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## The Vertical Landing Vehicles Library (VLVLib): a Modelica-based approach to high-fidelity simulation and verification of GNC systems for reusable rockets

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### Abstract

Vertical Landing (VL) Reusable Launch Vehicles (RLVs) must rely on performing and robust Guidance, Navigation and Control (GNC) algorithms, that are normally tested and verified in closed-loop high-fidelity simulators. This paper introduces the Vertical Landing Vehicles Library (VLVLib), a new Modelica-based tool for the advanced physical modeling and simulation of VL RLV dynamics. Modelica, an acausal open-source object-oriented modeling language, is exploited to produce a multibody vehicle model where multiple effects can be easily added, modified or switched in complexity. At the same time, it offers a modular modeling methodology to quickly adapt to vehicle changes or potential new features during the development process, with benefits in terms of project speed and costs. The way Modelica features are exploited is detailed throughout the paper. At its current development status, the library is able to account for, in more detail, four main effects relevant for the GNC robustness tests: (1) propellant slosh dynamics; (2) Thrust Vector Control (TVC) dynamics; (3) landing legs deployment disturbances; (4) touchdown dynamics. They are modeled and integrated so to allow an easy generation of a vehicle model that holds a prescribed fidelity level for each sub-system, and can be compiled and exported and harmoniously integrate other simulation environments (*e.g.* Simulink). The potential of VLVLib is demonstrated with representative examples as applied to CALLISTO reusable rocket demonstrative mission.

**Keywords:** Advanced modeling, Modelica, Simulation, Reusable Launch Vehicles, GNC, Verification

### 1. Introduction

Reusable rockets, technically addressed as Vertical Take-off, Vertical Landing (VTVL) Reusable Launch Vehicles (RLVs), are nowadays imposing themselves as the cheaper and most viable way to access space [1]. The (currently partial) reusability concept has been technologically and commercially proven for the first time by SpaceX [2] with its Falcon 9 (Figure 1). December 21st, 2015 marked the formal beginning of the reusability era for

rockets at industrial level. On this track, several other companies followed this example, like Blue Origin or Rocket Lab [3]. Nowadays, the entire SpaceX's Falcon 9 program is founded on an impressive frequency in launches per year. The keys of success are surely multiple, but it is undoubted that one of the most preeminent ones is the Guidance, Navigation and Control system. Reusable rockets performance and reliability requirements fulfillment strongly depend on its "quality". Its design normally relies on model-based methods which exploits appropriate mathematical models to capture the relevant vehicle dynamics. Based on it, the final algorithms design can provide the highest stability margins and match the mission specifications. Such a model is referred to as "synthesis model" and typically neglects some effects that are foreseen to have little impact on its behavior or can possibly be counteracted by the control system.

For Validation and Verification (V&V), the Guidance, Navigation and Control (GNC) system must be tested in presence of nominal and perturbed vehicle and environ-

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Fig. 1: SpaceX's Falcon 9 reusable rocket at landing [4].

mental conditions. Moreover, it is important to use more complex vehicle models to assess the degradation in performance and robustness in presence of closer-to-real dynamics. They are usually referred to as "simulation models". This is why a simulation model can be seen as a much more complex version of the synthesis model. In the following, the best strategies to obtain high fidelity models (from a GNC engineering V&V perspective) are discussed.

### 1.1 Adopting physical models for RLV's high-fidelity dynamic simulations

Within the GNC world, the state-of-practice environment for dynamic simulations is Simulink, a Matlab extension with several blockset allowing the user to develop and simulate dynamic models [5]. Simulink is convenient for rapid prototyping, for building up more complex dynamic models, as well as for testing of the whole GNC architecture and implementing requirement checks or performing Monte-Carlo campaigns. Simulink is a 'causal' or 'block-oriented' modeling environment. Causal models define the relation between different dynamical elements solely by the output of one block being fed into the input of another block. From the point of view of the numerical solver, at each instant of calculation, the values of the state variables are considered known, while the unknowns are the derivatives of the state variables.

Despite Simulink is designed for easy integration with control systems (which are inherently causal), its main limitation consists in the blocks having a unidirectional data flow. As such, certain "objects" cannot be dealt with directly. Electrical machines or gearboxes, for example may have a direct or indirect power flow. In such cases, several manual steps are required to transform the equations to a form implementable on Simulink. This separates the implementation from the actual physical phenomenon and/or the system architecture. Above all, it offers very poor reusability of the elementary components, inducing a major rework of the whole set of underlining equations as soon as the system configuration changes. These statements are especially justified for launch vehicles where some specific (sub-)dynamics may (or may not) be added to the overall vehicle model depending on the required fidelity level. Furthermore, certain models requiring algebraic constraints are largely unfeasible or cumbersome to implement in Simulink. Lastly, the fidelity level of each sub-component may not be exchangeable with ease, as well as modeling cross-coupling between different physical domains.

Acausal modeling, on the other hand, is based on equations instead of assignment statements. It is often referred to as physical modeling because is very well suited for representing the physical structure of modeled systems. Therefore, acausal environments can be used to overcome these limitations and give additional modeling flexibility.<sup>1</sup> Modelica modeling language [6,7] is a open-source acausal Object-Oriented Modeling (OOM) language for large system descriptions. It enables a clear representation of physical meaning within an object-oriented structure; furthermore, OOM delivers modularization and component reuse features, thus achieving a greater model adaptiveness against changes. The class concept and inheritance property are the keys for reuse of modeling knowledge in Modelica. The 'inheritance through modification' property via the so-called 'modifiers' renders reusing the models even more straightforward and the implementation concise. A free Modelica Standard Library (MSL) exists [8] to facilitate the user with several basic components belonging to different physical domains. This also enables a relatively accessible creation of multibody models, crucial aspect of this work [9].

This approach has been used already, for example, in ve-

<sup>1</sup>For maximum compatibility with Simulink environment, one can consider Mathworks SimMechanics payware add-on package. Even in this latter way, some issues exist: above all, SimMechanics hides the models implementation to the user. This compromises flexibility, adaptability and, to some extent, comparisons with other models.

hicle re-entry scenarios via a guided parafoil, lunar landing mission or modeling slosh dynamics [10–12]. For similar reasons, several libraries have been created, like the DLR Flight Dynamics Library [13] or the Space Flight Dynamic library [14]. Modelica has been already used to describe launch vehicle dynamics and control [15], stage separation [16], or trajectory optimization [15]. The language, therefore, can well suit the creation of a high-fidelity RLV models.

### 1.2 VLVLlib: a new tool for advanced RLV modeling

This work aims at presenting the **Vertical Landing Vehicles Library (VLVLlib)** Modelica library. Its purpose is to enable high-fidelity modeling of Vertical Landing (VL) RLVs, achieved by implementing specific dynamics deeply affecting VL RLVs<sup>2</sup>. Currently they are: (i) propellant slosh; (ii) the Thrust Vector Control (TVC); (iii) the landing legs deployment; (iv) and the ground contact. In this way, they can concur in determining a more accurate overall vehicle dynamics. The key point is to exploit OOM to deliver a high flexibility to the user such that: (i) new models can be created easily by inheriting a basic vehicle model; (ii) this new model can include specific dynamics at user's will; (iii) these dynamics can be easily exchanged according to the required fidelity level<sup>3</sup>.

Lateral propellant slosh dynamics is a deeply studied phenomenon and a well known factor to consider in the GNC system design since the early days of large liquid-fuel rockets [17]. If the propellant contained in a tank has a free surface, parasitic interactions with its structure may arise as an effect of the liquid movements. Normally, these adverse dynamics cannot be neglected and should be appropriately tackled to avoid critical performance degradation or instability.

The TVC system is essential to provide enough control authority to any launch vehicle. It is often initially modeled as a first or second order dynamical system; however, it is a highly complex system composed by several components. In this paper, focus is placed on Power-by-Wire-actuated TVC systems, thus employing Electro-Mechanical Actuators (EMAs)<sup>4</sup> [20,21], and composed by a mechanical transmission, an electric motor and its electrical drive. Each of these component introduces several nonlinear changes in the overall actuator dynamics. There-

<sup>2</sup>The library name does not include "Vertical Take-off" simply to not restrict its scope of application. For example, a planetary lander can be potentially modeled with the VLVLlib too [12].

<sup>3</sup>Supposed that multiple models are available for the same component and they are 'plug-compatible' (see Section 2).

<sup>4</sup>EMAs are used in several rockets already, e.g. Avio's Vega [18, 19].

fore, a physical model of all these components is beneficial for GNC or even for a local model-based fault detection performance verification [22].

In the landing phase, most VL RLVs must eject their landing legs. This process may destabilize the vehicle because of the excessive asymmetrically-induced forces and torques due to an uneven unfolding. It can be caused by specific aerodynamic conditions or the deployment mechanisms itself. As such, the modeling of the landing leg system is also important. Furthermore, it must be understood how vehicle's attitude and speed affect touchdown; this is possible only if contacts are modeled as well, an aspect rarely addressed in literature [23].

The rest paper is structured as follows: Section 2 covers the modeling rationale, conceptual structuring, and related Modelica features enabling the taken choices; Section 3 describes the VLVLlib main packages and explains how to use them to generate a new vehicle model; Sections 4 to 7 explain in details the propellant slosh dynamic, the TVC system, legs deployment, and ground contact models, respectively. Section 8 shows representative simulation results of those dynamics. Lastly, in Section 9 conclusions are discussed.

## 2. Library development approach

Hereafter, the key-concepts which drove the library development are discussed in detail. Dymola IDE<sup>5</sup> has been used [24]. A certain knowledge of the Modelica language is assumed: Fritzon [25] covers extensively Modelica principles, syntax, main libraries and the compilation and simulation best practices. The latest Modelica language specifications can be found in [26].

**Nomenclature** Being Modelica an object-oriented language, almost everything is a class. However, there exist special types of classes specialized for different contexts and uses. They are named as: *model*, *connector*, *record*, *block*, *function*, *type*, *package*. As the use of these keywords may cause ambiguity, the italic font will be hereafter applied when these words associate with the Modelica language itself. On the other hand, the class names and objects are written using a teletype font (`Class`), while the Modelica keywords are blue too (`if`, `then`, `else`).

