right) \left[\begin{aligned} &\left(1 + \cos i\right)^2 \left(1 + \cos i_3\right)^2 \sin 2(u_3 - \omega - \Delta\Omega) \\ &+ \left(1 - \cos i\right)^2 \left(1 - \cos i_3\right)^2 \sin 2(u_3 - \omega + \Delta\Omega) \\ &-\left(1 - \cos i\right)^2 \left(1 + \cos i_3\right)^2 \sin 2(u_3 + \omega - \Delta\Omega) \\ &-\left(1 + \cos i\right)^2 \left(1 - \cos i_3\right)^2 \sin 2(u_3 + \omega + \Delta\Omega) \end{aligned} \right] \\ &+ \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)\sin^2 i \sin^2 i_3 \left[\sin 2(u_3 - \omega) - \sin 2(u_3 + \omega) \right] \\ &+ \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\sin i \sin i_3 \left[\begin{aligned} &\left(1 + \cos i\right) \left(1 + \cos i_3\right) \sin(2u_3 - 2\omega - \Delta\Omega) \\ &+ \left(1 - \cos i\right) \left(1 - \cos i_3\right) \sin(2u_3 - 2\omega + \Delta\Omega) \\ &+ \left(1 - \cos i\right) \left(1 + \cos i_3\right) \sin(2u_3 + 2\omega - \Delta\Omega) \\ &+ \left(1 + \cos i\right) \left(1 - \cos i_3\right) \sin(2u_3 + 2\omega + \Delta\Omega) \end{aligned} \right] \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (50)$$

$$IMC = \left\{ \begin{aligned} &-\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\sin i \sin 2i_3 \left[\cos(2\omega - \Delta\Omega) + \cos(2\omega + \Delta\Omega) \right] \\ &+ \cos i \left[\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\sin^2 i_3 - 1 \right] \cos 2\omega \\ &+ \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\sin^2 i_3 \left[\begin{aligned} &\left(1 + \cos i\right) \cos 2(\omega + \Delta\Omega) - \left(1 - \cos i\right) \cos 2(\omega - \Delta\Omega) \end{aligned} \right] \\ &+ \left(\frac{1}{8}\right)\sin^2 i_3 \left[\begin{aligned} &\left(1 + \cos i\right) \left(1 + \cos i_3\right)^2 \cos 2(u_3 - \omega - \Delta\Omega) \\ &+ \left(1 - \cos i\right) \left(1 - \cos i_3\right)^2 \cos 2(u_3 - \omega + \Delta\Omega) \\ &-\left(1 - \cos i\right) \left(1 + \cos i_3\right)^2 \cos 2(u_3 + \omega - \Delta\Omega) \\ &+ \left(1 + \cos i\right) \left(1 - \cos i_3\right)^2 \cos 2(u_3 + \omega + \Delta\Omega) \end{aligned} \right] \\ &+ \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\sin i \sin i_3 \left[\begin{aligned} &\left(1 + \cos i_3\right) \cos(2u_3 - 2\omega - \Delta\Omega) + \cos(2u_3 + 2\omega - \Delta\Omega) \\ &-\left(1 - \cos i_3\right) \cos(2u_3 - 2\omega + \Delta\Omega) + \cos(2u_3 + 2\omega + \Delta\Omega) \end{aligned} \right] \\ &-\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\cos i \sin^2 i_3 \left[\cos 2(u_3 - \omega) + \cos 2(u_3 + \omega) \right] \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (51)$$

$$IMO = \left(\frac{1}{4}\right) \times \left\{ \begin{aligned} &\sin^2 i_3 \left[\begin{aligned} &\left(1 - \cos i\right)^2 \sin 2(\omega - \Delta\Omega) \\ &-\left(1 + \cos i\right)^2 \sin 2(\omega + \Delta\Omega) \end{aligned} \right] \\ &+ \sin i \sin 2i_3 \left[\begin{aligned} &\left(1 + \cos i\right) \sin(2\omega + \Delta\Omega) + \left(1 - \cos i\right) \sin(2\omega - \Delta\Omega) \end{aligned} \right] \\ &+ \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \left[\begin{aligned} &\left(1 + \cos i^2\right) \left(1 + \cos i_3\right)^2 \sin 2(u_3 - \omega - \Delta\Omega) \\ &-\left(1 - \cos i^2\right) \left(1 - \cos i_3\right)^2 \sin 2(u_3 - \omega + \Delta\Omega) \\ &+ \left(1 - \cos i^2\right) \left(1 + \cos i_3\right)^2 \sin 2(u_3 + \omega - \Delta\Omega) \\ &-\left(1 + \cos i^2\right) \left(1 - \cos i_3\right)^2 \sin 2(u_3 + \omega + \Delta\Omega) \end{aligned} \right] \\ &+ \sin i \sin i_3 \left[\begin{aligned} &\left(1 + \cos i\right) \left(1 + \cos i_3\right) \sin(2u_3 - 2\omega + \Delta\Omega) \\ &-\left(1 - \cos i\right) \left(1 - \cos i_3\right) \sin(2u_3 - 2\omega - \Delta\Omega) \\ &-\left(1 - \cos i\right) \left(1 + \cos i_3\right) \sin(2u_3 + 2\omega - \Delta\Omega) \\ &+ \left(1 + \cos i\right) \left(1 - \cos i_3\right) \sin(2u_3 + 2\omega + \Delta\Omega) \end{aligned} \right] \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (52)$$

$$\begin{aligned} IMW &= \frac{\partial(A^2 - B^2)}{\partial \omega}; \quad IPO = \frac{\partial(A^2 + B^2)}{\partial \Omega} \\ IPS &= \frac{\partial(A^2 + B^2)}{\partial \sin i}; \quad IPC = \frac{\partial(A^2 + B^2)}{\partial \cos i} \\ IMS &= \frac{\partial(A^2 - B^2)}{\partial \sin i}; \quad IMC = \frac{\partial(A^2 - B^2)}{\partial \cos i} \\ IMO &= \frac{\partial(A^2 - B^2)}{\partial \Omega} \end{aligned} \quad (53)$$

6- Earth Solid Tides

The Sun and Moon's gravitational forces cause the Earth to experience solid tides, resulting in changes in its shape similar to an elastic body. The potential function and the harmonics of Earth's gravity will undergo changes from the normal mode.

Earth experiences 3.5 times more gravitational force from the Moon than the Moon experiences from the Earth, and 2 times more than the Sun's gravitational force. The impact of the Moon's gravity on Earth is vital compared to the Sun's. A potential function presents changes over time that depend on spherical gravity harmonics. Most articles and patterns give more importance to the gravitational effect of the Moon, whereas [38] and this article present both the effects of the Sun and the Moon's gravity simultaneously.

Table 1. Gravitational forces applied to the Moon and Earth by the gravitation body

Moon's Gravitational force due to the Earth	1.82×10 ¹⁸ N
Earth's Gravitational force due to the Moon	6.69×10 ¹⁸ N
Earth's Gravitational force due to the Sun	3.02×10 ¹⁸ N

$$V = k_2 \frac{R^5}{a^3} (1 - e^2)^{-3/2} \times \left\{ m_m n_m^2 \left(\frac{a_m}{r_m^*} \right)^3 W_m + m_s n_s^2 \left(\frac{a_s}{r_s^*} \right)^3 W_s \right\} \quad (54)$$

that indicators W_s and W_m will be the Moon and Sun effects and in the equation (56), f_m^* and ω_m are respectively the true anomaly and argument of perigee of the Moon

$$\begin{aligned} W_m = & \frac{1}{4} \left(1 - \frac{3}{2} \sin^2 i \right) \left(1 - \frac{3}{2} \sin^2 i_m \right) \\ & + \frac{3}{16} \sin 2i \sin 2i_m \cos \theta_m + \frac{3}{16} \sin^2 i \sin^2 i_m \cos 2\theta \\ & + \frac{3}{8} \sin^2 i_m \left(1 - \frac{3}{2} \sin^2 i \right) \cos 2(f_m^* + \omega_m) \\ & + \frac{3}{8} \sin^2 i \cos^4 \frac{i_m}{2} \cos 2(f_m^* + \omega_m - \theta_m) \\ & - \frac{3}{8} \sin 2i \sin i_m \cos^2 \frac{i_m}{2} \cos(2f_m^* + 2\omega_m - \theta_m) \\ & + \frac{3}{8} \sin^2 i \cos^4 \frac{i_m}{2} \cos 2(f_m^* + \omega_m + \theta_m) \\ & + \frac{3}{8} \sin 2i \sin i_m \sin^2 \frac{i_m}{2} \cos(2f_m^* + 2\omega_m + \theta_m) \end{aligned} \quad (55)$$

If the alteration in the shape of the Earth occurs entirely along the line connecting the Moon and Earth or the line connecting the Sun and the Earth, and there is no variation in the phase, then we can apply the parameters in the equation (56) in this manner:

$$\begin{cases} a_m / r_m^* = a_s / r_s^* \\ f_m^* + \omega_m = \lambda_m \\ f_s^* + \omega_s = \lambda_s \\ \theta = \theta_m = \theta_s = \Omega \end{cases} \quad (56)$$

By utilizing the potential function and the Lagrange equations, we can study and model the variations in perturbed orbital elements as opposed to changes in the Earth's shape due to gravitational forces from the Sun and Moon. Different sources such as [60] have presented the pattern of solid tides on Earth and their effects on the perturbed acceleration in the inertial system. [60] have explained how the potential function is affected by changes in the Earth's shape and how this affects the spherical gravity harmonics coefficient.

Disturbed acceleration in an inertia system for analyzing the Cowell method, expressed, and it leads to an equation (57),

$$\ddot{\vec{r}}_{Tide} = \frac{3}{2} \frac{\mu}{|\vec{r}_{s,m}|^3} \frac{R_e^5}{|\vec{r}|^4} \left[\frac{(1 - 5 \cos^2 \theta) \vec{r}}{|\vec{r}|} + 5 \cos \theta \frac{\vec{r}_{s,m}}{|\vec{r}_{s,m}|} \right] \quad (57)$$

In which index S and m indicate the effects of the Sun and the Moon, and this pattern only consists of J_2 major effects and θ is the angle between the satellite position vector \vec{r} and the Sun or Moon position vector $\vec{r}_{s,m}$ in an inertial system and R_e is the radius of the Earth at the equator.

