Turboelectric and Hybrid Electric Aircraft Drive Key Performance Parameters

Kirsten P. Duffy¹ University of Toledo, Toledo, Ohio, 44606, USA

and

Ralph H. Jansen² NASA Glenn Research Center, Brook Park, Ohio, 44135, USA

NASA has been investigating electrified aircraft propulsion as a means of furthering its goals of reducing fuel burn, emissions, and noise. However, the electric drive components required introduce weight and efficiency penalties at odds with these goals. The purpose of this paper is to propose electric drive specific power, electric drive efficiency, and electrical propulsion fraction as the key performance parameters for fully turboelectric, partially turboelectric, and parallel hybrid electric aircraft power systems. The impacts of these parameters on overall aircraft performance are investigated. Range equations for each aircraft type are described. The benefits and costs that may result from the electrified propulsion systems are enumerated. A break even analysis is conducted to find the minimum allowable electric drive specific power and efficiency, for a given electrical propulsion fraction and battery specific energy, that can preserve the range, payload weight, input energy, and ratio of operating empty weight to initial weight of the conventional aircraft.

I. Nomenclature

D	=	drag
g	=	gravitational constant
L	=	lift
P _{batt}	=	battery output power
$P_{\rm elec}$	=	electrical drive system output power
$P_{\rm fuel}$	=	fuel output power
Pprop	=	propulsive output power
P _{turb}	=	turbine engine output power
R	=	range of aircraft
$Se_{\rm batt}$	=	battery specific energy
Se_{fuel}	=	fuel specific energy
$Sp_{ m elec}$	=	electric drive specific power
Т	=	cruise thrust
$v_{\rm cruise}$	=	cruise velocity
$W_{\rm i}$	=	initial cruise weight of aircraft
$W_{\rm f}$	=	final weight of aircraft
$W_{\rm elec}$	=	electric drive weight
$W_{\rm fuel}$	=	aircraft fuel weight
$W_{\rm pay}$	=	payload weight
$W_{\rm OEW}$	=	empty weight of aircraft (operating empty weight)
α	=	ratio of takeoff to cruise power
$\eta_{ m elec}$	=	efficiency of electric drive system

-

¹Senior Research Associate, Mechanical, Industrial, and Manufacturing Engineering, and AIAA Member.

²Electrical Engineer, Aeronautics Mission Office, and AIAA Member.

η_{o}	=	overall efficiency of the aircraft
$\eta_{ m prop}$	=	propulsive efficiency of aircraft
$\eta_{ m therm}$	=	thermal efficiency of turbine engine
ξ	=	electrical propulsion fraction

Subscripts:

AC	=	conventional turbofan AirCraft
HE	=	parallel Hybrid Electric aircraft
PE	=	Partially turboElectric aircraft
TE	=	fully TurboElectric aircraft

II. Introduction

here is substantial interest in the investigation of improvements to aircraft efficiency through the introduction of electrical components into the aircraft propulsion system. In the case of turboelectric and hybrid electric aircraft, the electrical systems can provide unmatched flexibility in coupling the power generation turbines to the fan propulsors. This flexibility can allow greater propulsion airframe integration and can result in reduced noise, emissions, and fuel burn. However, the greatly expanded electrical system introduces weight and efficiency burdens at odds with these benefits. A potentially promising intermediate step between a conventional turbofan aircraft and a fully turboelectric or electric aircraft is a partially turboelectric or hybrid electric propulsion system. Initial studies show that a significant aerodynamic benefit can be achieved while only requiring a fraction of the propulsive power to be managed electrically. However, it is difficult to arrive at authoritative conclusions since the aircraft configurations themselves and many of the major electrical system components have yet to be built or verified. A breakeven analysis is presented here to elucidate the electrical power system performance requirements necessary to achieve electrified aircraft propulsion, specifically fully turboelectric, partially turboelectric, and parallel hybrid electric. This first-order analysis provides a framework for comparing electric drive system performance factors, such as the electrical efficiency, in the context of aircraft propulsion systems. The value of this analysis is both to guide electrical system component research as well as to provide aircraft configuration researchers with reasonable component expectations.

Similar parametric analyses were presented previously for a fully turboelectric propulsion system [1] and a partially turboelectric system [2]. The current study investigates a broader array of aircraft types, including the fully and partially turboelectric aircraft already addressed, as well as parallel hybrid electric aircraft. In the cases of partially turboelectric and hybrid electric, the fraction of thrust power will be varied between the turbofan engines and electric distribution to additional propulsors. A key difference between this study and the prior studies is in the breakeven analysis assumptions. Here the input power and ratio of operating empty weight to aircraft initial weight are held constant among the aircraft types, in addition to equating the range and payload weight. The other studies held either the initial aircraft weight or the fuel weight to be the same, as well as the operating empty weight.

III. Benefits and Costs of Electrified Aircraft Propulsion

A. Benefits of Electrified Aircraft Propulsion

The turboelectric aircraft propulsion-derived system benefits have been described in previous papers by Jansen et al. [1-2], and the main points are now summarized. Higher propulsive efficiency due to increased bypass ratio (BPR), higher propulsive efficiency due to boundary layer ingestion (BLI), and lift-to-drag ratio (L/D) improvements are facilitated by electrified propulsion.

Introduction of an electric drive system between the turbine and fan allows decoupling of their speeds and inlet/outlet areas. With this approach, high BPR can be achieved since any number and size of fans can be driven from a single turbine. Increasing BPR results in improved propulsive efficiency. Also, the speed ratio between the turbine and the fan can be arbitrarily set and varied during operation, thereby removing the physical constraint levied by either direct shaft or geared coupling. As a result, the fan pressure ratio and the turbine/compressor ratios can be optimized independently. The propulsive efficiency benefits due to higher BPR could be as high as 4-8% [3, 4].