### 2.1 Package classes hierarchy

The VLVLlib is composed by several nested *packages*. The main and the child *packages* all have the `encapsulated` property, which guarantees that any instantiated class name lookup stops at the boundary of the

<sup>5</sup>Integrated Development Environment.

```

encapsulated package VLVLlib
  "Vertical Landing Vehicles Library"
  import Modelica;
  // <...> Other declarations and dyn. equations
end VLVLlib;

```

Fig. 2: VLVLlib package root definition. The MSL (Modelica package) is made available by means of the 'import' command.

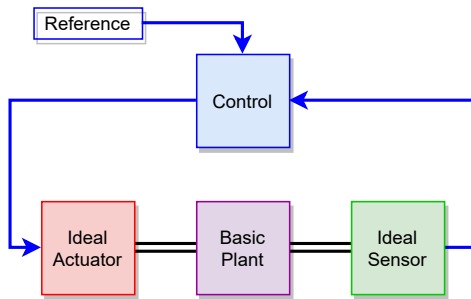


Fig. 3: Architecture-driven example scheme. Blue connectors are casual, whilst black ones have no direction, hence acausal. All components can be swapped with other variants provided the old and new interfaces match.

package itself. As a consequence, each package cannot include classes from other *packages* or from the MSL, unless they are included via the `import` command within the class declaration (see example in Figure 2).

## 2.2 The architecture-driven approach

The library is designed with modularity and flexibility as key objectives by adopting the so-called "architecture-driven approach". Architectures can be defined as models where a collection of subsystems have been pre-connected. The composition of the system is carried out by selecting specific implementations (*models*) for each subsystem. In this way, the user only needs to choose the specific model to use for each particular subsystem. A classic scenario is depicted in Figure 3 where the fundamental components of a closed-loop control system are shown. With the architecture-driven paradigm, the user can swap the control, actuator, plant or sensor classes according to the required fidelity level or simulation needs. This is possible in Modelica language by declaring a specific component as `replaceable`. Such an attribute makes possible to another *model* instantiating the first one, to eventually access it and swap the replaceable component with another one. This

is carried out via the `redeclare` command, as clarified in Figure 4.

However, to make the models swapping well defined, the old and new models must be "plug-compatible". A model *X* is plug-compatible with a model *Y* if for every public variable in *Y*, there is a corresponding public variable in *X* with the same name. Furthermore, every such variable in *X* must itself be plug-compatible with its counterpart in *Y*. This can be enforced by making the replaceable component constrained to have a specific type by using the syntactic construct `constrained by`.

A clean, functional and flexible way to address all the above is to operate as in Figure 5: the model of a specific complex system can be built with a top down architectural approach, defining firstly the structure of it, and then adding specific subsystem implementations. The starting point is to create a *partial model* for each architectural component (e.g. *Sensor*) just to define its interfaces. An interface is essentially a formal definition of the constraining type. Each component must inherit its own defining interface class (like *IdealSensor*). Then, another *partial model* (*SystemArchitecture*) defining the system architecture instantiates all these interfaces classes. They are declared as replaceable and suitably connected. Note that this *model* has no implementation details on its own.<sup>6</sup> Finally, in a new model (such as *BaseSystem*) the architecture *model* is inherited and the interface classes redeclared to be new classes containing the wanted components implementation. When a component is redeclared, the new redeclaration supersedes the previous one. The redeclaration is legal only if the new *model* shares the constraining type of the replaceable one (i.e. *IdealSensor* can be swapped with *Sensor*, because they share the same interface, defined by *Sensor* itself). In the example, *BaseSystem* redeclares the (empty, partial) *Sensor model* with *IdealSensor*; this is legal because *IdealSensor* is plug-compatible with *Sensor*.

## 2.3 Models export and Simulink integration

Models built by means of the VLVLlib are to be included within the Matlab/Simulink environment. In the latter, a whole simulation infrastructure is usually built for the purpose of developing and testing the GNC system [27]. This may include tools like Monte-Carlo frameworks or an automated requirement evaluation logic. In this context, it is possible that functions like frame conversions, environment properties or even certain dynamic models, are

<sup>6</sup>This means that this *model* cannot be simulated in any way, also because it is declared as 'partial'. *Partial models* cannot get directly instantiated and must be extended by other *models*.

```

model HierarchicalSystem
  BasicPlant plant;
  IdealActuator actuator;
  replaceable IdealSensor sensor;
  // <...> Other declarations and dyn. equations
end HierarchicalSystem;

model SystemWithModifiedSensor
  extends HierarchicalSystem(
    redeclare SampleHoldSensor sensor);
end SystemWithModifiedSensor;

```

Fig. 4: Example of component redeclaration. A generic sensor implementation within `HierarchicalSystem` is replaced by another one in the extended model.

already present and do not need to be duplicated in the form of Modelica code. This is accounted for in the implementation of the VLVLlib. For example, in the VLVLlib, the outputted vehicle states are expressed with respect to a single body-fixed frame (states expansion to other frame can be done within Simulink). Or, certain model parameters can be implemented as external inputs instead.

#### 2.4 Information propagation across components

The final vehicle *model* is composed by dozens of other *models* spread throughout several instantiation layers. This may cause the quantities to be logged to multiply in number, causing cluttering and making any modification to the root vehicle class tedious and error-prone. For this reason, the relevant *connectors* of a specific *model* are grouped into a specific communication interface, called ‘expandable connector’ (or ‘bus’). A Modelica *connector* declared as expandable has no minimum requirement for information to be carried onto. The bus can be expanded to include additional information, even if they are coming from connectors of different types. The signals on an expandable bus are determined by the connections themselves, therefore by connecting something to an expandable bus, a signal is implicitly added to that connector. The Modelica compiler looks at all the connectors in a connection set and expands each one so that the carried information is suitably matched. An expandable bus is defined as in Figure 6.

This feature turns essential when a specific component implementation has a different interface with its constraining type (not plug-compatible). As, instead, the expandable bus is part of the constraining class, it is enough that the information carried by it is always defined and legibly used by other interconnected *models*. This is adopted in

```

partial model Sensor
  Flange_a shaft; // input connector
  RealOutput w; // output connector
end Sensor;

model IdealSensor
  extends Sensor;
  // <...> Actual implementation of the sensor
end Sensor;

partial model SystemArchitecture
  replaceable Sensor sensor
  constrained by Sensor;
  // <...> Other declarations and dyn. equations
end SystemArchitecture;

model BaseSystem
  extends SystemArchitecture(
    redeclare IdealSensor sensor);
  // <...> Other redeclarations or modifications
end BaseSystem;

```

Fig. 5: Example of the architecture-driven approach. A partial model `SystemArchitecture` builds up the system architecture, while `BaseSystem` model defines the models populating its replaceable components.

```

expandable connector ExpandableBus
end ExpandableBus;

```

Fig. 6: Example of an expandable bus definition. No declaration must be necessarily made within the *expandable connector*, as the connected types are automatically determined at compilation time.

the case of some EMA components and will be further detailed in Section 5.4 (note nr. 16).

### 3. Description of the Vertical Landing Vehicles Library (VLVLlib)

The VLVLlib is currently based on seven main sub-packages (see Figure 7) described below, whereas their logic dependencies are shown in Figure 8.

**#1 The Vehicles package** contains the full classes implementing user’s vehicle models (e.g. Alina<sup>7</sup>, Calisto,...). As such, an arbitrary number of them may be present. However, one main class, called

<sup>7</sup>ALINA is a lunar lander developed by Planetary Transportation Systems and meant to enable payload deliveries on the surface of the Moon [28].

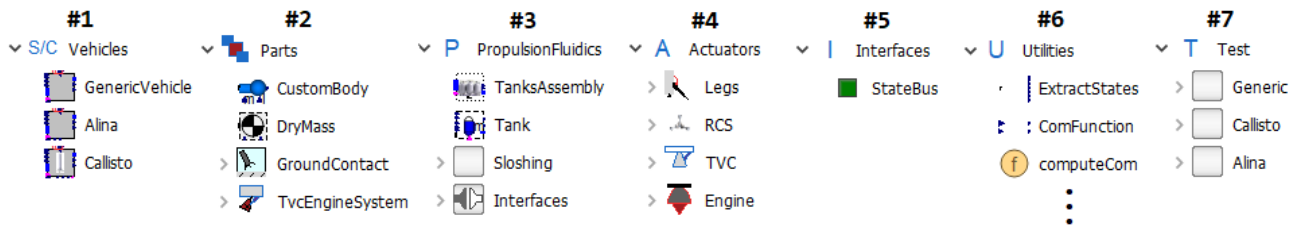


Fig. 7: Listing of the current VLVLib packages and their first sub-level content.

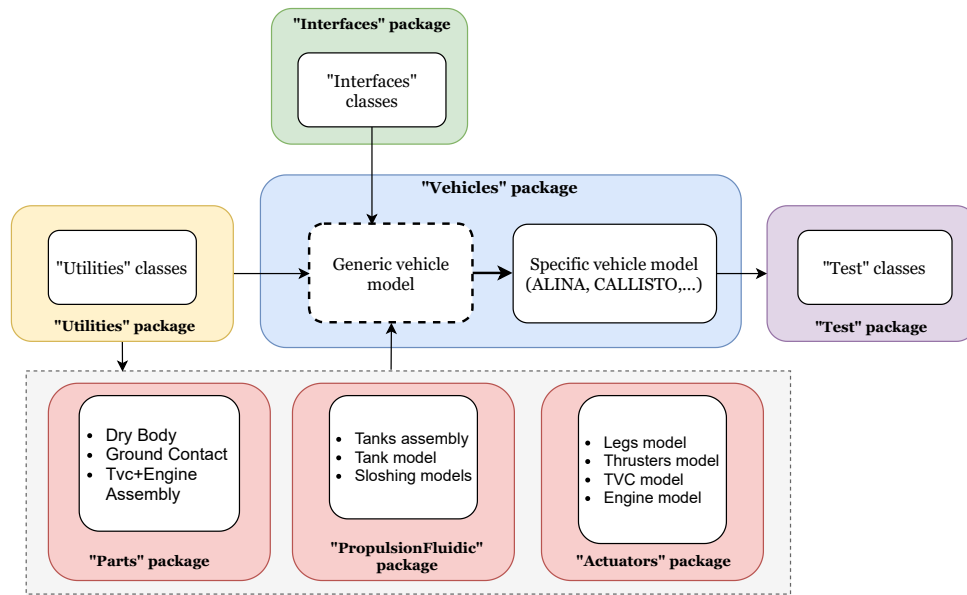


Fig. 8: VLVLib packages functional dependencies.