7- General relativity effects

The general theory of relativity proposed by Einstein revealed that Newton's law of gravitation is not precise and requires revision in extremely strong gravitational fields. According to Newton, light always moves in a straight line, but Einstein proved that when light passes near an object with a significant gravitational field, its direction is shifted.

In the Earth's reference frame, the primary relativistic effects affecting satellite trajectories can be categorized into three main components. The first is the Schwarzschild effect, caused by Earth's static gravitational field. The second is the Lense-Thirring effect (or frame-dragging), arising from Earth's rotation distorting spacetime and the third is the de Sitter effect (geodetic precession), resulting from Earth's orbital motion around the Sun.

$$\begin{aligned} \ddot{\vec{r}}_{Rel} = & -\frac{\mu}{c^2 |\vec{r}|^3} \left[\left(4 \frac{\mu}{|\vec{r}|} - \gamma |\dot{\vec{r}}|^2 \right) \vec{r} + 4 (\vec{r} \cdot \dot{\vec{r}}) \dot{\vec{r}} \right] + \\ & \frac{2\mu}{c^2 |\vec{r}|^3} \left[\frac{3}{|\vec{r}|^2} (\vec{r} \times \dot{\vec{r}}) (\vec{r} \times \vec{J}) + (\dot{\vec{r}} \times \vec{J}) \right] + \\ & 3 \left[\vec{R}_s \times \left(\frac{\mu_s \times \vec{R}_s}{c^2 |\vec{R}_s|^3} \right) \right] \times \dot{\vec{r}} \end{aligned} \quad (58)$$

The first line describes the so-called Schwarzschild term, the second is the frame-dragging gravitomagnetic Lense-Thirring effect, whereas the third corresponds to the de Sitter effect.

Many analyses, particularly those examining the contributions of these effects in GNSS satellites, indicate that the first effect (Schwarzschild) is significantly more substantial than the subsequent two. On Galileo satellites E14, the Schwarzschild accelerations on Galileo E14 range between 123.3×10^{-12} and $388.3 \times 10^{-12} \text{ m} \cdot \text{s}^{-2}$, see Fig. 1. The de Sitter accelerations are between -5.6×10^{-12} and $-25.3 \times 10^{-12} \text{ m} \cdot \text{s}^{-2}$, whereas Lense-Thirring are between 0.7×10^{-12} and $4.6 \times 10^{-12} \text{ m} \cdot \text{s}^{-2}$. Hence, for Galileo satellites, the Schwarzschild accelerations introduce stronger perturbations than de Sitter and the Lense-Thirring effect by two and one order of magnitude, respectively. Therefore, in this study, we

focus on the first effect, and the derivation of the equations is based on this consideration [47].

General relativity summarizes that mass tells space-time how to curve. Using of general relativity theory equations allows modeling of this question, which is unanalyzable by Newton's laws. In [45] A perturbed potential function resulting from general relativity effects is explained. [61] The study contains the development of a perturbed force component based on Gauss equations.

$$R = \frac{c^2 m^2}{r^2} \left(\frac{2}{r} + \frac{1 - e^2 + 4e^2 \sin^2 \theta}{p} \right) + \frac{4}{5} c p^{1/2} m^{3/2} \omega_0 R_e^2 \cos i \frac{1}{r^4} - \frac{2m\omega_0^2 R_e^2}{5r^2} + \frac{3m\omega_0^2 R_e^4}{35r^4} [3\sin^2(\omega + \theta)\sin^2 i - 1] \quad (59)$$

$$S = \frac{4c^2 m^2}{r^3} e \sin \theta - \frac{4}{5} c p^{-1/2} m^{3/2} \omega_0 R_e^2 e \cos i \sin \theta \frac{1}{r^3} - \frac{6}{35} m \omega_0^2 R_e^4 \sin^2 i \sin(\omega + \theta) \cos(\omega + \theta) \frac{1}{r^4} \quad (60)$$

$$W = \frac{4}{5} c p^{-1/2} m^{3/2} \omega_0 R_e^2 \sin i \frac{1}{r^3} \times \left[\begin{array}{l} -e \sin \omega + \\ (2 + 3e \cos \theta) \sin(\omega + \theta) \end{array} \right] - \frac{6}{35} m \omega_0^2 R_e^4 \sin i \cos i \sin(\omega + \theta) \frac{1}{r^4} \quad (61)$$

Thus, assume c the speed of light, R_e the Earth's radius and ω_0 angular speed of Earth's rotation

$$\frac{d\Omega}{d\theta} = \frac{\sin(\omega + \theta)}{c^2 m p \sin i} r^3 W \quad (62)$$

$$\frac{di}{d\theta} = \frac{\cos(\omega + \theta)}{c^2 m p} r^3 W \quad (63)$$

$$\frac{d\omega}{d\theta} = -\frac{\cos \theta}{c^2 m e} r^2 R + \frac{(2 + e \cos \theta) \sin \theta}{c^2 m p e} r^3 S - \frac{\sin(\omega + \theta) \cot i}{c^2 m p} r^3 W \quad (64)$$

$$\frac{dM}{d\theta} = -\frac{(1 - e^2)^{1/2}}{c^2 m p e} (2e - \cos \theta - e \cos^2 \theta) r^3 R - \frac{(1 - e^2)^{1/2}}{c^2 m p e} (2 + e \cos \theta) \sin \theta r^3 S \quad (65)$$

$$\frac{dt}{d\theta} = \frac{r^2}{c m^{1/2} p^{1/2}} ; \quad n = c m^{1/2} p^{-3/2} (1 - e^2)^{3/2} \quad (66)$$

The Cowell method in orbital elements variation can be used to study the effect of relativistic effects based on perturbed acceleration in the inertial frame [47] and [59].

8- Albedo

Satellites are subject to indirect solar radiation effects, as well as direct effects called Albedo. The satellite is affected by this effect caused by the reflection of direct solar radiation from the Earth, and is greatly influenced by factors such as clouds and atmosphere. According to most references, including [55], these radiations are found along the radiant and consist of approximately 30% direct solar radiation. Assuming the above, we can analyze the effect of the albedo pattern using Gauss equations.

$$f_r|_{albedo} = 0.3; f_i = 0; f_n = 0 \quad (67)$$

9- Fundamental Theory of Orbit Perturbations

Generally, the equations and analysis methods for disturbed orbital effects are divided into three categories: Lagrange equations, equations of Gauss, and Cowell's method. Lagrange equations use a disturbed potential function V specific to conservative forces, analyzing non-conservative forces impossible. The satellite is subject to a constant gravitational parameter $-\dot{1}/r^3$ at all times. The perturbed force on the satellite is believed to be a gradient of a potential function. The partial derivatives of the disturbed potential function are assumed to be equal to the perturbed acceleration.

$$\ddot{\vec{r}} = -\mu \frac{\vec{r}}{r^3} + \nabla F ; V = -F \quad (68)$$

Thus, according to [55] and [58], Lagrange disturbed differential equations are:

$$\dot{a} = -\frac{2}{na} \frac{\partial F}{\partial M} \quad (69)$$

$$\dot{e} = \frac{1-e^2}{na^2e} \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial M} - (1-e^2)^{-1/2} \frac{\partial F}{\partial \omega} \right) \quad (70)$$

$$\dot{i} = \frac{1}{na^2\sqrt{1-e^2}} \left(\cot i \frac{\partial F}{\partial \omega} - \csc i \frac{\partial F}{\partial \Omega} \right) \quad (71)$$

$$\dot{\omega} = -\frac{(1-e^2)^{1/2}}{na^2e} \frac{\partial F}{\partial e} - \frac{\cot i}{na^2(1-e^2)^{1/2}} \frac{\partial F}{\partial i} \quad (72)$$

$$\dot{\Omega} = \frac{\csc i}{na^2(1-e^2)^{1/2}} \frac{\partial F}{\partial i} \quad (73)$$

$$\dot{M} = n - \frac{2}{na} \frac{\partial F}{\partial a} - \frac{1-e^2}{na^2e} \frac{\partial F}{\partial e} \quad (74)$$

$$\ddot{\vec{r}} = -\mu \frac{\vec{r}}{r^3} + \nabla F \quad ; \quad V = -F \quad (75)$$

The Gauss equation states that the perturbed forces can be both conservative and non-conservative. If the components of the disturbed forces are available on 3 along the radial \vec{f}_r , tangential \vec{f}_t and \vec{f}_n perpendicular to the orbit, you can analyze the orbital elements by Gauss equations, and the process of equation production is mentioned in [51] and [52] by details.

$$\dot{a} = -\frac{2a^2}{\sqrt{\mu P}} \{f_r e \sin \theta + f_t (1 + e \cos \theta)\} \quad (76)$$

$$\dot{e} = \sqrt{\frac{P}{\mu}} [f_r \sin \theta + f_t (\cos \theta + \cos E)] \quad (77)$$

$$\dot{\Omega} \sin i = (\mu P)^{-1/2} r f_n \sin u \quad (78)$$

$$\dot{i} = (\mu P)^{-1/2} r f_n \cos u \quad (79)$$

$$\dot{\omega} + \dot{\Omega} \cos i = \frac{1}{e} \left(\frac{P}{\mu} \right)^{1/2} \left\{ -f_r \cos \theta + f_t \left(1 + \frac{r}{P} \right) \sin \theta \right\} \quad (80)$$

$$\dot{M} = n + \frac{1-e^2}{nae} \left\{ \left[\frac{-2e}{1+e \cos(\theta)} + \cos(\theta) \right] f_r - \left[1 + \frac{1}{1+e \cos(\theta)} \right] \sin(\theta) f_t \right\} \quad (81)$$

We can investigate the change of orbital elements by solving the main equation, including disturbed acceleration in the inertial system, with the Cowell method (70). However, the initial conditions to solve the main equation in the inertial frame are the vectors \vec{r}_0 and $\dot{\vec{r}}_0$. So at the beginning, we have to transform the initial conditions of orbital elements $(a_0, e_0, i_0, \omega_0, \Omega_0, \theta_0)$ to the position vector of \vec{r}_0 , and initial speed $\dot{\vec{r}}_0$ in an inertial system, then solving the equation (69) and by instant producing \vec{r} and $\dot{\vec{r}}$ in an inertial system, we can transform vectors \vec{r} and $\dot{\vec{r}}$ with another process to orbital elements $(a, e, i, \omega, \Omega, \theta)$ which is stated by detail in [62] and [63].