BLI increases propulsive efficiency by ingesting lower velocity flow near the airframe into the propulsors, reenergizing the wake, and thereby reducing drag. BLI can be implemented on both conventional tube-and-wing as well as hybrid wing body (HWB) aircraft. The propulsor is mounted such that the slow moving flow near the aircraft

is ingested, reenergized, and exhausted where the aircraft wake would have been. The BLI benefits to propulsive efficiency are expected to be 3-8% [4, 5]. Combining BPR and BLI propulsive efficiencies listed here yields improvements of 7-17%.

Distributed propulsion is expected to improve both lift and L/D ratio through wing flow circulation control. The propulsors can be distributed above, below, or embedded in the traditional tube and wing configuration. Likewise, HWB configurations can employ fans distributed across the upper surface or embedded. Improvements in L/D ratio may result in smaller wing area, and reduced drag and weight. The benefits of lift augmentation can be taken in reduced wing area for a given load capacity or shorter takeoff distances. Reduction in wing area reduces wing weight, lowers drag, and thereby imparts fuel savings. Alternatively, the improved lift could be focused on increased climb rate and reduced takeoff distance in order to decrease the noise footprint around the airfield. The L/D ratio could be improved by 8% [6]-16% [5].

B. Costs of Electrified Aircraft Propulsion

Introducing an electric drive system, with or without batteries, into the aircraft propulsion system will incur penalties in the form of added weight and reduced efficiency. Here, the electric drive system includes the electric machines, the power management and distribution system, and the thermal system related to heat removal in the two prior systems. Specifically, the electric drive system could include generators, rectifiers, distribution wiring, fault protection, inverters, motors, and the thermal control for those components.

NASA is investigating high performance motors and batteries that could make electrified aircraft propulsion viable. With regard to the electric drive components, NASA is looking to improve both the efficiency and specific power of generators, motors, inverters, and rectifiers. A NASA research announcement has a goal of developing technologies and demonstrating a MW-class motor with efficiency greater than 96% and power density of greater than 13 kW/kg. This is just one component of the electric drive system. The partially turboelectric STARC-ABL (Single-aisle Turboelectric AiRCraft with Aft Boundary Layer propuls or) aircraft concept assumes those values for the motors and generators, as well as rectifiers and inverters with 19 kW/kg and 99% efficiency. Stacking up all the components for this aircraft, including cables, circuit protection, and thermal management, yields an electric drive efficiency of 89.1% [7].

With regard to batteries, current state of the art Lithium-ion batteries have a specific energy on the cell level of up to 200 Wh/kg. Projected values in 15 and 30 years are 650 and 750 Wh/kg respectively for Lithium-sulfur, and 950 and 1400 Wh/kg respectively for Lithium-air [8]. These values have to be de-rated based on depth of discharge, battery structure, and battery management. For comparison, the specific energy of aviation fuel is approximately 12,000 Wh/kg.

Clearly the benefits of improved propulsive efficiency from high BPR and BLI, as well as increased L/D must be greater than the costs of electrified aircraft propulsion, and the balance of these benefits and constraints are presented here.

C. Aircraft Concepts with Electrified Aircraft Propulsion

NASA has been investigating several different electrified propulsion systems for aircraft, including fully turboelectric, partially turboelectric, and parallel hybrid electric systems.

The N3-X concept shown in Fig. 1 is a 300-passenger, hybrid wing body aircraft with a fully turboelectric propulsion system, and a design range of 7500 nmi. Turbine engines are located at the wing tips, powering generators. Electric power is then transmitted through cables to a series of motor-driven fans located near the trailing edge of the aircraft. This configuration allows for a higher lift-to-drag ratio due to the hybrid wing body, as well as higher propulsive efficiency due to the increase in fan bypass ratio and boundary layer ingestion. This concept, described by Felder, Brown, Kim, and Chu [5] was conceived as a future generation aircraft to meet NASA's goal of 70% fuel bum reduction. Out of the 70% overall improvements, 18-20% of fuel burn reduction was attributed to the turboelectric propulsion system architecture.

Figure 2 shows the partially turboelectric concept STARC-ABL, which is a 154-passenger aircraft with a design range of 3500 nmi. This commercial transport concept was developed for notional entry into service in 2035, and compared to a similar technology conventional configuration by Welstead and Felder [9]. The propulsion system consists of two underwing turbofans with generators extracting power from the fan shaft and transmitting it to a rear fuselage, axis ymmetric, boundary layer ingesting fan. The power to the tailcone fan is constant and contributes approximately 20% of the thrust at takeoff and about 45% of the thrust at cruise. Analysis in Ref. 9 indicates that the partially turboelectric concept has an economic mission fuel burn reduction of 7%, and a design mission fuel burn reduction of 12% compared to the conventional configuration. It should be noted that subsequent studies have predicted fuel burn reductions that are in the range of 3-4%, but were not available for referencing at the time of this publication.

Figure 3 shows the PEGASUS concept (Parallel Electric-Gas Architecture with Synergistic Utilization Scheme), which is a 48-passenger parallel hybrid electric aircraft. This concept is described by Antcliff and Capristan [10]. A detailed analysis of an intermediate parallel hybrid electric concept was performed by Antcliff et al. [11], which was based on the ATR-42-500 conventional fuel-based aircraft with a range of 600 nmi. The analysis included various levels of battery specific energy, which is a critical parameter as battery weight has been shown to be a significant penalty for these types of aircraft. They found that a specific energy of 750 Wh/kg was required to breakeven on total energy, even as the aircraft weight increased over the baseline value.

The N3-X, STARC-ABL, and PEGASUS concepts will be used as case studies for the breakeven analysis in this study.





Fig. 3 PEGASUS concept.

IV. Breakeven Analysis

A. Key Performance Parameters and Key Assumptions

In order to conduct the breakeven analysis we first define the key performance parameters (KPPs), the key assumptions, and the electrical power system boundary. Then we will formulate range equations for each aircraft type. Finally, we find the breakeven relationship by implicitly solving for the electric drive specific power and efficiency while holding constant the ratio of operating empty weight to initial weight, payload weight, input energy (from fuel and/or batteries), and aircraft flight range. The resulting parametric curves can be used as the top-level requirements for the electrical power system and bounding guidelines for further aircraft exploration.