GenericVehicle, is the baseline to define these specific vehicles in order to adhere to the explained modeling philosophy. It contains only the main infrastructural components and interfaces, as well as the DryBody (representing the propellant-free structural mass and moment of inertia) and TanksAssembly classes. To create a new spacecraft, GenericVehicle has to be extended and (eventually) augmented with other components of interest implemented within #2-4 packages. The procedure is explained in Section 3.1.

#2 Contains spare classes which can concur in building the GenericVehicle class or other components.

#3-4 Contain the classes necessary to include the tank mechanical models, as described in Section 4, and the actuator dynamics, like the landing legs and TVC system, respectively detailed in Sections 5 and 6.

#5 Contains the output bus needed by GenericVehicle.

#6 Includes spare classes to achieve specific functionalities across the whole library.

#7 Contains models for the functional testing of the each vehicle's implementation.

### 3.1 Using the VLVLib to model a custom vehicle

The GenericVehicle class declares all the components needed to model a basic vehicle; specific configurations are derived starting from this class. Its diagram view is depicted in Figure 9. All connectors in this and other vehicle models must be 'causal', or busses made of causal connectors<sup>8</sup>: this allows the model to be afterwards compiled and embedded in Simulink or other softwares. Aside

<sup>8</sup>Causal connectors are here intended as those including (or inheriting) Real, Integer, Boolean or Enumeration types only. In Modelica formal terms, the connectors do not declare any flow variable.



```

model Callisto "Advanced Callisto dynamic model"
  extends GenericVehicle(
    tanksAssembly(
      // <...> Tanks assembly model parameters
    );
    VLVLib.Parts.TvcEngineSystem.Variants.TvcSystem_v1 TvcSystem
    VLVLib.Actuators.Legs.LegsAssembly legsAssembly
    Modelica.Blocks.Interfaces.RealInput Thrust[3](unit="N")
    Modelica.Blocks.Interfaces.BooleanInput deployCmd
    Modelica.Blocks.Interfaces.RealInput beta1(unit="rad")
    Modelica.Blocks.Interfaces.RealInput beta2(unit="rad")
    parameter Boolean enableLegs = true;
    parameter Boolean enableTvc = true;
  equation
    // <...> "connect" statements between components
  end Callisto;
    
```

Fig. 11: Callisto class Modelica code.

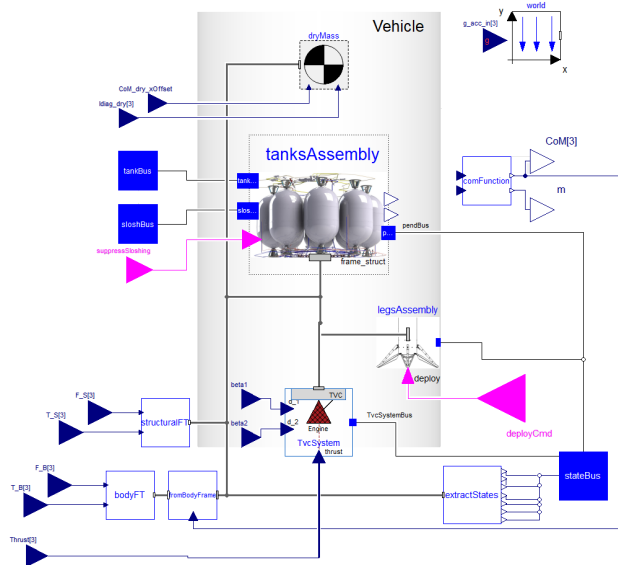


Fig. 12: Callisto class diagram view.

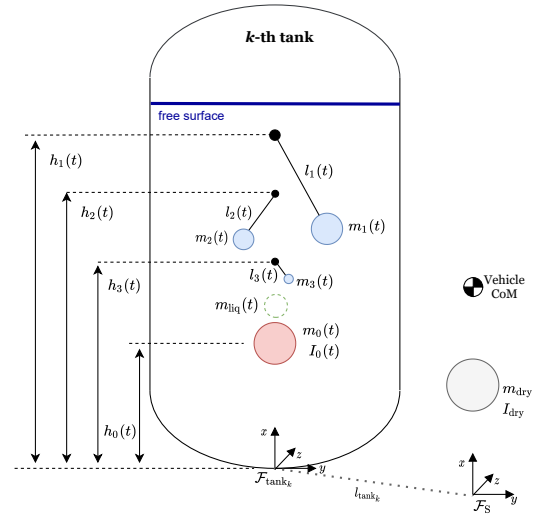


Fig. 13: Representation of the employed pendulum equivalent model.

ics.

What follows is extensively treated in [12]. The development requirements for the sloshing model are:

1. the vehicle model shall address the sloshing phenomenon without altering the single tanks MCI<sup>10</sup> static properties (see Eqs. 1 and 2);
2. the model shall not make any planar motion assumption;
3. the fuel draining effect shall be considered, i.e. slosh-

- ing parameters are considered as slowly time-varying;
4. the capability of including up to three sloshing modes per tank shall be given;
5. the capability to stop the sloshing motion during simulation under non-accelerated phases shall be given.

#### 4.1 The sloshing model

The equivalent model characteristic parameters correspond to one specific mode of liquid oscillation at a specific tank filling level, and depend on the liquid properties and tank geometry [32]. They can be obtained with CFD meth-

<sup>10</sup>Mass, Center of Mass, Inertia.



ods [33] or analytically for simple tank shapes [34], and then validated experimentally [35].

Figure 13 illustrates the tank model together with the main reference frames. The model distinguishes between the sloshing and the non-sloshing parts of the liquid: the liquid mass  $m_{liq}$  is split between the single pendulum masses  $m_i$ , with  $i \in [1, 2, 3]$  being the sloshing mode, and the mass  $m_0$  representing the idle liquid. Furthermore,  $h_0$  and  $h_i$  are the non-sloshing body and the  $i$ -th pendulum hinge height with respect to the bottom of the tank;  $m_i$  and  $l_i$  are the mass and arm length of the  $i$ -th pendulum. Parameters  $m_0$ ,  $I_0$ ,  $h_i$ ,  $l_i$  and  $m_i$  are provided with respect to discrete tank filling levels and have to be interpolated during the simulation. The frame  $\mathcal{F}_S$  is a vehicle-structure-fixed frame conveniently chosen, whereas  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{tank}_k}$  is a frame at the bottom point of the  $k$ -th tank, with  $k = 1, 2, \dots, K$ . The whole liquid inertia in a tank  $I_0$  is considered and placed together with the non-sloshing mass  $m_0$ . The gray body in Figure 13 models the dry vehicle: the mass and moment of inertia have been labeled with  $m_{\text{dry}}$  and  $I_{\text{dry}}$ . The depicted position of the overall vehicle's center of mass is influenced by the idle masses distribution, but also by each pendulum motion.

To ensure the model validity, the static properties of the liquid must be preserved at every time instant for every  $k$ -th tank. Hence,

$$m_0 + \sum_i m_i = m_{liq}. \quad (1)$$

$$m_0 h_0 + \sum_i m_i (h_i - l_i) = m_{liq} h_{liq}, \quad (2)$$

where  $h_{liq}$  is the position of the whole  $k$ -th tank liquid  $m_{liq}$  with respect to its  $\mathcal{F}_{\text{tank}_k}$  frame. Despite Figure 13 planar depiction, each modeled pendulum is enabled to move in three dimensions.

Damping is included as well as function of the vehicle longitudinal acceleration and the damping coefficient. The latter is derived by the tank shape and liquid properties and is not further described here [32].

#### 4.2 Library implementation

The main implemented library components are:

1. a class for the tanks assembly (TanksAssembly);
2. a Tank class where the discussed three sloshing modes are included;
3. a Pendulum class describing one sloshing mode.

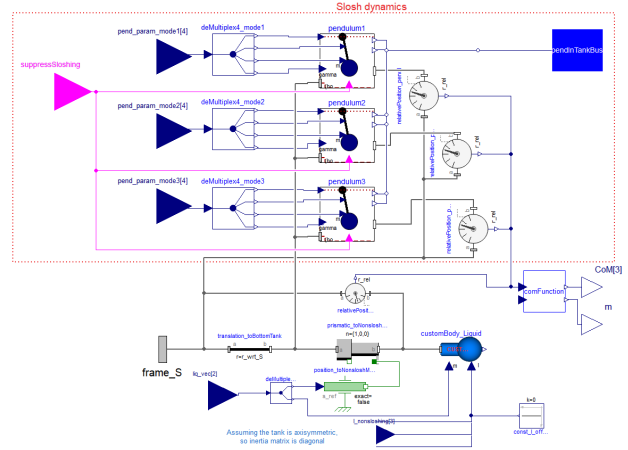


Fig. 14: Tank class diagram view.

The Pendulum class is responsible for modeling the pendulum for slosh dynamics representation. It is allowed to move in the  $x - y$  and  $x - z$  planes by means of a universal joint which allows two rotational degrees of freedom at the hinge point. As from requirements, the model can adapt to the slowly-varying sloshing parameters changes by means of prismatic joints: they allow for the translational motion of the model elements to reflect the changes in hinge height and pendulum arm. A rotational damper is added at the pendulum hinge point in order to simulate energy dissipation. This component can also act in synergy with a rotational spring, to stop the sloshing motion when a flag `suppressSloshing` is set to 'true' and restore the pendulum neutral position at  $\theta = 0$ . When this happens, the damping coefficient and the spring stiffness pass, respectively, from  $C_\theta$  and zero to suitable high values.