10- Simulation

Three orbit types have been studied and simulated to investigate all the discussed perturbation influences in this paper. "Table 2" Characteristic and a collective feature based on an artificial satellite can be found in the three types orbit studied.

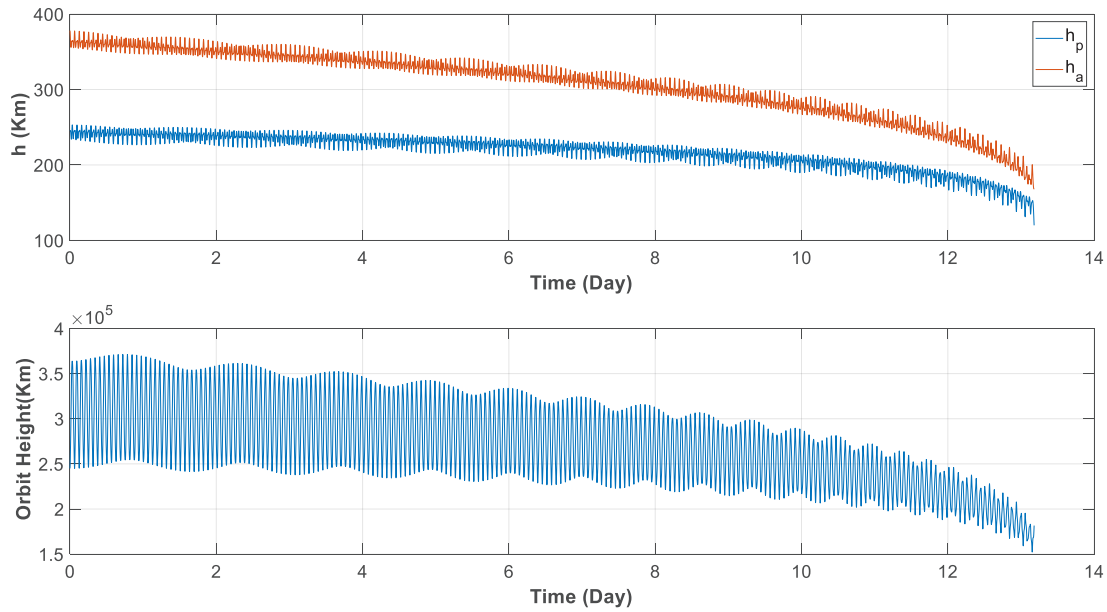
The initial parameters for solving the perturbed equation are identical to the initial conditions of the orbits. The selected time is chosen for the actual detumbling process time of a sample LEO satellite, which lasts about 4 orbits, and has no other reason. Changes in all the graphs of \mathbf{a} are measured in meters, while changes in (i, Ω, ω, M) are measured in degrees. All charts show the deviation of orbital elements from their initial value $(\alpha - \alpha_0)$. Simulations have been

Table 2. Characteristics of the orbits

Properties	Orbit A	Orbit B	Orbit C
	LEO (km)	MEO(km)	GPS(km)
i=55°	h _p =245	r _p =11940	r _p =20138
$\omega = \Omega = 0$	h _a =378	r _a =12060	r _a =20225
m = 27 Kg	a=6689.63	a=12000	a=20182
Dim: 40Cm ³	e=0.00994	e=0.005	e=0.00218

Table 3. Initial estimates of orbit lifetime (days) ($M=16\text{kg}$; $S=0.16\text{m}^2$)

	$F_{10.7}=250$	$F_{10.7}=180$	$F_{10.7}=120$	$F_{10.7}=80$
$C_d=2$	17	25	39	60
$C_d=2.2$	16	23	35	55
$C_d=2.4$	14	21	33	50
$C_d=2.6$	13	19	29	46

**Fig. 1. Sample variation of orbit height, h_p and h_a during lifetime ($C_d=2.6$, $F_{10.7}=250$)**

executed in the Simulink environment. The choice between explicit and implicit methods depends on the stiffness of the problem, computational efficiency, and accuracy requirements. For most orbital mechanics problems (e.g., satellite propagation, interplanetary trajectories, use ODE45 (RK4) or ODE113 (Adams). For stiff problems (e.g., low-perigee orbits, high eccentricity, drag-dominated cases), use ode15s (BDF) or ODE23t (Trapezoidal). For high-precision long-term simulations (e.g., space debris, lunar missions). In Summary, Explicit methods (ODE45, ODE113) are preferred for most orbital ODE) are needed for stiff cases (e.g., atmospheric drag, high-fidelity perturbations), and Hybrid approaches (e.g., variable-step solvers) often work best in practice. Since this study did not impose specific constraints on computational time, and to prevent unwanted errors in long-term effects, including shadow effects and third-body perturbations, it was decided to use a variable time step for all calculations. The solver was selected automatically.

Numerical simulations demonstrate robust stability with adaptive time-stepping, but enforcing a minimum time step ($\Delta t \geq 1000$ s) in long-term analyses leads to divergence in some cases. This highlights the importance of temporal resolution in maintaining numerical stability, as constrained step sizes can fail to capture critical dynamics, resulting in solution instability over extended durations.

11- Results

Through the utilization of the patterns to examine the effect of perturbations and the simulation output, as indicated in “Figure 1”, one can detect the impact of drag in the LEO orbit, which leads to a decrease in energy and orbit altitude. It is clear that secular changes occur in the semi-major (a) axis and eccentricity (e). Additionally, the sensitivity analysis to variations in the drag coefficient and solar activity sweeping is presented in “Figure 2” and “Figure 3”.

Taking into consideration the regional and meridional

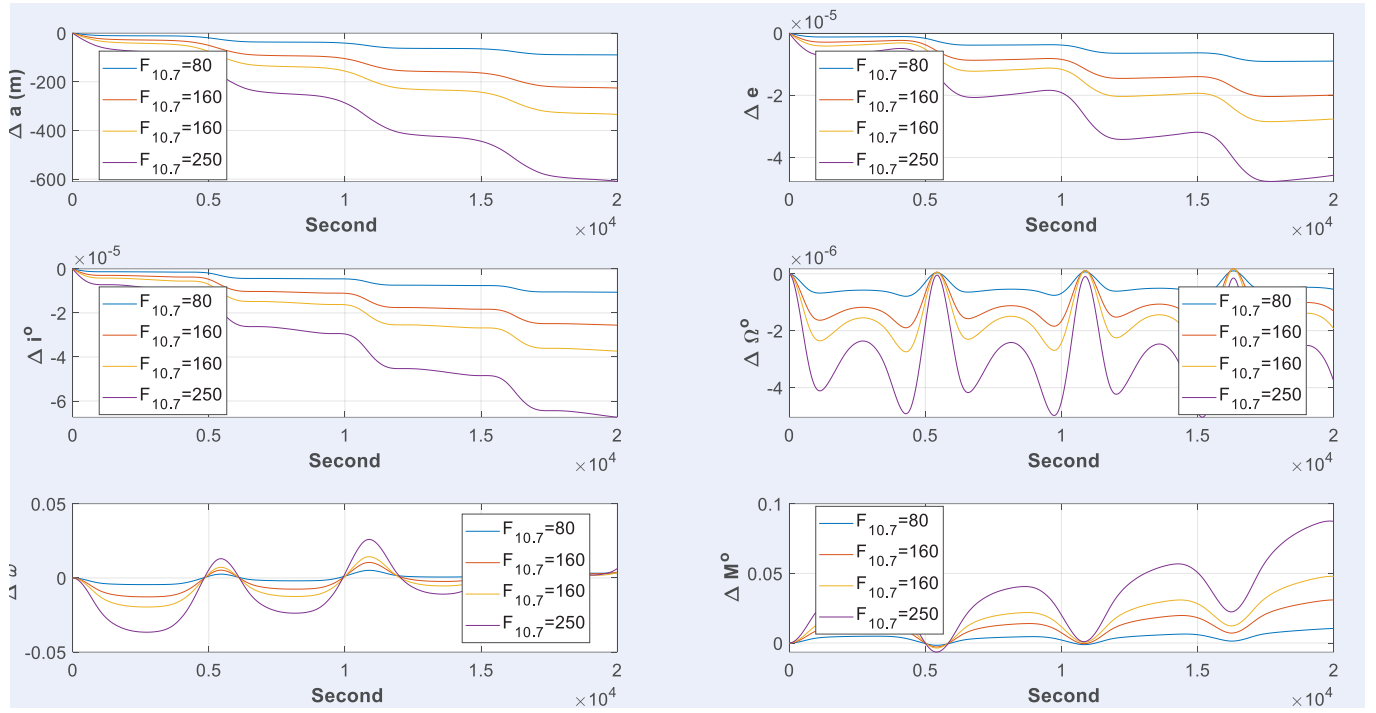


Fig. 2. Variations in OE of Orbit B were evaluated through systematic sweeps of ($F_{10.7}$)