Specifically, the key performance parameters (KPPs) are:

- Electric drive system efficiency, η_{elec} .
- Electric drive system specific power, Sp_{elec} .
- Electric propulsion fraction for partially turboelectric and parallel hybrid electric aircraft, ξ

The breakeven assumptions in this analysis used to determine the values of the KPPs include:

- The ranges of the conventional and electrified aircraft are equal.
- The input energy (fuel and/or battery energy) of the conventional and electrified aircraft are equal.
- The payload weights of all the aircraft are equal.

• The ratio of OEW to initial aircraft weight are equal, where OEW does not include the weights of the electric drive and batteries.

B. Electrified Propulsion System Definitions

Each electrified propulsion system will now be described, along with the boundaries of the electric drive system for each case. Figures 4-7 show simplified diagrams of the conventional (fuel-based) turbofan, fully turboelectric, partially turboelectric, and parallel hybrid electric aircraft propulsion systems, respectively. The conventional turbofan system is considered the baseline aircraft system for comparison. The building blocks of the systems are the energy source (fuel and/or battery), the turbine engine, the propulsor, and the electric drive for the electrified propulsion cases. We denote the conventional turbofan aircraft, fully turboelectric, partially turboelectric, and parallel hybrid electric parameters with the subscripts AC, TE, and PE, and HE, respectively. Power is denoted by the letter P, efficiency by η , specific energy by Se, and specific power by Sp.



Fig. 4 Conventional, fuel-based aircraft propulsion system (AC).



Fig. 5 Fully turboelectric aircraft propulsion system (TE).



Fig. 6 Partially turboelectric aircraft propulsion system (PE).



Fig. 7 Parallel hybrid electric propulsion system (HE).

The turbine, propulsor, and electric drive have associated thermal (η_{therm}), propulsive (η_{prop}), and electrical efficiencies (η_{elec}). The fuel power (P_{fuel}), battery power (P_{batt}), turbine engine power (P_{turb}), electrical power (P_{elec}), and propulsive power (P_{prop}) are defined as output power of the fuel, battery, turbine engine, electric drive, and propulsors, respectively. The variables in each of Figs. 4-7 illustrate the association between the propulsive subsystems, powers, and efficiencies for each propulsion system. In the partially turboelectric and parallel hybrid electric cases, we must introduce the electrical propulsion fraction, ζ , which we define as the fraction of total aircraft thrust at cruise produced by electrically driven propulsors. When the electrical propulsion fraction is equal to one, all the thrust during cruise is provided by electrically driven propulsors. The fully turboelectric system is one in which all the thrust throughout the mission, including takeoff and cruise, is provided by electrically driven propulsors. Therefore the electrically driven propulsors.

The electric drive specific power (Sp_{elec}) , efficiency (η_{elec}) , and the electrical propulsion fraction (ξ) are proposed as the three KPPs of the electric drive system in the electrified aircraft. Specific power Sp_{elec} is the ratio of the rated electric drive output power to its mass. Efficiency η_{elec} is the ratio of the output power to the input power of the electric drive system. Electrical propulsion fraction ξ is the fraction of total aircraft thrust at cruise produced by electrically driven propulsors. These three KPPs will be used to describe electrical power system performance and establish levels of performance necessary.

The boundary of the electric drive system is defined to lend meaning to the KPPs. For this paper, the boundary will include generators, rectifiers, distribution wiring, fault protection, inverters, motors, and the thermal control for those components. The parallel hybrid electric system does not require generators. Some variants of the electrical drive system may use a subset of these components or alternative layouts. The specific power and electrical efficiency analyzed in this study includes all of the components inside the boundary. Notably, the turbine engine and the propulsors are outside of the electric drive boundary.

A simplified assessment of the relationship between the electric drive system KPPs and the aircraft range and input energy is proposed for top-level aircraft performance comparisons. The range equations are discussed first, then the input energy, and finally the component weights. The breakeven equations are derived for fully turboelectric, partially turboelectric, and parallel hybrid electric aircraft.

C. Breakeven on Range

The basis of the analysis is an expansion of the traditional terms in the Breguet range equation for fuel-based aircraft to include the efficiency and weight of the electric drive system. The range equation for for battery-powered aircraft from Hepperle [12] is expanded in a similar way. These equations apply to situations where overall aerodynamic efficiency, the L/D, and flight velocity are constant over the duration of cruise. Although not true for the entire flight envelope, this description is a reasonable approximation for cruise conditions.

We develop range equations of the typical form representing the conventional aircraft and electrified propulsion aircraft configurations concurrently for comparison. The range equations for fuel-based and battery-based aircraft are, respectively,

$$R_{\rm fuel} = \frac{Se_{\rm fuel}}{g} \frac{L}{D} \eta_{\rm o} \ln\left(\frac{W_{\rm i}}{W_{\rm f}}\right) \tag{1}$$

and

$$R_{\text{batt}} = \frac{Se_{\text{batt}}}{g} \frac{L}{D} \eta_{\text{o}} \left(\frac{W_{\text{batt}}}{W_{\text{i}}} \right)$$
(2)

where Se_{fuel} and Se_{batt} are the specific energies of the fuel and battery, and η_0 is the overall efficiency of the propulsion system.

For fuel-based aircraft, the final aircraft weight, W_f , is equal to the initial aircraft weight, W_i , minus the fuel weight W_{fuel} . Thus the fuel-based range equation is

$$R_{\text{fuel}} = \frac{Se_{\text{fuel}}}{g} \frac{L}{D} \eta_{\text{o}} \ln\left(\frac{1}{1 - W_{\text{fuel}}/W_{\text{i}}}\right). \tag{3}$$

Note that for small values of $W_{\text{fuel}}/W_{\text{i}}$,

$$\ln\left(\frac{1}{1 - W_{\text{fuel}}/W_{\text{i}}}\right) \sim \frac{W_{\text{fuel}}}{W_{\text{i}}},\tag{4}$$

which shows that Eqs. 1 and 2 have a similar form. Thus the range is approximately proportional to the ratio of the energy source weight to the aircraft initial weight. Since Se_{fuel} , battery weight for the same range will be much larger than fuel weight.