The Tank class instantiate the three pendula and models the static liquid (Figure 14). It class uses `CustomBody` component to represent the nonsloshing body with a variable mass  $m_0$  and a variable inertia  $I_0$ .

Three pendulum model instances have been used for embedding the three sloshing modes: they are conditional components, such that the number of pendula depends onto the (`nSloshMode`) parameter (Figure 15). Note that is possible to exclude sloshing effect (removing all pendula) by setting `nSloshModes=0`. The parameters  $m_i$ ,  $l_i$ ,  $h_i$  and  $C_\theta$  are provided as external inputs to each pendulum model.

The TanksAssembly class is meant to instantiate as many Tank components to model the complete vehicle tanks configuration. To do so, the Tank class has been declared as a `nTanks`-long vector, with `nTanks = K` being

```

model Tank "Tank model"
  Sloshing.Pendulum pendulum1 if nSloshModes >= 1
  Sloshing.Pendulum pendulum2 if nSloshModes >= 2
  Sloshing.Pendulum pendulum3 if nSloshModes == 3
  // <...>
end Tank;

```

Fig. 15: Conditional declaration of three Pendulum components within Tank class. The single pendulum models are instantiated (and its connections activated) for specific values of parameter nSloshModes.

```

model TanksAssembly "Tanks assembly"
// <...> All declarations
equation
  for i in 1:nTanks loop
    connect(frame_struct, tank[i].frame_S);
    connect(tankBus.liq_vec[:, i], tank[i].liq_vec);
  end for;
// <...> Other connect statements
end TanksAssembly;

```

Fig. 16: Recursive connections within TanksAssembly.

the prescribed number of tanks. The tank- and sloshing-related parameters are accordingly inputted to every element of the classes vector. With this implementation, there is no need to manually reinstantiate as many tank components as needed by the specific vehicle configuration. The code structure for recursive connections in Figure 16.

## 5. Thrust Vector Control modeling

The TVC system needs two direct-drive<sup>11</sup> Electro-Mechanical Actuator (EMAs) to deflect the engine's thrust direction. The detailed modeling of the engine thrust dynamics is currently not implemented, it is assumed that the produced thrust magnitude is a model input.

The EMA operates thanks to the synergism of three main components: a Mechanical Power Transmission (MPT), meant to transform in the most efficient way a rotatory motion into a translational one; an Electric Motor (EM), here considered as a PMSM<sup>12</sup>, to produce the mentioned rotational motion; the Power Drive Electronic (PDE) part meant to suitably power the EM using the available the on-board electric current source; a control logic meant to achieve the reference EMA elongation, thus en-

<sup>11</sup>There is no reduction gearbox to make the EMA more compact.

<sup>12</sup>Permanent Magnets Synchronous Machine

gine deflection. The overall architecture is shown on a plane in Figure 17, but the off-plane direction is also considered in the implementation. The proposed modeling strategy is based, with minor differences, on the incremental prototyping approach presented in [36, 37], where several models with different fidelity levels are described for each component. They are briefly recalled below.

### 5.1 The control system

The EMA synthesis model transfer function  $G(s)$  can be expressed as:

$$G(s) = \frac{4\pi^2/p^2}{(M_m + M_s)s}, \quad (3)$$

where  $M_s$  is mass reflecting engine's inertia,  $M_m$  is the mass reflected at load level by the motor rotor inertia, and  $p$  is the lead of the roller-screw.

The control system objective is to regulate the EMA screw position, given the reference input  $X_c$ . The adopted scheme is represented in Figure 18, where an architecture with an inner (motor angular velocity  $\omega_m$  control) and outer (position  $X_s$  control) loops is proposed. The inner and outer controllers are simply proportional ones, given each loop has already an integral action. The motor currents dynamic, being faster than the inner loop, is shown with a unitary gain. The control gains are tuned by simply imposing a damping ratio and natural frequency to the second order system resulting by the composition of the two loops.

Generating the necessary torques via the electric motor requires a third internal control loop managing the motor three-phase currents. The overall control scheme is shown in Figure 19 and the details of such a standard implementation can be found in [38]. The current dynamics can be simplified as the one of a simple brushed DC motor as

$$G_m(s) = \frac{1}{R_m + L_ms}, \quad (4)$$

where  $R_m$  and  $L_m$  are the motor windings resistance and inductance, respectively. The need of a PI controller is common and arises from the fact that there exist back electro-motive forces and cross coupling terms (see Section 5.3), here intended as disturbances for control design.

Lastly, the EMA-engine structure is not infinitely stiff. This introduces several elastic effects, for example at the structural anchorage point, the nut-screw transmission or the screw-engine connection mechanisms. This can be represented as an equivalent spring-damper system including all these compliances. As such, it is possible to include

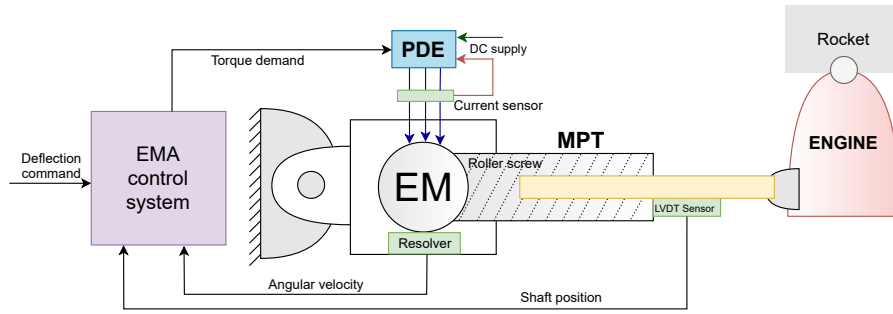


Fig. 17: Simplified planar TVC architecture using an Electro-Mechanical actuator.

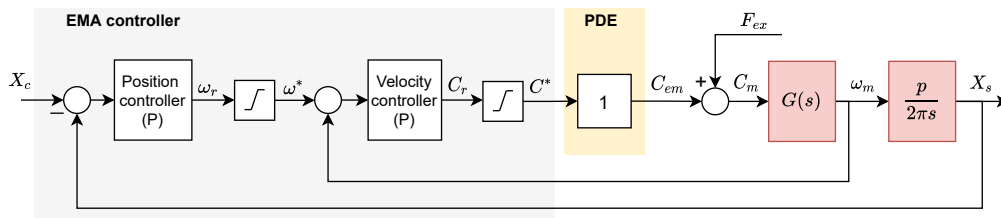


Fig. 18: Schematic simplified architecture of an EMA control system.  $F_{ex}$  is an external disturbance load.

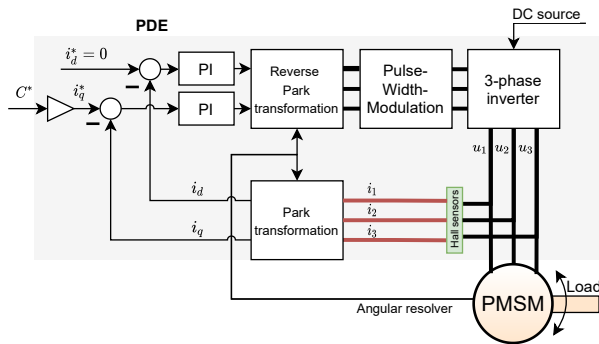


Fig. 19: Schematic of the Field-oriented control for a 3-phase motor.

a load sensor at the screw-engine connection point in order to include, within the control system, a force feedback compensation law which would dampen the parasitic oscillations [39]. This is normally carried out by applying a notch filter to the sensed force which would pass only the relevant frequencies to be compensated for, and, after a suitable conditioning, injecting an additional torque to  $C^*$  control command.

## 5.2 Mechanical Power Transmission modeling

The MPT is in charge of transforming the EM rotary motion into a linear one. The considered transmission is a roller-screw, proven to accept higher loads than the ball-screw one. In the following, the implemented models are discussed.

### 5.2.1 Functional MPT model

The functional model simply considers a perfect conversion of the motor torque and angular speed into a force and linear velocity. This can be expressed simply by:

$$F_s = \frac{2\pi}{p} C_m, \quad v_s = \frac{p}{2\pi} \omega_m. \quad (5)$$

where  $F_s$  and  $C_m$  are the transmitted force and the motor torque, respectively, and  $v_s$  the stroke linear velocity.

### 5.2.2 Basic MPT model

The basic MPT model considers the nut-screw inertia, friction and structural stiffness effects. Friction force is here considered as viscous and linearly dependent on the relative screw velocity. The elastic and damping forces relative to the nut-screw transmission are linearly dependent on relative position and velocity respectively.

### 5.2.3 Advanced MPT model

In the advanced MPT model, the screw friction is modeled in more detail and the backlash (with preload) effect is included. The former can be expressed as:

$$F_f = F_{cl} + F_p v_r + F_{st} \exp(-d_{st} v_r / v_{ref}) \quad (6)$$

where  $F_{cl}$  is the Coulomb friction constant force,  $F_p$  is a friction force proportional to the screw relative velocity  $v_r$ ,  $F_{st}$  and  $v_{ref}$  are the Stribeck force and reference speed respectively, and  $d_{st}$  modulates its exponential decay.

Backlash is a "lost motion" happening within a mechanical transmission component, whereas preload is an elastic force occurring "while the motion is lost" [8,40]. Formally, the two combined effects are captured by a length-less component with terminals absolute positions expressed as  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ , and whose produced elastic force is

$$F_e = \begin{cases} k_e(x_r - x_0), & x_r > x_0 \\ 2k_e x_r, & |x_r| \leq |x_0| \\ k_e(x_r + x_0), & x_r < -x_0 \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

where  $x_r = x_2 - x_1$  is the relative displacement,  $x_0$  is the backlash displacement, and  $k_e$  a stiffness parameter. At the same time, its damping force is similarly expressed as

$$F_e = \begin{cases} \min(F_e, d_e v_e), & x_r > x_0 \\ 0, & |x_r| \leq x_0 \\ \min(-F_e, d_e v_e), & x_r < -x_0 \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

where  $v_e = \frac{d}{dt}(x_r)$  and  $d_e$  is a damping coefficient.