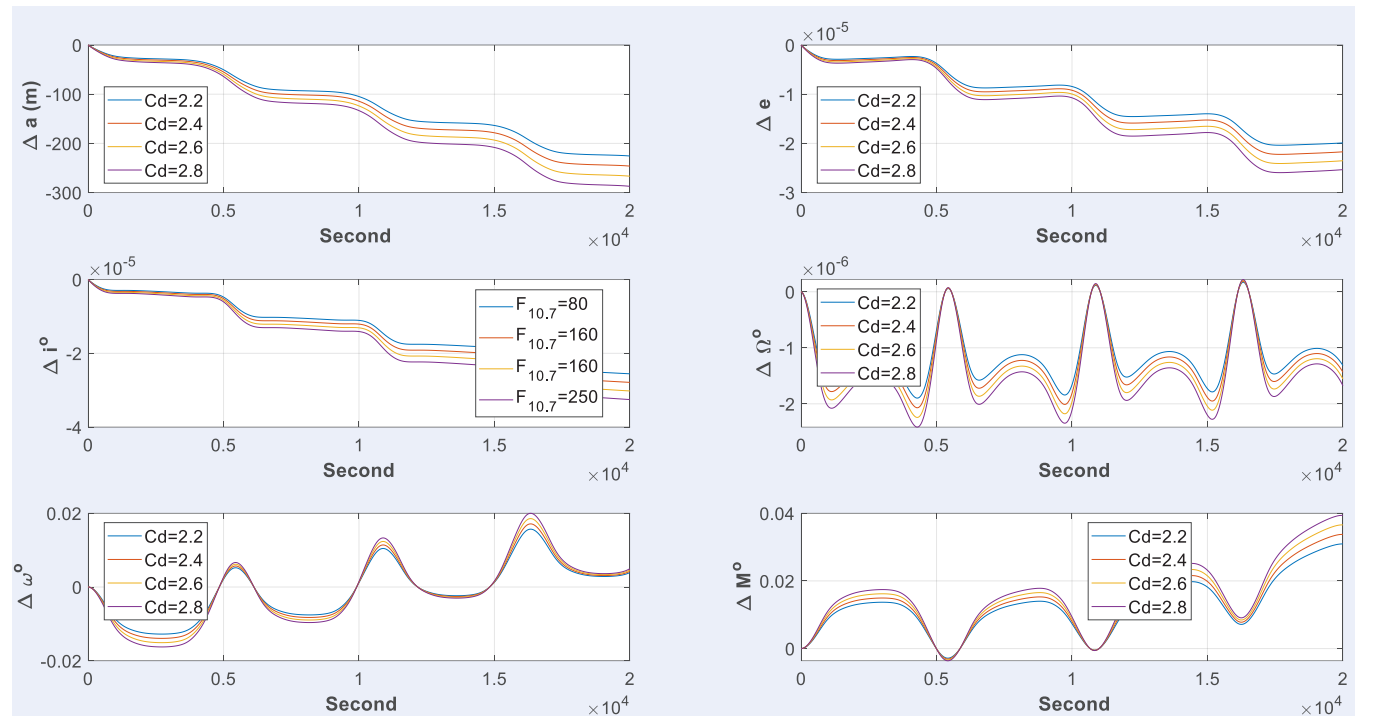


Fig. 3. Variations in OE of Orbit B were evaluated through systematic sweeps of (C_d)

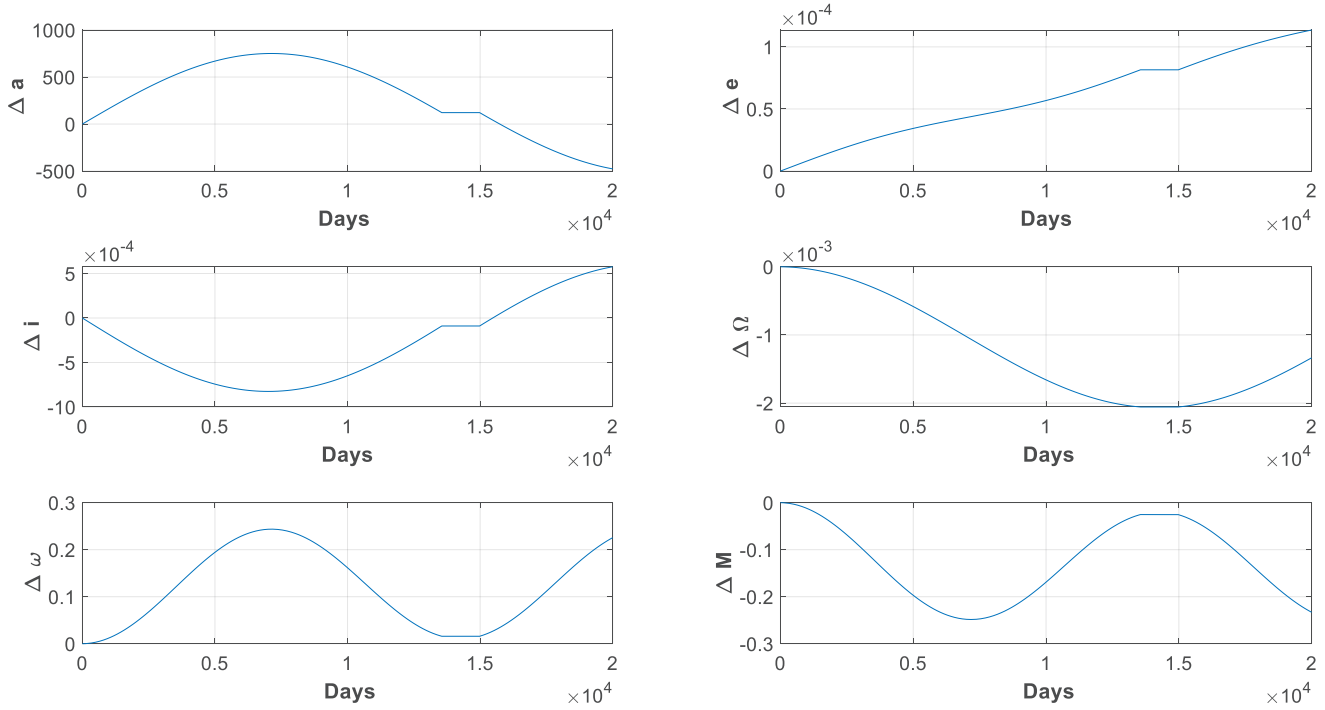


Fig. 4. Variation of OE caused by direct solar radiation in orbit B

winds, it can also be noted that small changes occur in inclination (i) and longitude of ascending node (Ω) that these changes will be of great importance in the long term. Nonetheless, the reduction of orbit altitude may result in a shorter orbit lifetime, particularly for satellites with low eccentricity that have a lifespan ending at an altitude of 120 km. Table 3 demonstrates that if the amount of the drag coefficient (C_d) increases, the lifetime of the satellite decreases, and by increasing the value of the solar flux index ($F_{10.7}$) the lifetime of the satellite would decrease too. For better understanding, due to the dependence of perturbations on orbital height, the variations in orbital elements caused by drag are presented for Orbit A, along with other relevant diagrams for Orbit B.

The impact of direct solar radiation for LEO orbit is shown in “Figure 4” that these changes for the reflection coefficient value of ($C_p = 1$).

Consequently, “Figure 5” displays how the Earth’s oblateness can cause fundamental variations for the secularity of changes (ω, Ω, M) and high periodic changes on (a).

The outcome of the third body, such as the Moon in “Figure 6” and the Sun in “Figure 7”, shows that while these adjustments are slight and the impact of the Moon is much greater, the long-term tendency of changes in the time span is of paramount importance.

The solar and lunar gravitational forces, relative to their positions on the Earth, can impact the Earth’s shape and orbital elements. Depending on the position of the Sun and Moon relative to Earth, their gravity can impact the planet’s

shape. Earth’s solid tides on orbital elements depicts in the “Figure 8” and “Figure 9”.

«Figure 10” displays the effects of general relativity, which have minor changes. However, the impact of solar radiation reflected from the Earth (Albedo) also brings about long-term shifts in semi-major axis and periodic alterations in eccentricity and other orbital elements. This impact, as stated in “Figure 11”, is much smaller than the impact of solar radiation pressure.

“Table 4” to “Table 9” illustrates the most significant fluctuations in orbital elements for three orbit types, rather than all disruptions.

In conclusion, the influence of every disturbance on each orbital element is shown in Figure 12 to Figure 19 separately considering the changes in the type of orbit (A, B & C). A comprehensive analysis will aid in better understanding of these disturbances and their budgets on each orbit element.

12- Conclusions

This study presents a comprehensive analysis of orbital perturbation effects across different altitude regimes, providing significant insights for spacecraft mission design and control. Our investigation reveals that Earth’s oblateness (J_2 effect) represents the dominant perturbation source, with its influence decreasing as orbital altitude increases. Atmospheric drag proves most significant below 600 km, remains considerable up to 1000 km, and becomes negligible beyond this threshold. In contrast, solar radiation pressure emerges as the primary perturbing force in higher