The overall efficiency of each aircraft type is defined in Eqs. 5-8 in Table 1 as functions of propulsive efficiency, η_{prop} , thermal efficiency, η_{therm} , and electric drive efficiency, η_{elec} . Note that the propulsive efficiency η_{prop} defined here is actually the product of transfer efficiency and propulsive efficiency.

To see how adding the electric drive system affects overall efficiency, the ratio of electrified aircraft to baseline conventional overall efficiency is plotted in Fig. 8 as a function of electric propulsion fraction. Here it is assumed that the thermal efficiency is 55% and the electric drive efficiency is 90%. Increasing ξ decreases overall efficiency for the turboelectric cases, since the electric drive system is in series with the turbine engine. Since η_{elec} is larger than η_{therm} , the hybrid electric system has increasing overall efficiency compared to the baseline. However, the battery weight required for hybrid electric will be a significant penalty in the breakeven analysis.

Tuble 1 6 ver un Enterency Explanations			
Aircraft Type	Overall Efficiency		
Conventional Aircraft (AC)	$\eta_{oAC} = \eta_{propAC} \eta_{thermAC}$	(5)	
Fully Turboelectric Aircraft (TE)	$\eta_{\text{o}TE} = \eta_{\text{prop}TE}\eta_{\text{therm}TE}\eta_{\text{elec}TE}$	(6)	
Partially Turboelectric Aircraft (PE)	$\eta_{\text{oPE}} = \frac{\eta_{\text{prop}PE} \eta_{\text{therm}PE} \eta_{\text{elec}PE}}{(1-\xi)\eta_{\text{elec}PE} + \xi}$	(7)	
Parallel Hybrid Electric Aircraft (HE)	$\eta_{\text{oHE}} = \frac{\eta_{\text{prop}HE} \eta_{\text{therm}HE} \eta_{\text{elecHE}}}{(1-\xi)\eta_{\text{elecHE}} + \xi \eta_{\text{therm}HE}}$	(8)	

 Table 1 Overall Efficiency Equations



Fig. 8 Ratio of electrified to conventional aircraft overall efficiency.

D. Breakeven on Input Energy

The input energy of fuel is simply the product of the specific energy of the fuel and the fuel mass. Similarly, the input energy of the battery is simply the product of the specific energy of the battery and the battery mass. Thus, the input energy equations are

$$E_{\rm fuel} = \frac{Se_{\rm fuel}}{g} W_{\rm fuel} \tag{9}$$

and

$$E_{\text{batt}} = \frac{Se_{\text{batt}}}{g} W_{\text{batt}}.$$
 (10)

E. Relationship among Aircraft Component Weights

The final part of the breakeven analysis relates the specific power of the electric propulsion system to the other component weights. We know that the initial aircraft weight is defined as the sum of the OEW, payload weight, fuel weight, electric drive system weight (for electrified aircraft), and battery weight (for HE aircraft):

$$W_{\rm i} = W_{\rm OEW} + W_{\rm payload} + W_{\rm fuel} + W_{\rm elec} + W_{\rm batt} .$$
⁽¹¹⁾

From Eq. 11 we can see that

$$\frac{W_{\text{elec}}}{W_{\text{i}}} = 1 - \frac{W_{\text{OEW}}}{W_{\text{i}}} - \frac{W_{\text{fuel}}}{W_{\text{i}}} - \frac{W_{\text{batt}}}{W_{\text{i}}} - \frac{W_{\text{payload}}}{W_{\text{i}}} \,. \tag{12}$$

noting that the payload weight and the ratio of OEW to initial aircraft weight are constant among the aircraft.

For the TE aircraft, where all the power must pass through the electric drive system, the Sp_{elec} will be defined based on the takeoff power rather than the cruise power. If we denote the ratio of takeoff to cruise power as α , then the electric drive system weight ratio is [1]

$$\frac{W_{\text{elecTE}}}{W_{\text{iTE}}} = \frac{\alpha v_{\text{cruise}}}{\left(\frac{L}{D} \eta_{\text{prop}}\right)_{TE}} Sp_{\text{elec}}/g \,. \tag{13}$$

Alternatively, it is assumed for the partially turboelectric and parallel hybrid electric cases that the electric propulsion power, which is the product of ξ and the propulsion power, is not required for takeoff, so the electric drive system weight ratio is defined as [2]

$$\frac{W_{\text{elec}HE,PE}}{W_{\text{i}HE,PE}} = \frac{\xi v_{\text{cruise}}}{\left(\frac{L}{D}\eta_{\text{prop}}\right)_{HEPE}} Sp_{\text{elec}}/g \,. \tag{14}$$

V. Breakeven Results

A. Fully Turboelectric Aircraft (TE)

Equations for the fully turboelectric aircraft are as follows, for the range, input energy, and component weight equations, respectively:

$$\ln\left(1 - \frac{W_{\text{fuel}TE}}{W_{\text{i}TE}}\right) = \frac{\left(\frac{L}{D}\eta_{\text{prop}}\eta_{\text{therm}}\right)_{AC}}{\left(\frac{L}{D}\eta_{\text{prop}}\eta_{\text{therm}}\eta_{\text{elec}}\right)_{TE}}\ln\left(1 - \frac{W_{\text{fuel}AC}}{W_{\text{i}AC}}\right)$$
(15)

$$\frac{W_{iAC}}{W_{iTE}} = \frac{\left(\frac{W_{fuelTE}}{W_{iTE}}\right)}{\left(\frac{W_{fuelAC}}{W_{iAC}}\right)}$$
(16)

and

$$\frac{W_{\text{elecTE}}}{W_{\text{iTE}}} = \left(1 - \frac{W_{\text{fuelTE}}}{W_{\text{iTE}}} - \frac{W_{\text{OEW}}}{W_{\text{i}}}\right) - \frac{W_{\text{iAC}}}{W_{\text{iTE}}} \left(1 - \frac{W_{\text{fuelAC}}}{W_{\text{iAC}}} - \frac{W_{\text{OEW}}}{W_{\text{i}}}\right). \tag{17}$$

Several observations can be made from Eqs. 15-17. First, Eq. 15 shows that the fuel fraction for the turboelectric aircraft will be reduced if the product of L/D and overall efficiency is increased compared to the baseline aircraft. Then Eq. 16 shows that the aircraft weight will increase compared to the baseline, which is a result of the added electric drive system.

