

## **Energy Monitoring System for Low-Cost UAVs** **Sistema de Monitorização de Energia para UAVs de Baixo Custo**

Tiago Baiao; tiago.baiao@tecnico.ulisboa.pt

Instituto Superior Tecnico, Universidade de Lisboa

Pedro Gamboa - pgamboa@ubi.pt

AeroG, LAETA, Universidade da Beira Interior

Alexandra Moutinho - alexandra.moutinho@tecnico.ulisboa.pt

IDMEC, LAETA, Instituto Superior Tecnico

Andre C Marta - andre.marta@tecnico.ulisboa.pt

IDMEC, LAETA, Instituto Superior Tecnico

### **Abstract**

In the present, unmanned aerial vehicles, particularly low-cost models, lack intrinsic safety systems despite increasing interest by the civilian public for these platforms, posing a threat to other aircraft, people and property. Integrated in a larger project that addresses safety issues for this type of aircraft, this work aims to contribute to the enhancement of their safety features by proposing an energy monitoring system capable of providing updated estimates of the final state of energy of the onboard sources, enabling the operator to understand if the planned mission can be completed safely, given its energetic requirements and taking into account environmental conditions such as wind and solar radiation. The remaining energy estimate enables better energy awareness during mission planning and the online updates allow to account for unexpected disturbances and obstacle avoidance. The proposed energy monitoring system is qualitatively validated and three methods not previously considered in the literature are proposed to estimate the required energy to complete a given planned mission, and their performance is evaluated using simulation software. It is concluded that the methods discussed are very sensitive to the quality of the data and simulation tools available, and those available would be inadequate for simulating a real scenario. Nonetheless, solid foundations for future work are established.

### **Keywords**

UAV Safety; Mission Feasibility; Energy Requirements; Estimation Models; Estimation Models

# Energy Monitoring System for Low-Cost UAVs

## 1 Introduction

Unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs) are aircraft that operate without an on-board pilot, either being remotely piloted or flying autonomously. In the present there are a variety of civilian applications for UAVs including, but not limited to, border patrol, local law enforcement, inspection of structures and dangerous locations, wildfire, wildlife and crop monitoring, aerial photography and video capture, communications relay, weather monitoring, supply transportation and recreation [1]. In the aerospace industry, the growth of the UAV sector has been the largest in the current decade and this trend is expected to continue.

The lack of intrinsic safety systems for these platforms is the greatest concern in the industry regarding this market. Nonetheless, the interest by the general public for low-cost remotely piloted platforms has grown in recent years, but these aircraft are often manipulated by untrained operators and do not possess relevant safety mechanisms. The current work is part of a larger project [2] that aims to tackle this issue in the domain of low-cost UAVs, by focusing on flight energy management, mission planning and obstacle detection and avoidance, as illustrated in Fig.1.

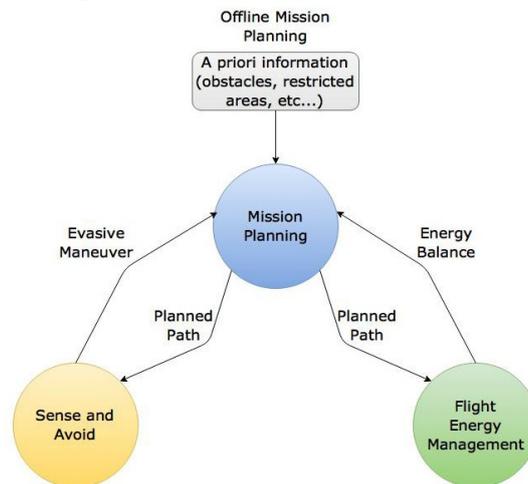


Figure 1 - Low-cost UAV safety enhancement

The energy management (or energy monitoring) module is responsible for assessing the energy requirements and expected energy balance for the assigned mission, and for the aircraft's safe return to base, accounting for meteorological conditions experienced such as wind and solar radiation. The mission planning module verifies the need to adjust the mission according to the energetic constraints identified, and plans a different mission if necessary. The obstacle detection and avoidance module should detect threats in real time and issue a warning to the operator or automatically trigger the execution of an evasive manoeuvre. If an energetic deficiency is detected, or an evasive manoeuvre is solicited, the mission should be adjusted, and the change communicated to the energy management module for the re-evaluation of the aircraft's energetic requirements. The final goal is to ensure that the aircraft can execute the mission successfully or return to base safely when necessary, through automatic mission planning and management, or by providing directives for the operator to intervene. Figure 1 illustrates the interaction between the three modules.

The overall goal of this work is to contribute to the increase in low-cost UAV safety, through the development of a system capable of generating an updated estimate of the state of total energy remaining on-board the aircraft at the end of the mission (the margin remaining in terms of energy), capable of being run on the airborne avionics hardware, enabling better energy awareness when planning a mission or advising a mission adjustment or a return to base if the energy margin drops below a defined safe value. The first estimation is done pre-

mission (offline) and later the update of the estimate is periodic as the mission progresses (online), taking into account the conditions experienced (wind, solar radiation, handicapped airframe or trajectory change, either due to a pilot or ground control command or automatic obstacle avoidance manoeuvres), as well as those predicted for the remainder of the mission.