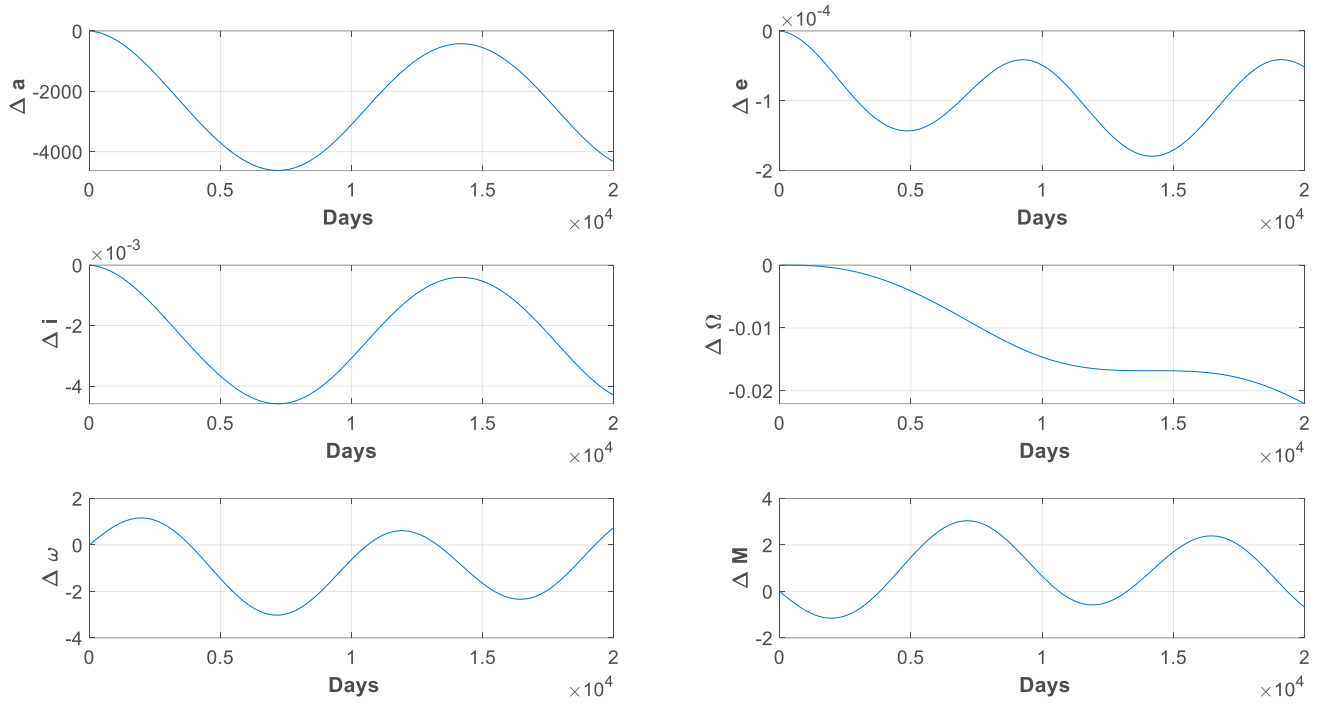


Fig. 5. Variation of OE caused by Earth oblateness up to J10 in orbit B

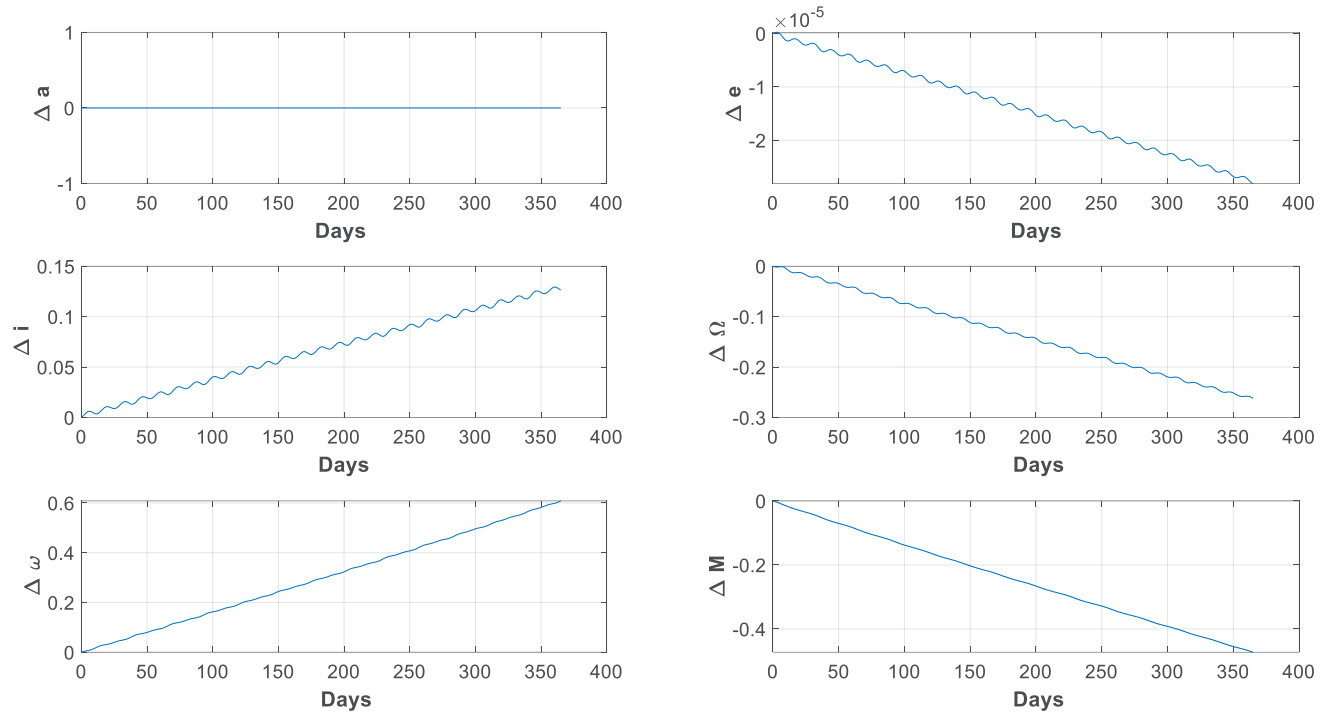


Fig. 6. Variation of OE caused by Moon gravity in orbit B

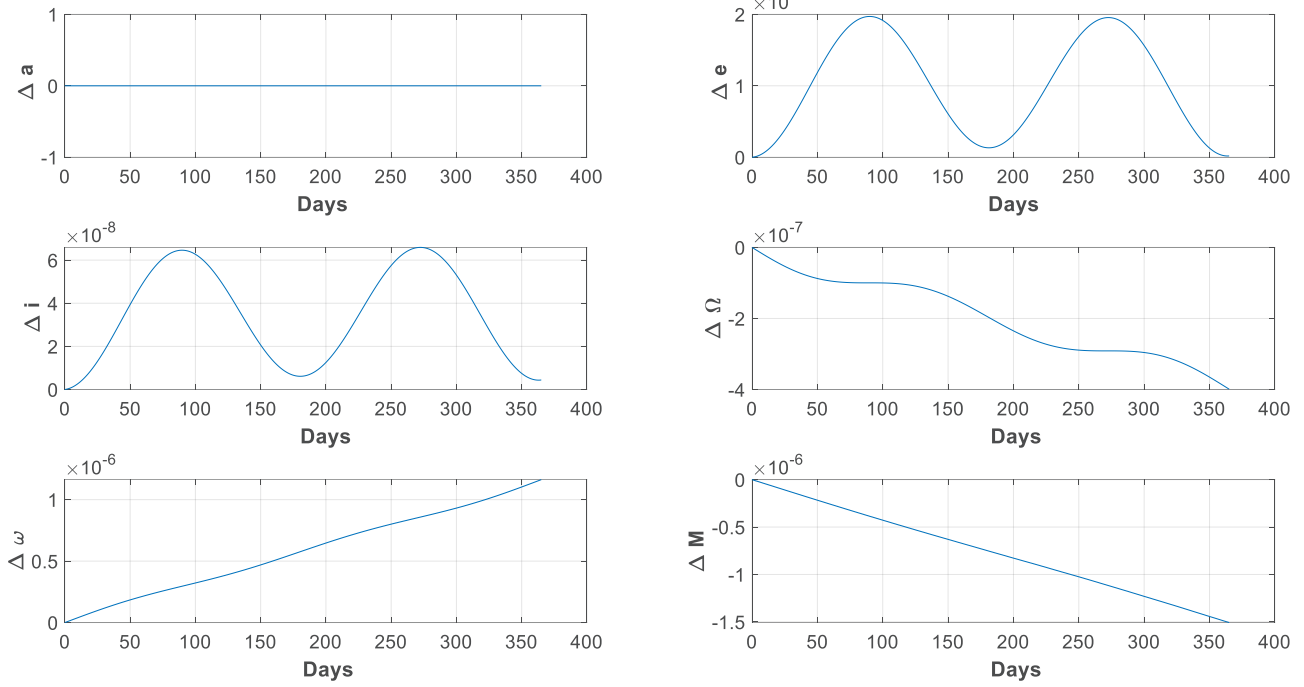


Fig. 7. Variation of OE caused by Sun gravity in orbit B

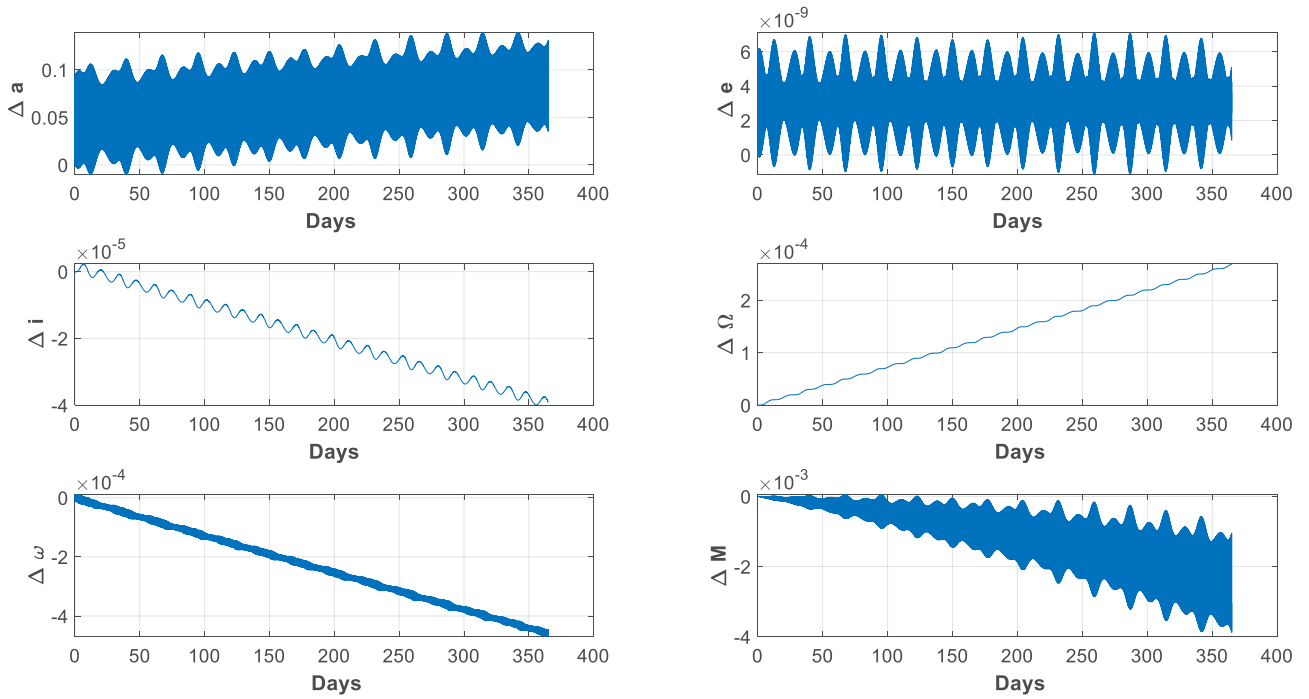


Fig. 8. Variation of OE caused by solid tides due to Moon in orbit B

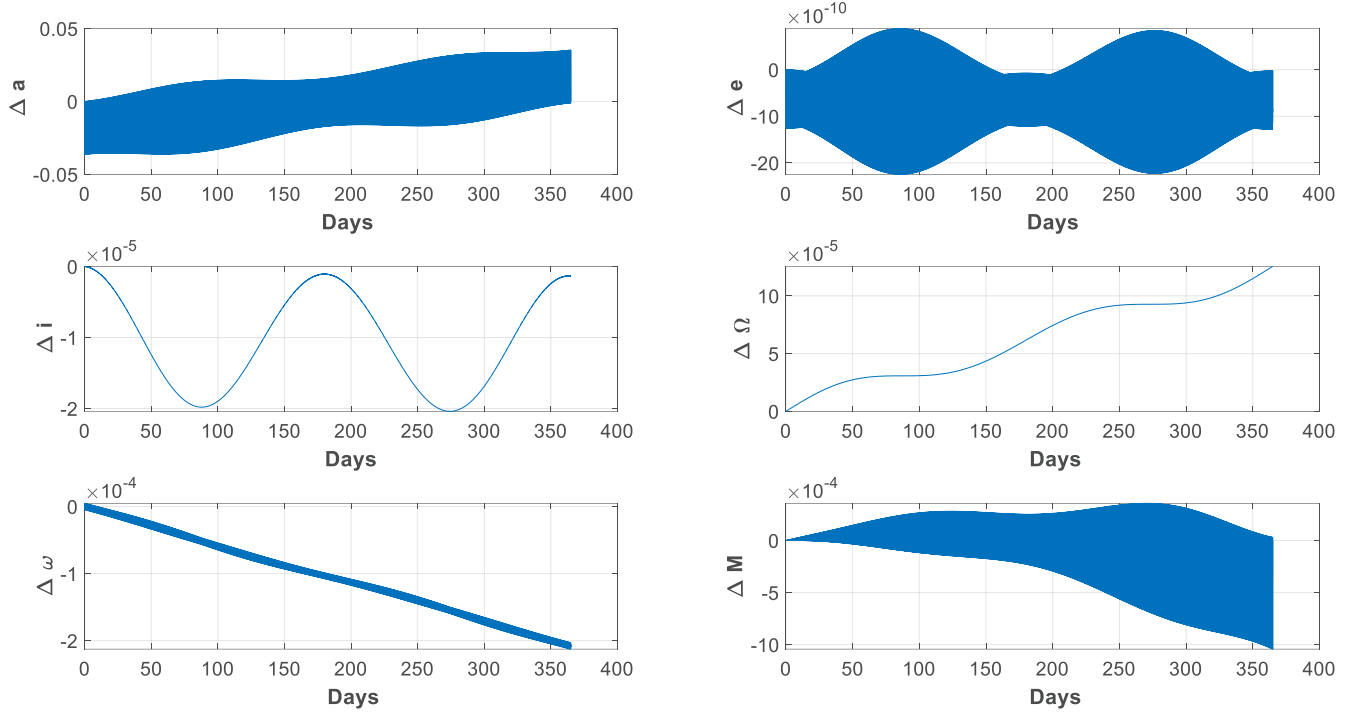


Fig. 9. Variation of OE caused by solid tides due to Sun in orbit B

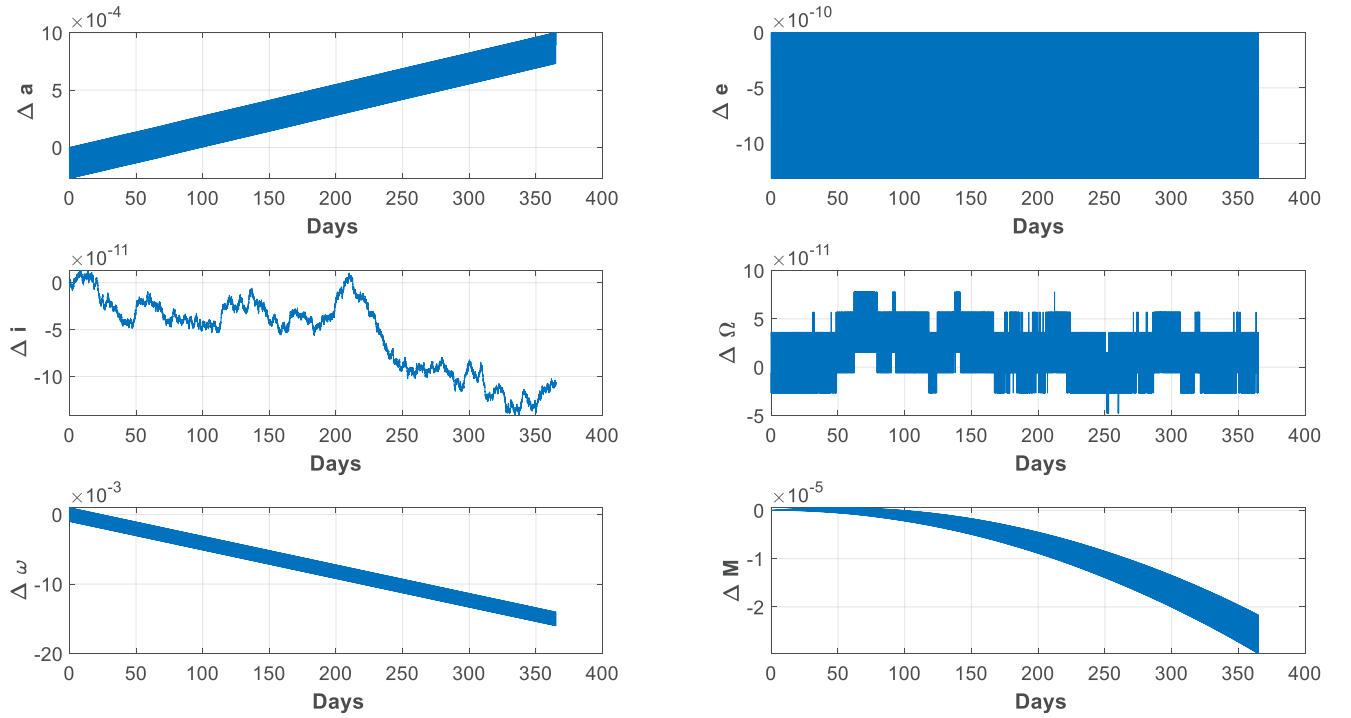


Fig. 10. Variation of OE caused by General Relativity in orbit B

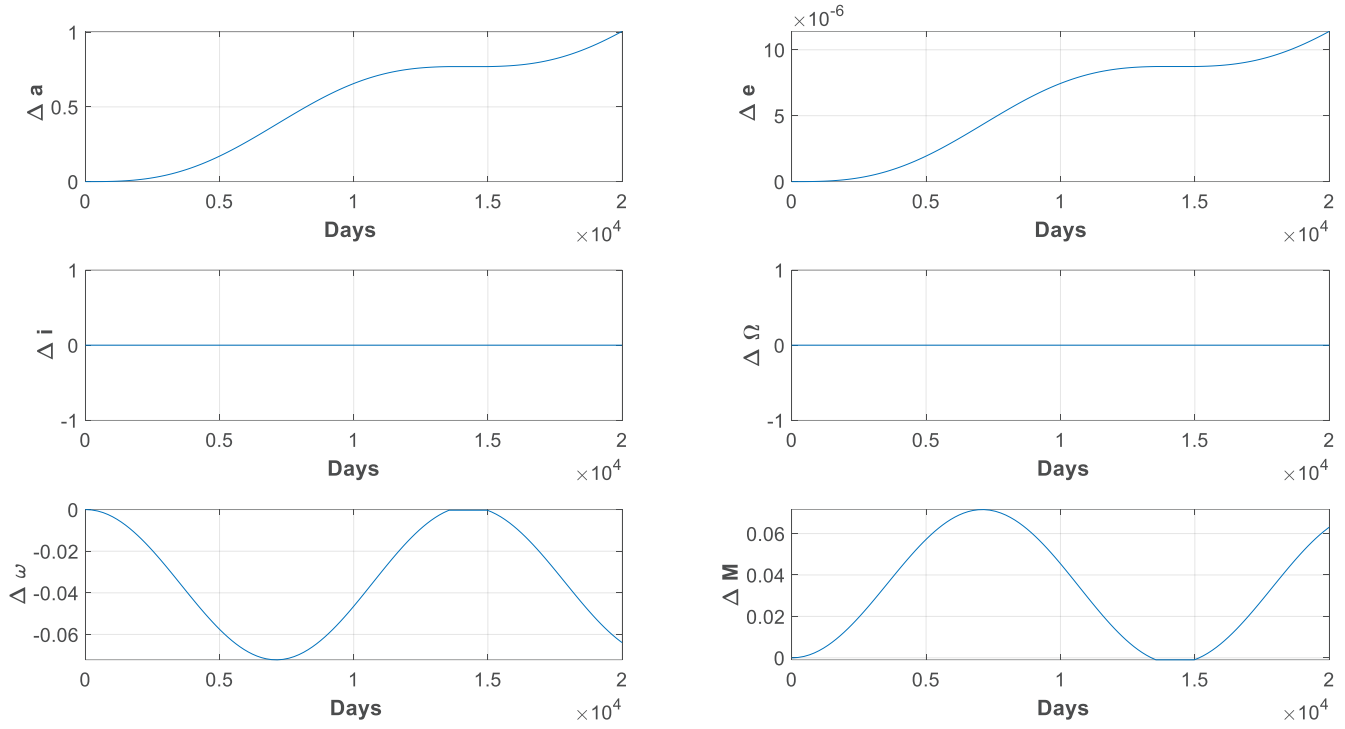


Fig. 11. Variation of OE caused by solar radiation reflected in orbit A

Table 4. Maximum changes of orbital elements in orbit A

Perturbations	Δi°	Δe	Δa (m)
Earth Oblateness ¹	4.6×10^{-2}	1.7×10^{-3}	15427.2
Atmosphere Drag ¹	2.32×10^{-5}	1.85×10^{-5}	205.12
Direct solar radiation ²	3.27×10^{-4}	5.67×10^{-5}	101.432
Moon Gravity ²	4.13×10^{-5}	2.15×10^{-8}	0
Sun Gravity ²	0	0	0
solid tides due to the Moon ³	2.07×10^{-6}	5.54×10^{-8}	0.288
solid tides due to the Sun ³	5.2×10^{-7}	1.51×10^{-8}	0.113
solid tides due to the Sun & Moon ³	2.34×10^{-6}	4.4×10^{-8}	0.179
General relativity ³	3.34×10^{-13}	4.04×10^{-9}	4.7×10^{-3}
Albedo ¹	0	6.77×10^{-6}	0.902