To solve this set of equations for Sp_{elec} , we first assume a value of η_{elec} (e.g. $\eta_{elec} = 100\%$). Then Eq. 15 will yield the fuel fraction W_{fuelTE}/W_{iTE} , given the baseline fuel fraction, and assumed values for L/D and η . From Eq. 16 we find the ratio of conventional initial aircraft weight to turboelectric initial aircraft weight, which is then substituted into Eq. 17 to give the electric drive system weight ratio W_{elecTE}/W_{iTE} . Finally Eq. 13 is solved for Sp_{elec} . This is repeated for a range of values of η_{elec} , resulting in a curve of η_{elec} vs. Sp_{elec} for the turboelectric system. This procedure is used in a similar way for the partially turboelectric and parallel hybrid electric propulsion systems, using the appropriate equations for those aircraft.

Similar to the study by Jansen et al. [1], the electric drive specific power and efficiency required to breakeven on range and input energy were determined, based on expected propulsive improvements. Again, the difference between this analysis and the previous analysis is in the breakeven based on constant input energy and constant ratio of OEW to initial weight versus constant initial weight and OEW in the previous study.

The turboelectric aircraft studied here is based on the NASA N3-X hybrid wing body fully turboelectric aircraft. In Felder et al. [5], the N3-X was compared to two different baseline aircraft configurations – a conventional tubeand-wing aircraft (777-200LR) and an intermediate hybrid wing body aircraft with conventional propulsion (N3A). Table 2 details the parameters used in the analysis. For all the aircraft, it is assumed that the transfer efficiency is 80% (which is multiplied by the propulsive efficiency given in the paper to give η_{prop}), and the thermal efficiency η_{therm} is assumed to be 55%.

First, we look at the effect of aero and propulsive benefits on the breakeven curves. Here the baseline parameters η_{prop} and L/D are based on the Boeing 777 aircraft, and the maximum benefits are those for the fully turboelectric N3-X aircraft. We look at three benefit levels between the baseline 777 and N3-X; these include combined aero and propulsive benefits of 7%, 18%, and 29% for minimum, medium, and maximum benefits, respectively. The 29% benefit is representative of the N3-X versus the 777 baseline with the L/D and η_{prop} improvements shown in Table 2.

Figure 9 shows the breakeven curves for the three levels of propulsive benefits. Electric drive systems with performance above each curve should result in lower fuel burn. Clearly, improving L/D and η_{prop} leads to lower demands on the electric drive system. Table 2 includes the specific power and efficiency expected of a superconducting electric drive system, 7.1 kW/kg and 98.54%. With these values, only the medium and maximum benefits case would result in lower fuel burn. Relaxing the efficiency to 90%, as for a non-superconducting electric drive system, only the maximum benefits case would result in lower fuel burn.

Parameter	Baseline 777	Baseline N3A	Turboelectric N3-X
α	2.0	1.8	
$v_{\rm cruise}$ (m/s)	255	255	255
$W_{\text{fuelAC}}/W_{\text{iAC}}$	36%	24%	
$W_{\rm OEW}/W_{ m i}$	48%	54%	48% / 54%
L/D	19	22	22
$\eta_{ m prop}$	69.6%	72.2%	77.1%
Sp_{elec} (kW/kg)			7.1
$\eta_{ m elec}$			98.54%

 Table 2 Fully Turboelectric Aircraft Parameters

Figure 10 shows the ratio of electric drive weight to initial turboelectric aircraft weight as a function of specific power. Clearly, the better the specific power is, the lighter the electric drive system will be. For the minimum allowable specific power of 3.1 kW/kg for maximum benefits at 100% efficiency, the electric drive system comprises 9.6% of the aircraft weight. This number quickly falls with increasing specific power. Finally, Fig. 11 shows the increase in the turboelectric aircraft weight as a function of electric drive specific power. This particular breakeven analysis results in heavier aircraft, but with the same fuel burn as the baseline aircraft.





Fig. 11 Ratio of turboelectric to baseline aircraft weight in break even analysis

Figures 12 and 13 show the electric drive breakeven curves for the turboelectric N3-X versus the baseline 777 and the baseline N3A, respectively. The electric drive efficiency and power indicated by the orange symbols is for a superconducting system, which has very high performance. In Fig. 13, we see that the electric drive systemused in the N3-X analysis does not provide fuel burn benefits in this breakeven analysis, even though Ref. 5 showed reduced fuel burn. The discrepancy lies in the breakeven analysis assumptions. Here we are assuming equal input power, which in this case is equal fuel burn. This results in a larger aircraft compared to the baseline N3A. However, the N3-X aircraft actually had a 7% lower aircraft weight than the baseline N3A. This illustrates the sensitivity of this breakeven analysis to the key assumptions. However, Fig. 13 does clearly indicate the necessity of choosing the high-performance superconducting electric drive.