## 5.3 Electric Motor modeling

The EM physical principles are the combination of effects acting in different physical domains: electrical, magnetic and mechanical. As such, the EM motor model choice affects the PDE interconnected model as well. Three EM models are proposed.

### 5.3.1 Level 1 EM model

This is the simplest model, where the demanded torque is purely applied to the rotor moment of inertia.

### 5.3.2 Level 2 EM model

In this case, the PMSM is described considering the stator phases, but using space phasor transformation and a rotor-fixed Air-Gap model at implementation level. The three-phase equations of a permanent-magnet isotropic synchronous machine can be written as:

$$v_{s,1} = R_s i_{s,1} + \dot{\Psi}_{s,1} \quad (9)$$

$$v_{s,2} = R_s i_{s,2} + \dot{\Psi}_{s,2} \quad (10)$$

$$v_{s,3} = R_s i_{s,3} + \dot{\Psi}_{s,3} \quad (11)$$

$$\Psi_{s,1} = L_s i_{s,1} + \Psi_{pm} \quad (12)$$

$$\Psi_{s,2} = L_s i_{s,2} + \Psi_{pm}(\theta_m - \frac{2}{3}\pi) \quad (13)$$

$$\Psi_{s,3} = L_s i_{s,3} + \Psi_{pm}(\theta_m - \frac{4}{3}\pi) \quad (14)$$

where  $v_{s,1-3}$  and  $i_{s,1-3}$  are voltages and currents per phase,  $R_s$  and  $L_s$  are the stator resistance and inductance respectively,  $\Psi_{s,1-3}$  is the magnetic flux per phase,  $\Psi_{pm}$  is the flux linked with the stator due to the permanent magnets depending on the rotor position  $\theta_m$ . By applying now the Park transformation, we can express the above equations in a stationary reference frame<sup>13</sup>; this transforms the three-phase machine into a two-phase machine, equipped with two windings fixed with the stator and orthogonal each other, expressed as  $d$  ('direct') and  $q$  ('quadrature'):

$$v_{s,d} = R_s i_{s,d} + \dot{\Psi}_{s,d} - \dot{\theta}_m L_s i_{s,q} \quad (15)$$

$$v_{s,q} = R_s i_{s,q} + \dot{\Psi}_{s,q} + \dot{\theta}_m L_s i_{s,d} + \dot{\theta}_m \Psi_{pm} \quad (16)$$

$$\Psi_{s,d} = L_s i_{s,d} + \Psi_{pm} \quad (17)$$

$$\Psi_{s,q} = L_s i_{s,q} \quad (18)$$

The expression of the torque [38] for such a machine is given by

$$C_{em} = n_p \Psi_{pm} i_{s,q}, \quad (19)$$

where  $n_p$  is the number of pole pairs, and justifies how, in the control strategy only the quadrature current is used to produce a torque<sup>14</sup>.

### 5.3.3 Level 3 EM model

The most advanced Level 3 EM model replicates the Level 2, but adds several dissipative effects: 1. friction losses; 2. core losses (only eddy current losses, no hysteresis losses); 3. permanent magnet losses. Their equations are those implemented already in the machine losses MSL's package<sup>15</sup>. As for the friction, the friction torque  $\tau$  is:

$$\tau / \tau_{ref} = (+\omega / \omega_{ref})^a \quad \text{for } \omega > +\omega_{lin} \quad (20)$$

$$-\tau / \tau_{ref} = (-\omega / \omega_{ref})^a \quad \text{for } \omega < -\omega_{lin} \quad (21)$$

<sup>13</sup>One axis has the same direction of the first winding magnetic axis.

<sup>14</sup>The direct current can be exploited for field weakening operations so to control the machine's operating regions. However, this goes beyond the scopes of this paper.

<sup>15</sup>More specifically, Electrical.Machines.Losses.

where the angular speed is  $\omega$ ,  $\tau_{\text{ref}}$  is the reference torque at the reference angular speed  $\omega_{\text{ref}}$ ,  $a$  is a coefficient depending on the machine ventilation, and  $\omega_{\text{lin}}$  defines the angular speed range in which the function is considered to be linear. Let us define the core power losses  $P_{\text{core}}$  as:

$$P_{\text{core}}/P_{\text{ref}} = (V/V_{\text{ref}})^2 \quad (22)$$

where  $V$  is the actual phase voltage and the subscript  $_{\text{ref}}$  has the same meaning as before. Lastly, permanent magnet losses are modeled dependent on current and speed. The permanent magnet losses are just considered through an equivalent braking torque at the shaft. The permanent magnet loss torque is

$$\tau_{\text{mag}} = P'_{\text{ref}}/\omega'_{\text{ref}}(c + (1 - c)(i/i_{\text{ref}})^{a'}) (\omega/\omega_{\text{ref}})^b \quad (23)$$

where  $i$  is the current of the machine, the parameter  $c$  designates the part of the permanent magnet losses independent of current. The dependency of the permanent magnet loss torque on the stator current is modeled by the exponent  $a'$ . The dependency of the permanent magnet loss torque on the angular velocity is modeled by the exponent  $b$ .

#### 5.4 Power Drive Electronics modeling

The PDE are meant to feed the EM model appropriately. There are four PDE models: PDE Level 1 and 2 would be compatible with Level 1 EM model, whereas PDE models 3 and 4 would fit only EM Level 2 and 3 models<sup>16</sup>.

##### 5.4.1 Level 1 PDE model

The input torque is transferred directly to the output. There is no dynamics introduced.

##### 5.4.2 Level 2 PDE model

The torque has a second order dynamics expressed as

$$C_{em}(s) = \frac{\omega_i^2}{s + 2\xi_i\omega_i s + \omega_i^2} C^*(s) \quad (24)$$

where  $\omega_i$  is the current loop natural frequency and  $\xi_i$  its damping factor.

##### 5.4.3 Level 3 PDE model

In Level 3 PDE model the input torque is transformed into the quadrature current  $i_{s,q}^* = C^*/K_t$ , where  $K_t$  is the

<sup>16</sup> Note that, at implementation level, this means that the interfaces (*connectors*) are not always the same. In particular: "PDE Level 1-2 ↔ EM Level 1" would use a simple Real signal propagating the motor torque, while "PDE Level 3-4 ↔ EM Level 2-3" would use a multi-phase electrical interface.

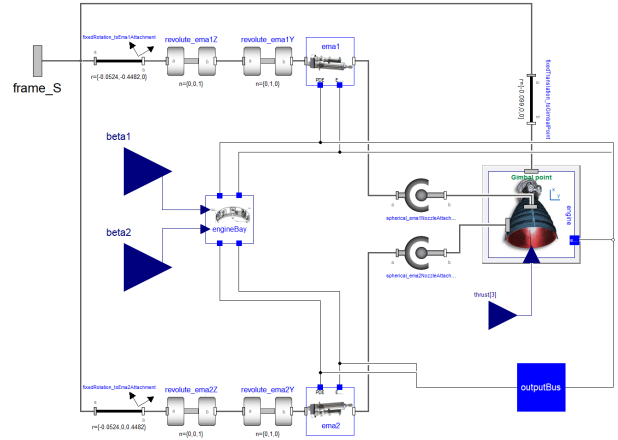


Fig. 20: TvcSystem\_v1 class diagram view.

motor torque constant, that constitutes the reference for the current closed loop, as in Figure 19. The direct and quadrature controllers output the respective reference voltages,  $v_{s,d}$  and  $v_{s,q}$ . These are finally back-transformed into 3-phase via a reverse Park transform and fed into a perfect voltage source representing the inverter dynamics for operating the EM. The currents  $i_{s,d}$  and  $i_{s,q}$  are obtained via Hall sensors on the inverter output after a Park transformation.

##### 5.4.4 Level 4 PDE model

Level 4 PDE model adds to the Level 3 implementation the Pulse-Width-Modulation (PWM) and inverter dynamics. Duty cycles for voltages  $v_{s,1-3}$  are obtained, based on the DC voltage source available<sup>17</sup>. Then, a PWM signal is produced and fed into a 3-phases inverter model. The latter is composed by two transistors and two anti-parallel free wheeling diodes per phase. Diodes and transistors switching dynamic is modeled as well as in [38].

#### 5.5 Library implementation

The full implementation of the TVC system relies on models spread in different sub-packages. The EM, PDE and MPT model variants are contained within `VLVLib.Actuators.TVC` package. Within the latter there are four main sub-packages: `ElectroMechanicalActuator`, `Assemblies`, `Interfaces` and `Tests`. The first implements the discussed EMA components together with the control system, while the seconds creates suitable interconections

<sup>17</sup>In launch vehicles this is usually a LiPo or thermal battery.

```

model TvcSystem_v1
extends VLVLlib.Parts.TvcEngineSystem.Architecture.TvcArchitecture(
  ema1(emaBody(
    redeclare TVC.Components.ElectroMechanicalActuator.ElectricalMotor.Motor_level1 motor,
    redeclare TVC.Components.ElectroMechanicalActuator.MechanicalTransmission.MPT_1dof_functional mpt)
  ),
  ema2(emaBody(
    redeclare TVC.Components.ElectroMechanicalActuator.ElectricalMotor.Motor_level1 motor,
    redeclare TVC.Components.ElectroMechanicalActuator.MechanicalTransmission.MPT_1dof_functional mpt)
  ),
  redeclare VLVLlib.Actuators.Engine.Engine_v1 engine,
  spherical_ema1NozzleAttachment(w_rel_a_fixed=false, z_rel_a_fixed=false),
  spherical_ema2NozzleAttachment(w_rel_a_fixed=false),
  engineBay(
    redeclare TVC.Components.ElectroMechanicalActuator.PowerDriveElectronics.Pde_level2 pde1,
    redeclare TVC.Components.ElectroMechanicalActuator.PowerDriveElectronics.Pde_level2 pde2 )
  );
end TvcSystem_v1;

```

Fig. 21: The TvcSystem\_v1 class code.

between those. The third sub-package implements the necessary expandable busses to connect the components and store each component's variable to output. Lastly, the *Test package* implements unit tests.