Superscripts: 1. Gauss method, 2. Lagrange method, 3. Cowell method

Table 5. Maximum change of orbital elements in orbit A

Perturbations	ΔM	$\omega\Delta$	$\Omega\Delta$
Earth Oblateness ¹	33.28	30.31	1.1
Atmosphere Drag ¹	3.07×10^{-2}	2.52×10^{-2}	1.88×10^{-6}
Direct solar radiation ²	2×10^{-2}	7.8×10^{-3}	2.21×10^{-4}
Moon Gravity ²	5.65×10^{-5}	7.6×10^{-5}	4.81×10^{-5}
Sun Gravity ²	5.51×10^{-10}	1.8×10^{-10}	9.93×10^{-11}
solid tides due to the Moon ³	7.57×10^{-5}	1.84×10^{-4}	2.37×10^{-7}
solid tides due to the Sun ³	2.85×10^{-10}	9.28×10^{-5}	7.82×10^{-6}
solid tides due to the Sun & Moon ³	4.7×10^{-5}	1.54×10^{-4}	7.6×10^{-6}
General relativity ³	1.2×10^{-6}	2.47×10^{-5}	1.09×10^{-12}
Albedo ¹	1.83×10^{-3}	1.9×10^{-3}	0

Superscripts: 1.Gauss method, 2. Lagrange method, 3.Cowell method

Table 6. Maximum change in orbital elements in orbit B

Perturbations	Δi°	Δe	Δa (m)
Earth Oblateness ¹	1.32×10^{-2}	5.1×10^{-4}	7932.5
Atmosphere Drag ¹	0	0	0
Direct solar radiation ²	5.91×10^{-4}	8.24×10^{-5}	314.66
Moon Gravity ²	9.93×10^{-5}	2.6×10^{-8}	0
Sun Gravity ²	0	0	0
solid tides due to the Moon ³	2.68×10^{-7}	1.72×10^{-8}	0.1576
solid tides due to the Sun ³	1.16×10^{-7}	3.56×10^{-9}	6.07×10^{-2}
solid tides due to the Sun & Moon ³	3.32×10^{-7}	1.37×10^{-8}	9.72×10^{-2}
General relativity ³	3.98×10^{-13}	2.21×10^{-9}	7.09×10^{-4}
Albedo ¹	0	9.23×10^{-6}	1.1088

Superscripts: 1.Gauss method, 2. Lagrange method, 3.Cowell method

Table 7. Maximum changes of orbital elements in orbit B

Perturbations	ΔM	$\omega \Delta$	$\Omega \Delta$
Earth Oblateness ¹	7.94	7.67	0.143
Atmosphere Drag ¹	0	0	0
Direct solar radiation ²	4.63×10^{-2}	4.19×10^{-2}	7.22×10^{-4}
Moon Gravity ²	1.39×10^{-4}	1.77×10^{-4}	1.15×10^{-4}
Sun Gravity ²	4.25×10^{-10}	4.34×10^{-10}	2.42×10^{-10}
solid tides due to the Moon ³	8.94×10^{-6}	1.09×10^{-4}	4.97×10^{-8}
solid tides due to the Sun ³	3.41×10^{-6}	5.51×10^{-5}	1.01×10^{-6}
solid tides due to the Sun & Moon ³	5.53×10^{-6}	8.89×10^{-5}	9.91×10^{-7}
General relativity ³	3.23×10^{-8}	2.55×10^{-5}	1.09×10^{-12}
Albedo ¹	1.13×10^{-2}	1.14×10^{-2}	0

Superscripts: 1.Gauss method, 2. Lagrange method, 3.Cowell method

Table 8. Maximum changes of orbital elements in orbit C

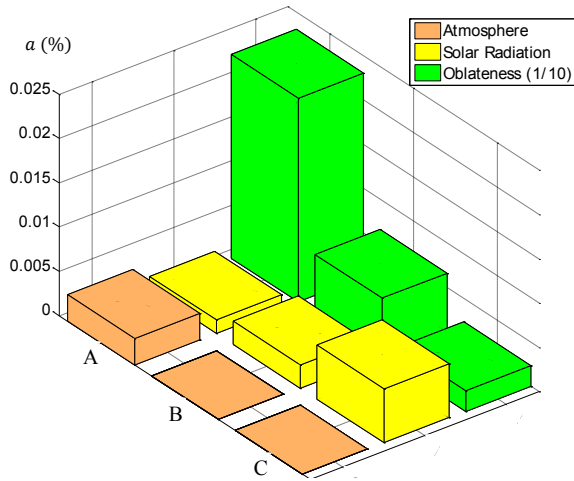
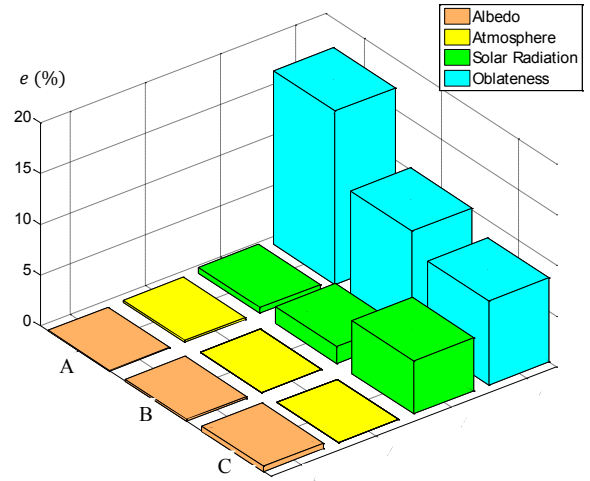
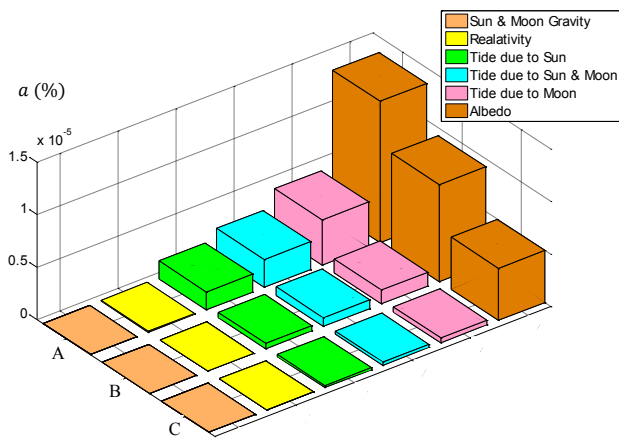
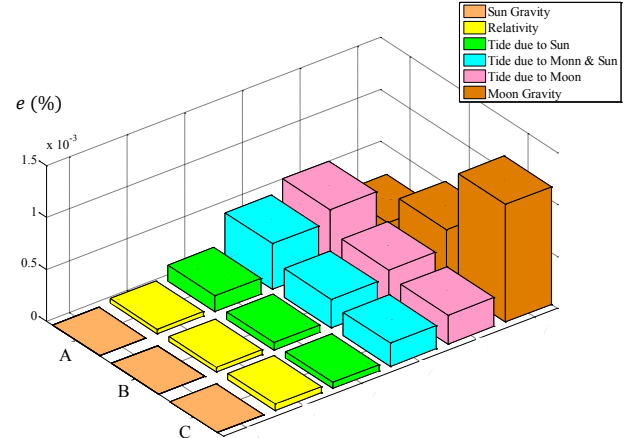
Perturbations	Δi°	Δe	Δa (m)
Earth Oblateness ¹	4.6×10^{-3}	1.79×10^{-4}	4625.1
Atmosphere Drag ¹	0	0	0
Direct solar radiation ²	1.4×10^{-3}	1.13×10^{-4}	1227.1
Moon Gravity ²	2.16×10^{-4}	2.47×10^{-8}	0
Sun Gravity ²	0	1.28×10^{-15}	0
solid tides due to the Moon ³	4.57×10^{-8}	6.09×10^{-9}	9.3×10^{-2}
solid tides due to the Sun ³	3.31×10^{-8}	1.26×10^{-9}	3.6×10^{-2}
solid tides due to the Sun & Moon ³	5.06×10^{-8}	4.82×10^{-9}	5.7×10^{-2}
General relativity ³	4.4×10^{-13}	1.31×10^{-9}	2.56×10^{-4}
Albedo ¹	0	1.14×10^{-5}	1

Superscripts: 1.Gauss method, 2. Lagrange method, 3.Cowell method

Table 9. Maximum changes of orbital elements in orbit C

Perturbations	ΔM	$\omega\Delta$	$\Omega\Delta$
Earth Oblateness ¹	4.19	4.17	2.19×10^{-2}
Atmosphere Drag ¹	0	0	0
Direct solar radiation ²	0.246	0.243	2.1×10^{-3}
Moon Gravity ²	3.34×10^{-4}	4.58×10^{-4}	2.52×10^{-4}
Sun Gravity ²	1.09×10^{-9}	10^{-9}	5.39×10^{-10}
solid tides due to the Moon ³	1.51×10^{-6}	8.79×10^{-5}	1.41×10^{-8}
solid tides due to the Sun ³	5.97×10^{-7}	3.78×10^{-5}	1.55×10^{-7}
solid tides due to the Sun & Moon ³	9.17×10^{-7}	7.1×10^{-5}	1.42×10^{-7}
General relativity ³	3.69×10^{-9}	3.38×10^{-5}	1.45×10^{-12}
Albedo ¹	7.44×10^{-2}	7.22×10^{-2}	0

Superscripts: 1.Gauss method, 2. Lagrange method, 3.Cowell method

**Fig. 12. Orbit perturbation budgeting on (a) in orbit A,B & C****Fig. 14. Orbit perturbation budgeting on (e) in orbit A,B & C****Fig. 13. Orbit perturbation budgeting on (a) in orbit A,B & C****Fig. 15. Orbit perturbation budgeting on (e) in orbit A,B & C**