B. Partially Turboelectric Aircraft (PE)

Equations for the partially turboelectric aircraft are as follows, for the range, input energy, and component weight equations, respectively:

$$\ln\left(1 - \frac{W_{\text{fuel}PE}}{W_{\text{i}PE}}\right) = \frac{\left(\frac{L}{D}\eta_{\text{prop}}\eta_{\text{therm}}\right)_{AC}}{\left(\frac{L}{D}\frac{\eta_{\text{prop}}\eta_{\text{therm}}\eta_{\text{elec}}}{(1 - \xi)\eta_{\text{elec}} + \xi}\right)_{PE}}\ln\left(1 - \frac{W_{\text{fuel}AC}}{W_{\text{i}AC}}\right)$$
(18)

$$\frac{W_{iAC}}{W_{iPE}} = \frac{\left(\frac{W_{fuelPE}}{W_{iPE}}\right)}{\left(\frac{W_{fuelAC}}{W_{iAC}}\right)}$$
(19)

and

$$\frac{W_{\text{elec}PE}}{W_{\text{i}PE}} = \left(1 - \frac{W_{\text{fuel}PE}}{W_{\text{i}PE}} - \frac{W_{\text{OEW}}}{W_{\text{i}}}\right) - \frac{W_{\text{i}AC}}{W_{\text{i}PE}} \left(1 - \frac{W_{\text{fuel}AC}}{W_{\text{i}AC}} - \frac{W_{\text{OEW}}}{W_{\text{i}}}\right). \tag{20}$$

These equations are similar to the fully turboelectric case, except in the definitions of overall efficiency (Eq. 7 vs. Eq. 6) and electric drive system weight (Eq. 14 vs. Eq. 13).

The effect of electric propulsion fraction on required electric drive system performance was examined for the case of the partially turboelectric STARC-ABL aircraft concept. Welstead and Felder [9] performed a systems study of the STARC-ABL aircraft compared to an N+3 Conventional Configuration (N3CC) baseline conventional fuel-powered turbofan aircraft. Table 3 shows the baseline and partially turboelectric aircraft parameters used in the breakeven analysis. The propulsive efficiency for a CFM56 fan is assumed to be 80%, which is multiplied by the transfer efficiency of 80% to give 64%. Similarly, the propulsive efficiency of 93.9% for the GE hFan is used for the STARC-ABL analysis, and is multiplied by 80% to give 75.1%.

If we assume that L/D and η_{prop} are constant with changing electric propulsion fraction, then the breakeven curves are as shown in Fig. 14. The STARC-ABL aircraft has an electric propulsion fraction ξ of 45% at cruise, and if we assume that the aero and propulsive parameters L/D and η_{prop} for the STARC-ABL in Table 3 scale with ξ then the breakeven curves are as shown in Fig. 15. This shows the effect of the benefits versus the costs of the electric drive system, and the importance of predicting those benefits in this type of analysis.

Assuming constant η_{prop} and L/D, Fig. 16 shows the electric drive weight ratio; the weights are lower for partially turboelectric compared to the fully turboelectric, since the electric drive system is sized based on cruise power rather than takeoff power. Figure 17 shows the ratio of partially turboelectric aircraft to conventional aircraft initial weights.

Parameter	Baseline N3CC	Partially Turboelectric STARC-ABL
ξ		45%
$v_{\rm cruise} ({\rm m/s})$	206	206
$W_{\text{fuel}AC}/W_{\text{i}AC}$	17%	
$W_{\rm OEW}/W_{\rm i}$	57%	57%
L/D	21.4	22.3
$\eta_{ m prop}$	64%	75.1%
Sp_{elec} (kW/kg)		2.0
$\eta_{ m elec}$		90%

Table 3 Partially Turboelectric Aircraft Parameters



Figure 18 shows the results of the breakeven analysis for the STARC-ABL concept at its design electric propulsion fraction of 45%. Here we see that the electric drive efficiency and specific power used in Ref. 9 does result in an aircraft with lower fuel burn. Unlike the N3-X example, the STARC-ABL aircraft actually has a 3% higher initial weight than the baseline, whereas the breakeven analysis shows a 7% higher initial weight at $Sp_{elec}=2 \text{ kW/kg}$. In general, the breakeven analysis assumptions are similar to the systems study in Ref. 9; therefore the results are similar.



Figure 18. Breakeven for STARC-ABL vs. N3CC.

C. Parallel Hybrid Electric Aircraft (HE)

Equations for the parallel hybrid electric aircraft are as follows, for the fuel range, electrical propulsion fraction, input energy, and component weight equations, respectively:

$$\ln\left(1 - \frac{W_{\text{fuel}HE}}{W_{\text{i}HE}}\right) = (1 - \xi) \frac{\left(\frac{L}{D}\eta_{\text{therm}}\eta_{\text{prop}}\right)_{AC}}{\left(\frac{L}{D}\eta_{\text{therm}}\eta_{\text{prop}}\right)_{HE}} \ln\left(1 - \frac{W_{\text{fuel}AC}}{W_{\text{i}AC}}\right)$$
(21)

$$\frac{W_{\text{batt}HE}}{W_{\text{i}HE}} = \left(\frac{\xi}{1-\xi}\right) \frac{Se_{\text{fuel}}}{Se_{\text{batt}}} \frac{\eta_{\text{therm}HE}}{\eta_{\text{elec}HE}} \frac{W_{\text{fuel}HE}}{W_{\text{i}HE}}$$
(22)

$$\frac{W_{iAC}}{W_{iHE}} = \frac{Se_{batt}\left(\frac{W_{battHE}}{W_{iHE}}\right) + Se_{fuel}\left(\frac{W_{fuelHE}}{W_{iHE}}\right)}{Se_{fuel}\left(\frac{W_{fuelAC}}{W_{iAC}}\right)}$$
(23)

and

$$\frac{W_{\text{elec}HE}}{W_{\text{i}HE}} = \left(1 - \frac{W_{\text{fuel}HE}}{W_{\text{i}HE}} - \frac{W_{\text{OEW}}}{W_{\text{i}}} - \frac{W_{\text{batt}HE}}{W_{\text{i}HE}}\right) - \frac{W_{\text{i}AC}}{W_{\text{i}HE}} \left(1 - \frac{W_{\text{fuel}AC}}{W_{\text{i}AC}} - \frac{W_{\text{OEW}}}{W_{\text{i}}}\right). \tag{24}$$

The additional equation in this case, Eq. 22, results from the assumption that the battery-powered portion of the thrust is defined by the electrical propulsion fraction, ξ . We can see from Eq. 22 that the ratio of battery weight to initial aircraft weight is directly proportional to the ratio of fuel specific energy to battery specific energy. The fuel specific energy is approximately 12,000 Wh/kg, compared to projected battery specific energy of 500, 750, or 1000 Wh/kg. It is easy to see that the battery weight can become quite large, making hybrid electric configurations more difficult to implement than partially turboelectric configurations, despite the better overall efficiency. However, there are some conditions under which the hybrid electric configuration is more successful. To that end, we investigate the effect of range, Se_{batt} , and electric propulsion fraction ξ on the breakeven curves.