The models are implemented by mainly exploiting the 1D Mechanics<sup>18</sup> and Electrical *packages* of the MSL. All model variants extends their respective interface *partial models* so to conform to the architecture-driven approach. On the other hand, the single component variants are stored in separated *models*. The same holds true for the simple engine model, that just includes its inertial dynamics. It is worth noticing that it is connected to the rocket structure by means of a spherical joint, on which a suitable structural stiffness and damping act. The EM Level 2 and 3 models require a big amount of parameters for the PMSM model to be correctly defined. For this reason, they are stored into a *record* and instantiated in both models. Naturally, Level 3 modifies the otherwise-zeroed friction parameters accordingly.

The *Assemblies* package contains component aggregates: *EngineBody*, *EngineBay* and *EngineMultibody*. The first models the actuator core, made out of the composition of the EM and MPT; *EngineBay* implements the two PDE units, while *EngineMultibody* instantiates *EmaBody* class and connects it with a prismatic joint (which belongs to the 3D Mechanics MSL's package<sup>19</sup>). Models within *Assemblies* do not perform any component redeclaration.

<sup>18</sup>Precisely *Mechanics.Translational* and *Mechanics.-Rotational packages*.

<sup>19</sup>That is *Mechanics.Multibody package*.

This happens only in *VLVLlib.Parts.TvcEngineSystem package* which contains the actual final implementations of the complete 3D TVC+Engine system. For example *TvcSystem\_v1 model* implements Level 1 EM, the functional MPT and Level 2 PDE models (for both EMAs within the complete TVC system). Figure 20 further explains the architecture, while the code is shown in Figure 21.

## 6. Landing legs deployment model

Landing legs are fundamental for achieving reusability because they enable a soft touchdown. A few moments before landing, while the vehicle is facing the last descent part, the legs must be fully deployed: this is possible thanks to a mechanism able to release them from their folded position and push them outwards, such that gravity can start acting to further extract them and bring them towards their pre-defined final latching position. Gravity itself is not sufficient to win the aerodynamic forces, which strongly depend on the vehicle angle of attack and velocity. For this reason, an additional force is necessary to make sure that the deployment is complete and the legs can actually reach the fully unfolded configuration.

### 6.1 Leg deployment model

The discussed legs mechanical structure is based on CALLISTO reusable launch vehicle demonstrator. The configuration and the analysis of its performance is fully explained in [41]. In the following, the landing legs system is modeled only mechanically: in fact, the fluidic mech-

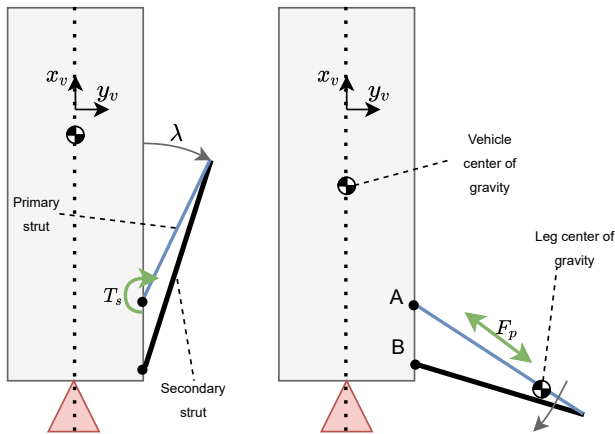


Fig. 22: Simplified view of the legs model.

anisms<sup>20</sup> meant to push out the legs is not considered. Figure 22 highlights the main model components. The primary strut can be seen as a telescopic rod enabling the legs unfolding, which operates thanks to a pneumatic force  $F_p$ . The secondary strut, instead, is in charge of holding the vehicle in position at touchdown and stand the heat stress during the deployment. At the deployment command trigger, a push-off mechanisms provides a minimal hinge torque to allow the leg to start the deployment; if this was absent, the gravitational force and pneumatic one would not cause the deployment angle  $\lambda$  to ever increase.

## 6.2 Library implementation

The difficulty in implementing a simulation model of a leg unfolding lies in the fact that the leg mechanical structure is a closed kinematic chain. Normally, with an open chain configuration the compiler is able to solve for the states of the next chain elements based on the current one. In closed chains, however, for each body there exists more than one path connecting to a uniquely defined set of states. Closed chains can be structurally non-singular or singular. In non-singular closed chains, the model is pre-processed in such a way that the tree roots are identified and the algebraic constraints determined.

The main problem of closed chains is that they can easily generate statically indeterminate systems (more equations than unknowns), like for example, in planar closed chains. The software symbolic manipulation applicable to a generic DAE system can not distinguish between consistent statically indeterminate systems (for which would be enough to ignore some equations) and inconsistent systems

<sup>20</sup>In CALLISTO, a Helium-based pneumatic system is used.

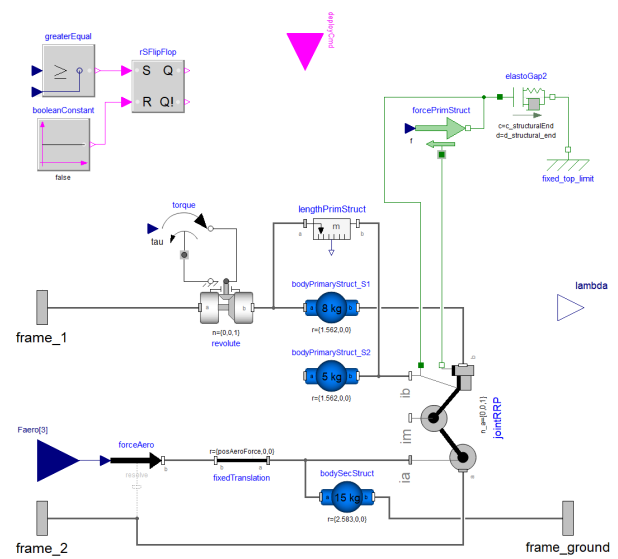


Fig. 23: LegSimple class diagram view.

(thus defined by contradictory equations). The structural singularity of the DAE system is detected and the compilation fails. It is therefore necessary to eliminate the redundant equations before applying the symbolic manipulation.

The nonlinear algebraic constraint equations arising from most mechanical loops can be solved analytically. However, it is difficult to perform this automatically. For this reason, the MSL has implemented a set of components where a predefined set of joints are already merged and the resulting equations of motion pre-solved and implemented. In this way, when a joint assembly takes part into a closed chain, the solver is able to solve for it. The component JointRRP implemented in the class LegSimple (Figure 23) has exactly this role. The same Figure also shows how the primary and secondary struts are implemented. The release mechanism acts as a torque at point A generated by a torsional spring which is active only when the deployment command has been triggered and  $\lambda$  angle is small (e.g. less than 1deg). The deployment command is a Boolean input which gets latched internally such that conditional expressions can be used to manage the force and torque acting on the leg. Note that a connector `frame_ground` is present. This allows the leg *model* to simulate the ground contact at the tip of the primary strut. This will be discussed in the next Section. The *model* `LegsAssembly` instantiates the four legs and can be used at vehicle class root level, as happening in *Callisto model*.

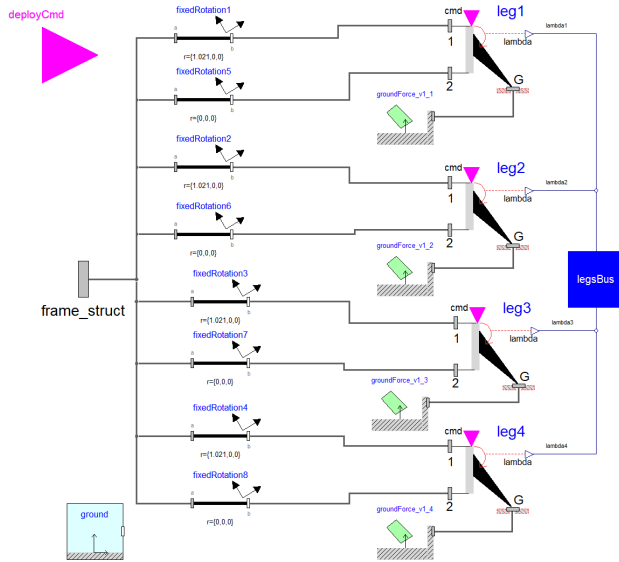


Fig. 24: LegsAssembly class diagram view.

## 7. Ground contact modeling

The problem of modeling body impacts has been already addressed in [42,43]. Having an accurate representation of the behavior of the vehicle when it touches the ground may provide useful insights into the vehicle stability and the terminal landing conditions to be fulfilled to avoid vehicle tipping. This has been already cause of numerous failures in the early life stage of Falcon 9 rocket [44].

The approach used here is the penalty-based approach described in [42], where a high elastic and damping force is applied to the impacting body on the principles of a spring-damper mechanism. The price to pay with such a choice is that the simulation model becomes stiff, often implying a high computational cost.

### 7.1 Library implementation

The models to simulate ground impact are contained in the Parts package. Two components need to be instantiated: the Ground and the GroundForce\_v1 models. The Ground model contain all the properties for defining where the "ground" is located. This is fundamentally a fixed translation with respect to the inertial frame. At the same time, the reference frame defining the ground can be fixedly or continuously rotated with respect to the inertial. The same class also contains the definition of the "vertical" axis ("off-ground") and the "horizontal" axes ("on-ground") of the local ground frame. The Ground class defines pervasive properties of the overall model. For this reason, it has to be instantiated with the inner attribute, which makes avail-

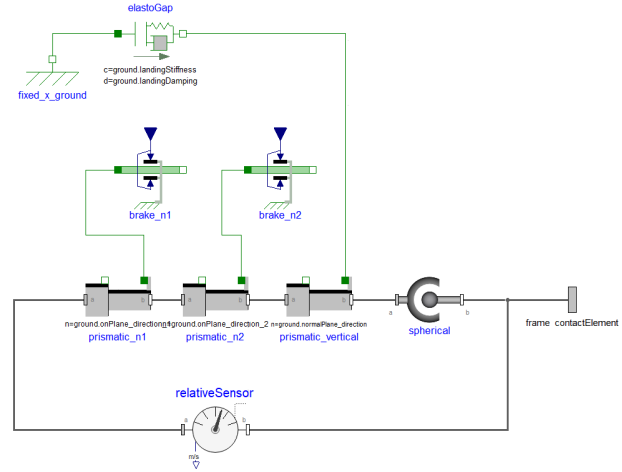


Fig. 25: GroundForce\_v1 class diagram view.

```

model GroundForce_v1
// <...> All declarations
outer Ground ground;
equation
if elastoGap.contact then
  brake_n1.f_normalized = 1;
  brake_n2.f_normalized = 1;
else
  brake_n1.f_normalized = 0;
  brake_n2.f_normalized = 0;
end if;
// <...> Other connection statements
end TanksAssembly;

```

Fig. 26: Parts of the GroundForce\_v1 class code.

able the instantiated component (*i.e.* ground) to all models down the hierarchy, provided it is recalled using the outer command, like in Figure 26.