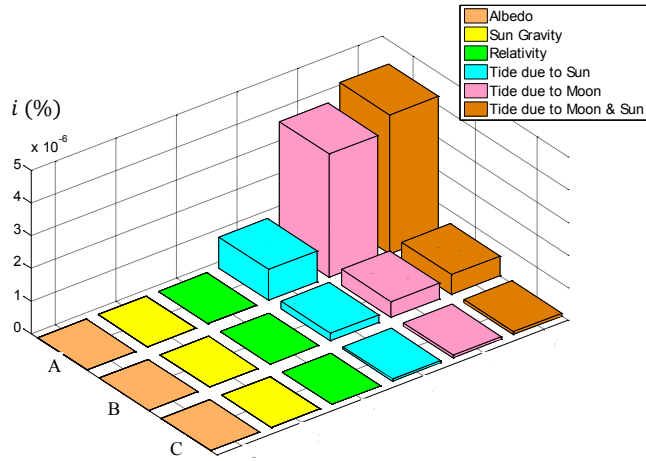


Fig. 16. Orbit perturbation budgeting on (i) in orbit A,B & C

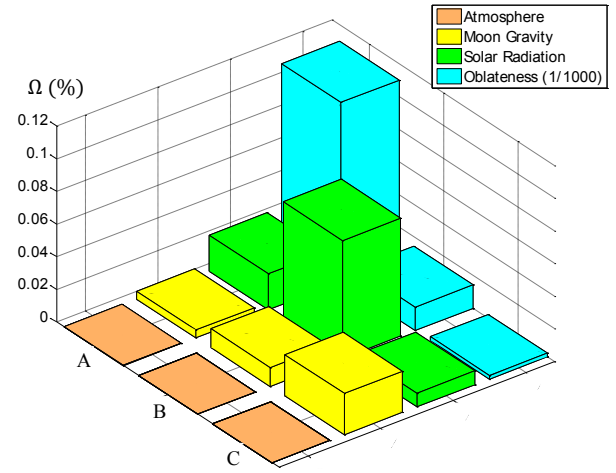


Fig. 19. Orbit perturbation budgeting on (Ω) in orbit A,B & C

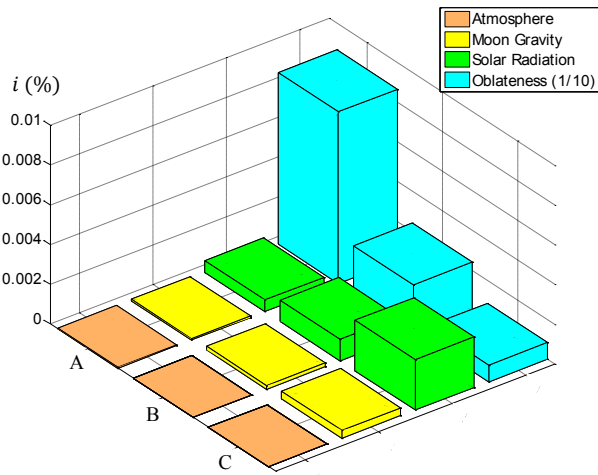


Fig. 17. Orbit perturbation budgeting on (i) in orbit A,B & C

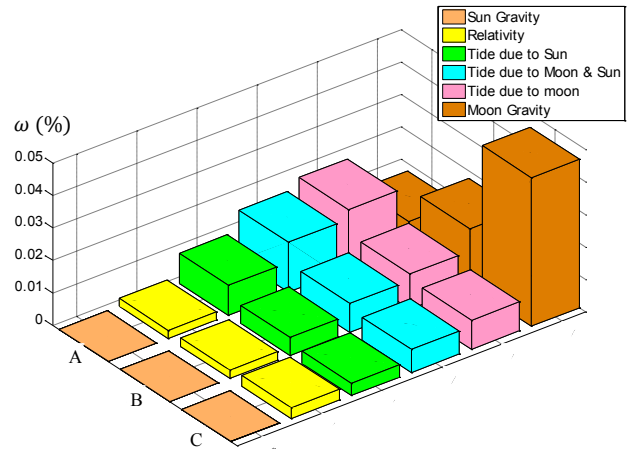


Fig. 20. Orbit perturbation budgeting on (ω) in orbit A,B & C

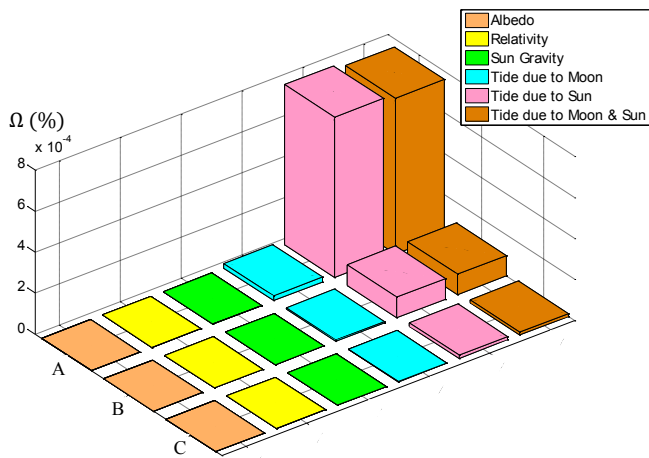


Fig. 18. Orbit perturbation budgeting on (Ω) in orbit A,B & C

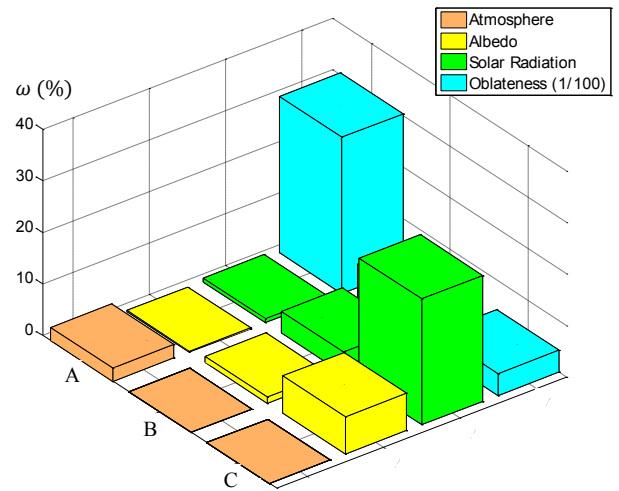


Fig. 21. Orbit perturbation budgeting on (ω) in orbit A,B & C

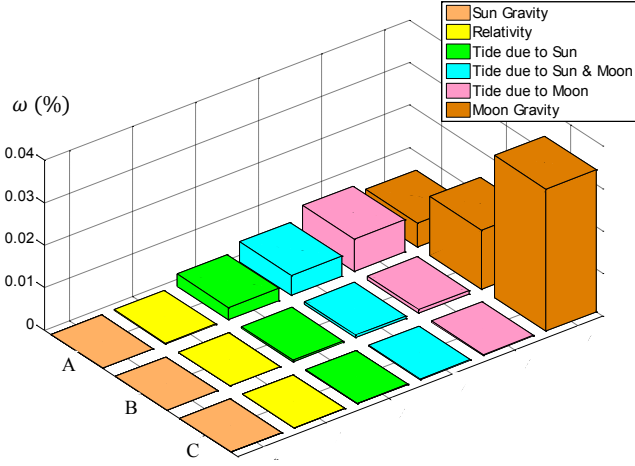


Fig. 22. Orbit perturbation budgeting on (M) in orbit A,B & C

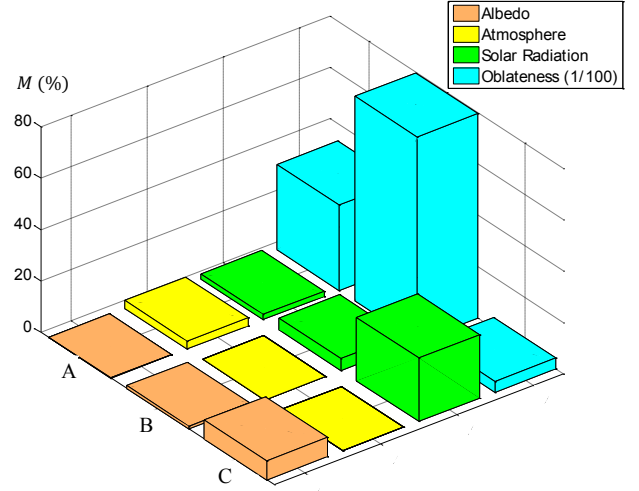


Fig. 23. Orbit perturbation budgeting on (M) in orbit A,B & C

orbits, particularly in GEO and beyond. While third-body gravitational effects from the Sun and Moon exhibit direct proportionality to altitude, relativistic effects and Earth's solid tides demonstrate an inverse relationship with altitude.

These findings have important implications for mission design, particularly for high-precision systems such as spatial telescopes and SAR satellites. Such applications require careful, perturbation-aware design of sensor systems, control architectures, and orbital maintenance strategies. Special consideration must be given to both Nadir-pointing systems, which are vulnerable to perturbation-induced pointing errors, and repeat-ground-track orbits that require precise perturbation compensation. For electric propulsion missions, the study highlights their heightened sensitivity to minor perturbations due to low thrust-to-perturbation ratios and multi-revolution trajectory characteristics. The established perturbation hierarchy enables optimization of thruster sizing, maneuver scheduling, and fuel budgeting.

From a theoretical perspective, this work contributes three key elements: first, a validated perturbation hierarchy for mission designers; second, altitude-dependent quantitative perturbation models; and third, a perturbation-aware control system framework. Practically, the results establish new benchmarks for precision orbital mechanics that are particularly relevant to Earth observation and communication constellations, scientific missions requiring ultra-stable orbits, and future space infrastructure deployment.

Building on these findings, future research will focus on developing optimal LEO-to-GEO transfer trajectories using hybrid electric-chemical propulsion systems. This will involve implementing heuristic optimization techniques for perturbation-compensated trajectory design, multi-objective mission planning, and robust orbital control under uncertainty, with extensions to cis-lunar station-keeping and interplanetary trajectory design. The comprehensive

understanding of altitude-perturbation relationships presented in this work bridges the gap between perturbation theory and mission-ready solutions, offering both fundamental advances and deployable tools for next-generation space systems.

Nomenclature

A	Satellite Area
a	Semi-major Axis
c	Light Speed
C_D	Drag Coefficient
C_{nm}	Tesseral spherical harmonics Coefficient
C_P	Solar Radiation Pressure Coefficient
D	Drag
E	Eccentric Anomaly
e	Eccentricity
F	Solar Flux Index
f_N	Normal Force Component
f_R	Radial Force Component
f_T	Tangential Force Component
F_{SR}	Solar Radiation Force
H	Height
h	Angular Momentum
i	Inclination
M	Mean Anomaly
m	mass
n	Mean Motion
P_n^m	Legendre polynomial Coefficient
P_{SR}	Solar Radiation Pressure

R_E	Earth Radius
r	Radius
r_p	Perigee radius
S_{nm}	Sectorial spherical harmonics Coefficient
V	Velocity
ω	Angular Velocity of Atmosphere
θ	True Anomaly
λ	Longitude
μ	Body Attraction Constant
ρ	Density
v	Satellite Velocity
v_p	Perigee Velocity
ϕ	Longitude
ψ	Angle Between two Body
Ω	Longitude of Ascending Node
ω	Argument of Periapsis
ω_0	Angular Speed of Earth Rotation

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