A breakeven analysis was performed for the parallel hybrid electric aircraft described by Antcliff et al. [10, 11]. This is a short-range aircraft devised for 48 passengers; the shorter range makes it a better choice for hybrid electric. The baseline conventional aircraft is the ATR 42-500, which utilizes two turboprop engines. There is an intermediate

parallel hybrid electric concept with a range of 600 nmi, and the parameters shown in Table 4. Here the propulsive efficiencies are calculated assuming a transfer efficiency of 80% and $\eta_{\text{therm}} = 55\%$. The parallel hybrid electric PEGASUS concept has a 400 nmi range, and a fully electric (at cruise) PEGASUS concept has a 200 nmi range.

To start, the effect of aircraft range was examined. The aircraft range is approximately proportional to the baseline aircraft fuel fraction, $W_{\text{fuelAC}}/W_{\text{iAC}}$. Therefore, examining the effect of $W_{\text{fuelAC}}/W_{\text{iAC}}$ in the breakeven analysis is essentially the same as examining the effect of the range. We looked at two values of baseline fuel fraction, $W_{\text{fuelAC}}/W_{\text{iAC}}=0.05$ (shorter range) and $W_{\text{fuelAC}}/W_{\text{iAC}}=0.091$ (baseline 600 nmi). Compared to the aircraft in the turboelectric and partially turboelectric studies, this range is quite small. Figure 19 shows the electric drive performance required for the two ranges, for $Se_{\text{batt}} = 750$ Wh/kg and $\xi = 25\%$. Clearly, the parallel hybrid electric configuration is a better option for shorter range flights, which was expected. Note that the electrical efficiency required for the shorter range flight is very low. This is a result of the parallel configuration. For constant η_{therm} , as long as ($\eta_{\text{elec}} \cdot \eta_{\text{prop}}$)_{HE} > ($\eta_{\text{therm}} \cdot \eta_{\text{prop}}$)_{AC}, the overall efficiency will be higher than the baseline. There are certainly weight penalties, especially for the battery weight, but these can be overcome depending on the aero and propulsive benefits, which are quite high for this case.

Parameter	Baseline	Parallel Hybrid Electric
ξ		25%, 50%, 75%
$v_{\rm cruise} ({\rm m/s})$	150	150
$W_{\text{fuel}AC}/W_{\text{i}AC}$	9.1%	
$W_{\rm OEW}/W_{\rm i}$	64%	64%
L/D	11	15
$\eta_{ m prop}$	60%	72%
Se _{batt} (Wh/kg)		500, 750, 1000
$Sp_{\rm elec}$ (kW/kg)		7.3
$\eta_{ m elec}$		90%

Table 4 Parallel Hybrid Electric Aircraft Parameters

Next the effect of battery specific energy was examined for the shorter range $W_{\text{fuel}AC}/W_{iAC}=0.05$. Figure 20 shows the results for $\xi = 25\%$ for $Se_{\text{batt}} = 500$, 750, and 1000 W-hr/kg. As expected, carrying the heavier batteries increases the performance required of the electric drive system.



Figure 21 shows the breakeven curves for various values of electric propulsion fraction, for $W_{fuelAC}/W_{iAC}=0.05$ and $Se_{batt}=750$ Wh/kg, assuming the aero and propulsive benefits are constant. If we assume that these η_{prop} and L/D change with ξ , normalizing the benefits to $\xi=50\%$, then the breakeven curves are as shown in Fig. 22. There is a big

difference between the two charts, and it clearly illustrates the balance between the aero and propulsive benefits, and the costs of the battery and electric drive system.

Returning to the assumption that the aero and propulsive benefits remain constant, Figs. 23-25 show the electric drive weight fraction, the battery weight fraction, and the ratio of hybrid electric aircraft weight to conventional aircraft initial weight. Compared to the fully and partially turboelectric aircraft, the hybrid electric aircraft requires significant added weight.



0% 0 5 10 15 20 Electric Drive Specific Power Sp_{elec} (kW/kg) Fig. 23 Electric drive weight ratio with equal benefits

1%

Fig. 23 Electric drive weight ratio with equal benefits $Se_{\text{batt}} = 750 \text{ Wh/kg}, W_{\text{fuelac}}/W_{\text{iAC}} = 0.05.$



Now we look at the 600 nmi range parallel hybrid electric aircraft described in Table 4, with a fuel fraction of 0.091. Now we attempt to compare breakeven results with the results in Ref. 11, which show that the 750 Wh/kg battery approximately breaks even on input power, which is one of our analysis assumptions, making it a good study for comparison. The 500 Wh/kg battery increases total energy, and the 1000 Wh/kg battery decreases total energy.

Figure 26 shows the results for the parallel hybrid electric concept in our breakeven analysis for an electric propulsion fraction of 25%. As expected, the 750 Wh/kg battery breakeven line was relatively close to the electric drive efficiency and specific power used in the systems study, which found nearly equal input power for that configuration. Improving Se_{batt} to 1000 Wh/kg allows a relaxation in the electric drive performance. The breakeven analysis did not yield any viable electric drive performance for the 500 Wh/kg battery, as expected.

These results look good; however, increasing the electric propulsion fraction to 50% or higher does not yield feasible electric drive properties in this breakeven analysis, while Ref. 11 did find viable configurations. An inspection of the Ref. 11 results show that the assumption of W_{OEW}/W_i remaining constant is not true for that study. We made an assumption that the aircraft would need to be sized up to carry the weight of the added batteries. If the assumption is made that $W_{\text{OEW}}/(W_i$ - $W_{\text{batt}})$ remains constant, which is similar to the Antcliff results, then viable electric drive configurations can be found for $\xi > 25\%$.