The class GroundForce\_v1 (Figures 25 and 26) uses the properties defined in Ground. GroundForce\_v1 operates as follows: it connects<sup>21</sup> the inertial frame to frame\_contactElement (*i.e.* the physical mechanical connector that must "expose" to the ground contact), but it enables all its degrees of freedom (three rotational and three translational). However, while the three prismatic joints allow free motion, they are set to exert specific forces as contact is occurring. On the "vertical" axis, an ElastoGap model is instantiated: this enables a free motion of the connected component until the ground is reached. At that

<sup>21</sup>Connecting two mechanical connectors corresponds to "welding" them.



point, a spring-damper mechanism starts acting avoiding the penetration into the ground of the impacting body. The contact presence is governed by an `ElastoGap` Boolean internal variable. When this is 'true', a breaking force acts on the remaining two translational degrees of freedom to avoid that the body "slips" onto the (fictitious) ground surface.

## 8. Simulation Results

In this Section, simulation results are shown for the four main considered dynamics with representative examples carried out onto CALLISTO<sup>22</sup>, a VTVL reusable launch vehicle demonstrator being developed by DLR, CNES and JAXA in a trilateral project [45]. Its main objective is to demonstrate the capability to recover a vehicle with toss-back trajectory. This goal implies many sub-objectives for the propulsion system, such as in-flight engine re-ignition, propellant settling and sloshing management. An on-board computer has to run suitable robust algorithms for guidance, control and navigation during all phases for enabling vehicle stability and a safe landing.

### 8.1 Sloshing dynamics

To simulate propellant sloshing, the full end-to-end CALLISTO mission is considered. It has two tanks, one for the oxidizer (liquid oxygen - LOx) and one for the fuel (liquid hydrogen - LH<sub>2</sub>), full at the take off. For both, only one sloshing mode is accounted for. Pendulum angles for both tanks obtained from a closed-loop simulation where the entire GNC system is implemented. This includes the control laws managing position and attitude, complex navigation algorithms for state estimation and a guidance logic to provide the best control references over time.

In Figure 27, LH<sub>2</sub> tank pendulum angles with respect to vehicle's x- and y-axes are shown normalized. Even at this GNC system design early stage, the validity boundaries for the sloshing model are fulfilled, despite not directly visible in the plot for data confidentiality reasons.

At boostback, the vehicle experiences a null non-gravitational acceleration on its longitudinal axis; in this phase the liquid undergoes a chaotic motion and spreads in the tank. From a simulation viewpoint, this implies that the equivalent sloshing model is not valid anymore, and the pendulum motion must be inhibited via the boolean variable `suppressSloshing`. In fact, Figure 27 evidences how, in the highlighted area where `suppressSloshing=true`, the pendulum restores its neu-

tral position and stops oscillating.

### 8.2 TVC system

The different versions for each EMA sub-component are shown in terms of step response to a 10mm screw position command. In the same plots, the difference of each response with respect to the one obtained using their respective simplest model is shown. The control scheme for all the proposed simulations is the same and is the one described in Section 5.1 and [37]. All parameters are taken from [37]. In this case, simulations are performed without any rocket model in the loop. This means that the vehicle-induced loads (hence the loads produced onto the TVC system as effect of the vehicle dynamics) are not considered. Note that the structural compliance is always modeled, hence there is an elastic (and damping) force always acting between the screw and the engine model. In fact, for rocket engines this cannot be neglected and usually has an high impact on the TVC control system design.

Figure 28 shows the differences between: 1. the screw position with infinite nut-screw stiffness (no nut-screw compliance); 2. the screw position with a finite nut-screw stiffness; 3. the load position with a finite nut-screw stiffness; 4. the load position with a finite nut-screw stiffness and force feedback compensation active. Only in this Figure, all simulations are performed without any structural damping, to demonstrate the capability of the force feedback compensation. In the following, this simplification is abandoned and the damping embedded in the architecture.

Figure 29 highlights the differences between the Functional, Basic and Advanced MPT models. As the friction is captured with more accurate models, the responses show less overshoot. Furthermore, the backlash effect (simulated with  $x_0 = 0.1\text{mm}$ ) generates an initial delay in the Advanced model response, as well as high frequency dynamics visible only in the purple line due to some effect roughly definable as "mechanical chattering".

Figure 30 shows the responses of the EM models: here, the differences are much more contained. A slower dynamics in Level 2 and 3 models is justifiable with the effect of friction and other power losses.

Figure 31 shows the responses of the PDE models. Clearly, a difference between Level 2 and Level 1 exists due to the fact that Level 1 does not implement any dynamics. Level 3 and 4 are almost identical, as expected, due to the high frequency dynamics of the modulator and converter which can be fairly neglected in almost all GNC scenarios. However, Level 3 introduces an additional delay with respect to Level 2 due to the inverter diodes and transistors switching dynamics. Figure 32 also highlights

<sup>22</sup>Cooperative Action Leading to Launcher Innovation in Stage Toss back Operations

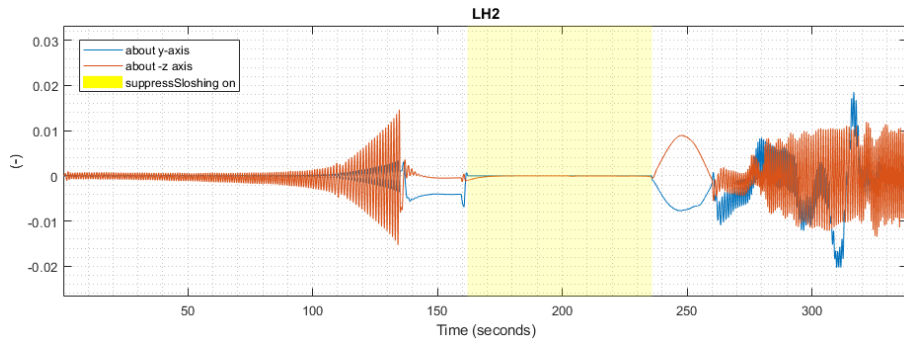


Fig. 27: CALLISTO normalized LH<sub>2</sub> pendulum angles.

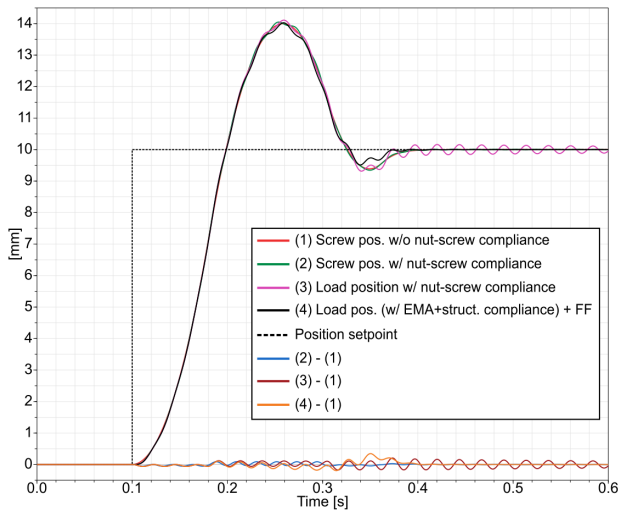


Fig. 28: Stroke position and load position comparison to highlight the control system performance.

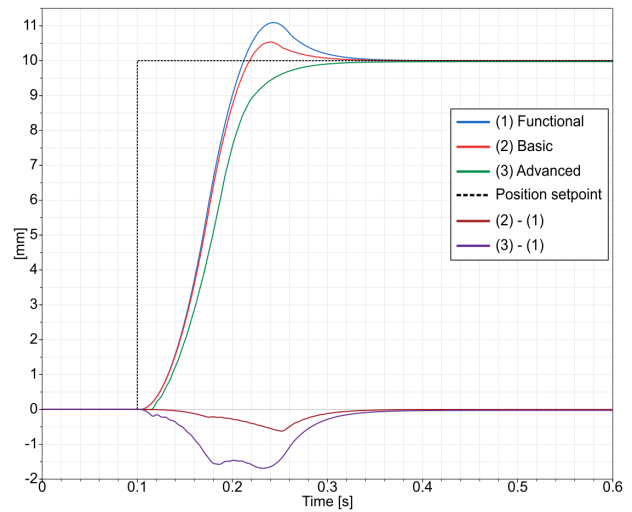


Fig. 29: Stroke position step response with the three different MPT models.

the measured quadrature current  $i_{s,q}$  as compared to the controller current setpoint in Level 4 model.

### 8.3 Legs deployment

To show the legs deployment effects on the vehicle dynamics, CALLISTO vehicle is taken again as example. No real trajectory is simulated; here, the vehicle is freely falling from an altitude of 13m, with null Euler (3-2-1) angles, angular rates and velocity with respect to the inertial frame. It is supposed that the legs deployment command is generated at 0.1s and that each leg receives it with a sequential delay of 0.1s. More realistic conditions will be accounted for in subsequent works. Figure 34 shows that the angular rate of the vehicle is severely affected by the legs unfolding. Note that vehicle attitude is uncontrolled.

Furthermore, there is no aerodynamic force acting on the legs which opposes the pneumatic force  $F_p$ . Lastly, the  $T_s$  and  $F_p$  values are not resembling the actual CALLISTO ones. Despite the simplifications, the effectiveness of the model is demonstrated and could be made even more realistic in the future.

### 8.4 Ground contact

The simulated scenario is similar to the one before, but with the presence of a ground model. Due to the non-null attitude (caused by the legs deployment), the vehicle touchdown does not happen with the four legs all at the same time; the final dynamics is captured by the angular rates shown in Figures 35 and 36. Immediately after the first legs touch the ground, the vehicle starts wobbling

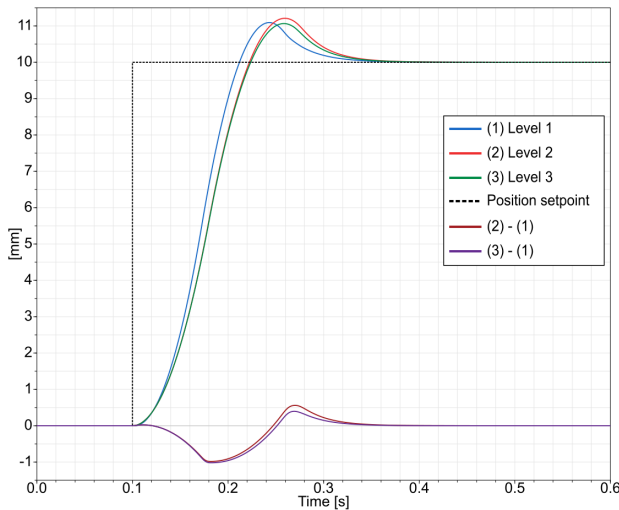


Fig. 30: Stroke position step response with the three different EM models.

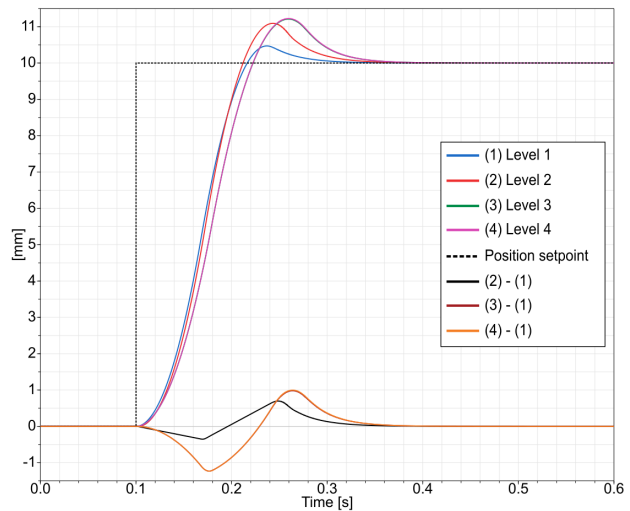


Fig. 31: Stroke position step response with the four different PDE models.

intermittently onto two legs periodically until this motion stops, after about 5s. Thus, the vehicle does not undergo any tipping. However, it is clear how the final stability depends on the touchdown attitude, but also on the ground-leg stiffness and damping factors.

## 9. Conclusions

This paper shows the potential of the Vertical Landing Vehicle Library (VLVLlib) written using Modelica, an acausal object-oriented modeling language. The library implements several key dynamics of Vertical Landing (VL) Reusable Launch Vehicles (RLVs) sub-components, in order to produce advanced vehicle models and successively achieve a thorough GNC system testing, verification and validation. The modeling and implementation rationale have been explained and proved successful for maintaining a big flexibility when creating models with different fidelity levels, as well as managing a large amount of sub-models and interfaces. In this sense, Modelica language features, like inheritance, redeclarations, or fine class name scoping control, have been exploited at their full extent.

Four main dynamics affecting vehicle overall behavior have been investigated and the modeling strategy explained for each of them. They are propellant slosh dynamics, the TVC system, and the landing legs unfolding and the ground contact dynamics. Simulation results have been proposed to demonstrate the library implementation and that the resulting reusable launch vehicle overall model can be built so to include any of those dynamics of interest.

In conclusion, the presented library can perspectivevely integrate the GNC simulation, validation and verification work logic within any stage of a reusable launch vehicle development process.

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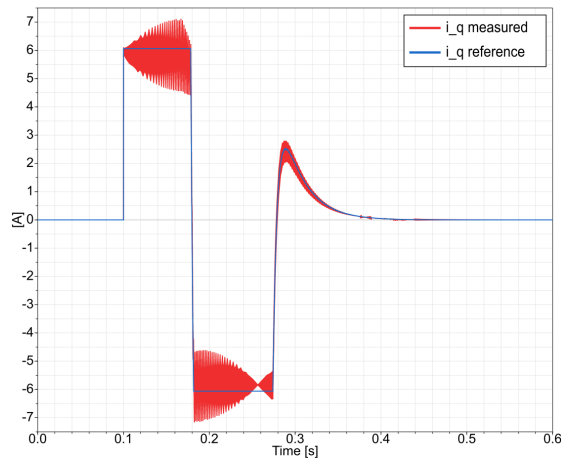


Fig. 32: Current dynamics as compared to its reference (Level 4 PDE model).

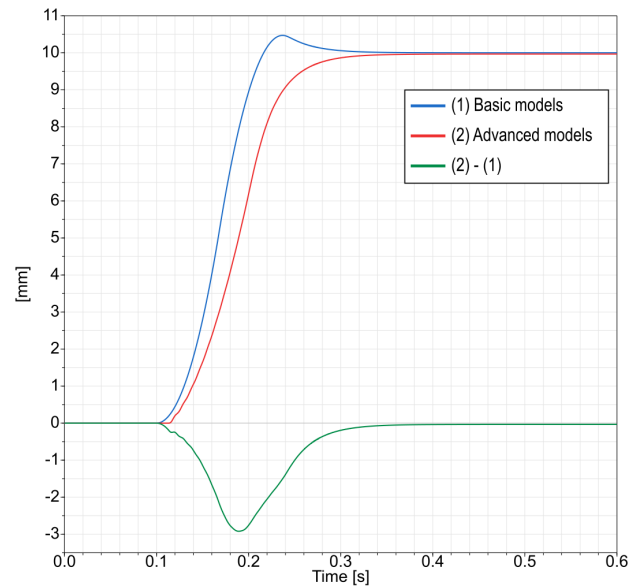


Fig. 33: Stroke position step response: most basic vs most advanced component models.

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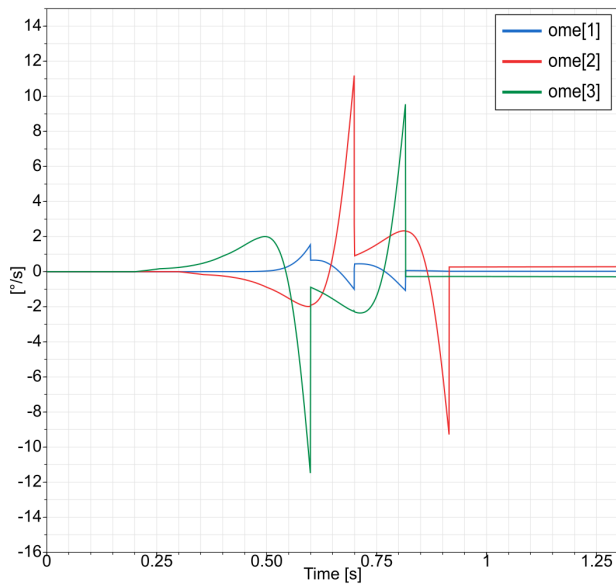


Fig. 34: CALLISTO angular rates as induced by the legs deployment.

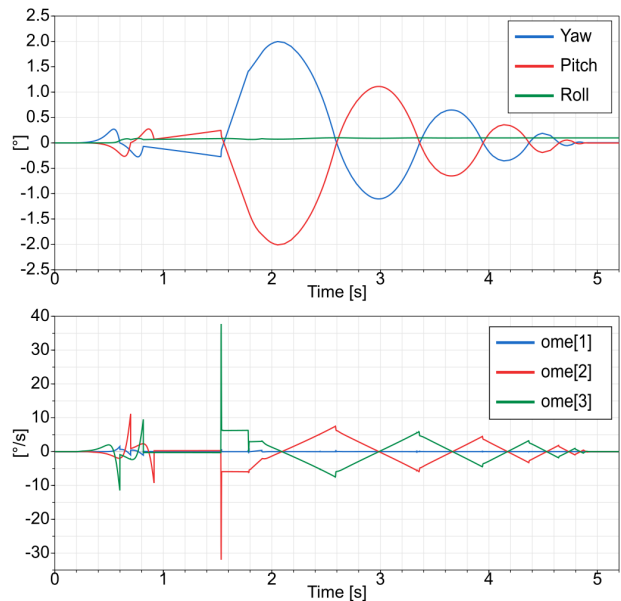


Fig. 35: Euler angles (3-2-1 rotation) and angular rates of CALLISTO at touchdown.

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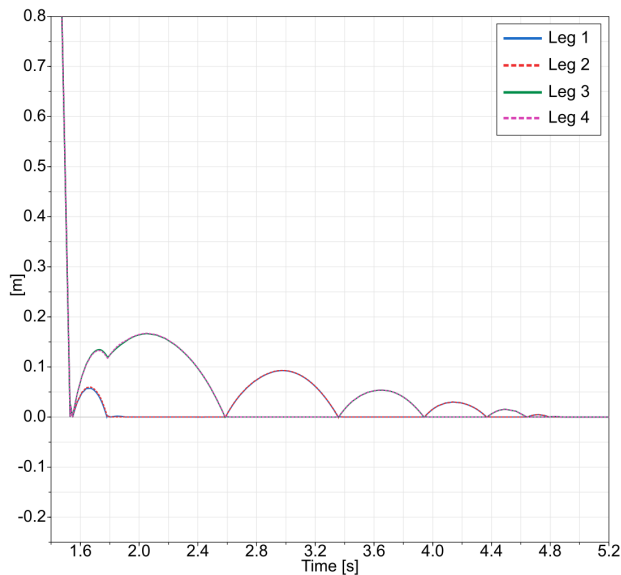


Fig. 36: Legs distance from ground during touchdown.

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