Fig. 26 Breakeven for parallel hybrid electric aircraft example at $\xi = 25\%$

VI. Conclusion

The electrified aircraft propulsion concepts for commercial transport aircraft include a very wide range of propulsion airframe integration options as well as electric drive train options. Bounding analyses or parametric trade studies can be very useful to help narrow choices for detailed studies as well as guide technology development choices. Specific power, efficiency, and electric propulsion fraction have been proposed as key performance parameters (KPPs) for the electric drive system of an electrified aircraft. The boundary of the system is defined between the output shaft of the turbine to the input shaft of the propulsion, and includes the electrical machines, power distribution, any other power components related to propulsion, as well as any thermal systems associated with the power system. Equations were developed that compare the benefits and costs of an electrified aircraft propulsion system compared to the baseline conventional aircraft. Some key conclusions include:

- Fully turboelectric aircraft
 - The requirement that the electric drives ystem must provide power for takeoff results in tougher requirements on specific power than for partially turboelectric aircraft.
- Partially turboelectric aircraft
 - Assuming constant aero and propulsive benefits, a higher electric propulsion fraction requires a better performing electric drive system, due to the added weight of the electric drive system.
 - Assuming propulsive benefits that scale with electric propulsion fraction, a higher electric propulsion fraction relaxes the requirements of the electric drive system, since the higher aero and propulsive benefits cancel the costs of the electric drive system.
- Parallel hybrid electric aircraft
 - Parallel hybrid electric aircraft is better suited to shorter range.
 - Improving battery specific energy will make hybrid electric configurations more feasible.
 - Assuming constant aero and propulsive benefits, increasing the electric propulsion fraction increases the demands on the electric drive system, to an even larger extent than the partially turboelectric system because of the added battery weight.
 - Assuming propulsive benefits that scale with electric propulsion fraction, a higher electric propulsion fraction relaxes the requirements of the electric drive system. Again, the higher aero and propulsive benefits cancel the costs of the electric drive system. Ho wever, the added battery weight makes the benefits less dramatic compared to the partially turboelectric system.
- All aircraft
 - The breakeven curves are very sensitive to the propulsive benefit as sumptions.
 - The breakeven analysis is sensitive to the component weight assumptions. Here it was assumed that the ratio of OEW to initial aircraft weight remains constant. It may be that other component assumptions are better for a given configuration, which could easily be incorporated into the breakeven an alysis.
 - In general, at low specific power, the efficiency of the electric drive system dominates. But increasing specific power above a certain level yields diminishing returns.

Acknowledgments

This work is sponsored by the NASA Advanced Air Transport Technologies project, and funded by the U.S. Government under NASA Contract NNC13TA85T. The methods used in this paper build on an analytical approach developed by Dr. Gerald Brown at NASA Glenn Research Center for preliminary analysis of weights of electrical drive systems.

References

- [1] Jansen, R. H., Brown, G. V., Felder, J. L., and Duffy, K. P., "Turboelectric Aircraft Drive Key Performance Parameters and Functional Requirements," 51 st AIAA/SAE/ASEE Joint Propulsion Conference, AIAA Propulsion and Energy Forum, Reston, VA, 2015.
- [2] Jansen, R. H., Duffy, K. P., and Brown, G. V., "Partially Turboelectric Aircraft Drive Key Performance Parameters," 53rd AIAA/SAE/ASEE Joint Propulsion Conference, AIAA Propulsion and Energy Forum, Atlanta, GA, 2017.

- [3] Felder, J. L., Kim, H. D., and Brown, G. V., "Turboelectric Distributed Propulsion Engine Cycle Analysis for Hybrid-Wing-Body Aircraft," AIAA Paper 2009-1132, 2009.
- [4] Brown, G. V., "Weights and Efficiencies of Electric Components of a Turboelectric Aircraft Propulsion System," AIAA Paper 2011-225, 2011.
- [5] Felder, J. L., Brown, G. V., Kim, H. D., and Chu, J., "Turboelectric Distributed Propulsion in a Hybrid Wing Body Aircraft," 20th International Society for Airbreathing Engines, ISABE-2011-1340, Gothenburg, Sweden, 2011.
- [6] Wick, A. T., Hooker, J. R., Hardin, C. J., and Zeune, C. H., "Integrated Aerodynamic Benefits of Distributed Propulsion," 53rd AIAA Aerospace Science Meeting, AIAA SciTech Forum, Kissimmee, FL, 2015.
- [7] Jansen, R. H., Bowman, C., and Jankovsky, A., "Sizing Power Components of an Electrically Driven Tail Cone Thruster and Range Extender," 16th AIAA Aviation Technology, Integration, and Operations Conference, AIAA Aviation Forum, Washington, DC, 2016.
- [8] Dever, T. P., Duffy, K. P., Provenza, A. J., Loyselle, P. L, Choi, B. B., Morrison, C. R., and Lowe, A. M., "Assessment of Technologies for Noncryogenic Hybrid Electric Propulsion," NASA/TP-2015-216588, 2015.
- [9] Welstead, J. R., and Felder, J. L., "Conceptual Design of a Single-Aisle Turboelectric Commercial Transport with Fuselage Boundary Layer Ingestion," 54th AIAA Aerospace Sciences Meeting, AIAA SciTech Forum, Reston, VA, 2016.
- [10] Antcliff, K. R. and Capristan, F. M, "Conceptual Design of the Parallel-Gas Architecture with Synergistic Utilization Scheme (PEGASUS) Concept," 18th AIAA/ISSMO Multidisciplinary Analysis and Optimization Conference, AIAA Aviation Forum, Denver, CO, 2017.
- [11] Antcliff, K. R., Guynn, M. D., Marien, T. V, Wells, D. P., Schneider, S. J., and Tong, M. T., "Mission Analysis and Aircraft Sizing of a Hybrid-Electric Regional Aircraft," 54th AIAA Aerospace Sciences Meeting, AIAA SciTech Forum, San Diego, CA, 2016.
- [12] Hepperle, M., "Electric Flight Potential and Limitations," *NATO Work shop on Energy Efficient Technologies* and Concepts Operation, STO-MP-ACT-209, October 2012.