## 2 Related Works

Predicting the mission energy requirements is essential to evaluate the capacity of an UAV to complete it safely. In [3] a mission energy prediction model for unmanned ground vehicles is proposed with online updates given the measurements made. In [4] an energy consumption model for static and dynamic components of an unmanned ground vehicle is derived, which can be used to calculate the online energy consumption of the components or to predict mission energy requirements. In the case of autonomous underwater vehicles [5], a linear regression model is used to estimate the energy consumption of the vehicle, obtaining the linear coefficients through a least squares fitting method applied on recorded data. Reference [6] presents an energy model to estimate the energy required for the mission, based on experimental characterization of the propulsion system, as well as an offline mechanism to estimate if enough energy is available to complete the mission safely, and an online method to determine how much energy is required for a safe return to the launch position, and when this command should be triggered.

Development of a system with the capacity to generate an updated estimate of the state of the total energy remaining on-board an aircraft at the end of the mission is, to the best knowledge of the authors, scarcely discussed in the literature. As such, this work contributes to the energy awareness estimates for UAVs, introducing methods not previously considered to periodically evaluate the capacity of a given UAV to complete the assigned mission, in real time, and considering the influence of meteorological conditions.

## 3 Energy Estimation Models

Figure 2 provides an overview of how the estimation of the remaining energy at the end of the flight is obtained.

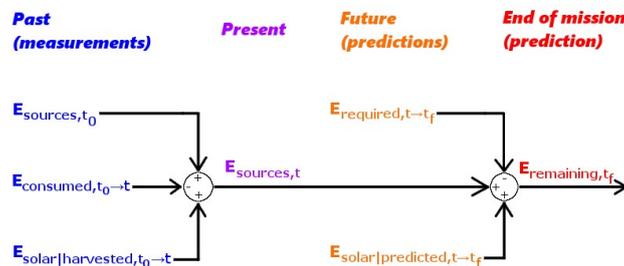


Figure 2 - Energy balance at end of mission

In essence, for a given instant during the mission, this is an energy balance problem. The problem of energy balance is divided in two stages: past energy flow and future energy flow. The past energy flow analysis starts with the initial state of the system, the energy available in all energy sources at the start of the mission, then the energy flowing out of the system (measured consumed energy) is subtracted, and the energy harvested (flowing into the system) is added. This results in the energy available in the energy sources in the present (at time instant  $t$ ).

Knowing the present state of the system, all that is left to do to obtain the future energy flow is to subtract the expected energy to flow out of the system in the future (required energy to complete the mission) and add the expected energy to flow into the system in the future (solar energy expected to be harvested in the remainder of the mission). This in turn results in the estimated final state of the system, the estimated remaining energy in the sources at the end of the mission.

Assessing the energy available in the sources of the aircraft at a given time instant requires measurements of current and voltage in different positions of the electric circuits on-board,

as well as of volumetric fuel flow rates out of the fuel tank in case the aircraft is powered by fossil fuels, such that the past flow of energy into and out of the system can be evaluated. The energy available in the energy sources at the start of mission is modelled by

$$E_{sources,t_0} = E_{battery,t_0} + E_{fuel,t_0} + E_{p,t_0} + E_{k,t_0} \quad (1)$$

where subscripts  $p$  and  $k$  refer to the potential and kinetic energies of the UAV at the start of the mission, respectively. The initial energy stored in the battery is given by

$$E_{battery,t_0} = 3600 \text{ SoC } Q_{nom} U_{nom} \quad (2)$$

where SoC is the state of charge of the battery (between 0 and 100%),  $Q_{nom}$  is the nominal charge of the battery and  $U_{nom}$  is the nominal voltage of the battery. The initial energy contained in the fuel tank is related to the volume of fuel it contains,

$$E_{fuel,t_0} = u_{fuel} m_{fuel,t_0} = u_{fuel} \rho_{fuel} V_{fuel,t_0} \quad (3)$$

where  $u_{fuel}$  is the specific energy of the fossil fuel.

The model for the energy consumed is given by

$$E_{cons,t_0 \rightarrow t}(t) = \int_{t_0}^t \dot{E}_{battery}(t) dt + \int_{t_0}^t \dot{E}_{fuel}(t) dt - \int_{t_0}^t \dot{E}_{solar|harv}(t) dt \quad (4)$$

where the terms are given by

$$\int_{t_0}^t \dot{E}_{battery}(t) dt = \int_{t_0}^t U_B I_B dt \quad (5)$$

$$\int_{t_0}^t \dot{E}_{fuel}(t) dt = u_{fuel} \rho_{fuel} \int_{t_0}^t \dot{V}_{fuel} dt \quad (6)$$

and for the solar energy harvested from the beginning of the mission until time instant  $t$ ,

$$\int_{t_0}^t \dot{E}_{solar|harv}(t) dt = \int_{t_0}^t U_{PV} I_{PV} dt \quad (7)$$

This assumes that the quantities  $U_B$ ,  $I_B$ ,  $U_{PV}$ ,  $I_{PV}$  and  $V_{fuel}$  are measured. It is important to notice that  $I_B$  can be both positive and negative, depending on whether the battery is being discharged or charged, respectively.

To estimate the energy remaining in the sources at the end of the mission, it is necessary to estimate, at a given time instant, how much energy is still required to finish the mission and how much solar energy is expected to be harvested until the end of the mission,

$$E_{rem,t_f}(t) = E_{sources,t}(t) + E_{solar|pred,t \rightarrow t_f}(t) - E_{req,t \rightarrow t_f}(t) \quad (8)$$

The required energy to complete the mission is obtained by estimating the future consumption of the propulsion system, the future consumption of all the avionics equipment and also taking into account the change in mechanical energy between the instant of calculation  $t$  and the end of the mission,

$$E_{req,t \rightarrow t_f}(t) = \Delta E_p(t) + \Delta E_k(t) + E_{av,t \rightarrow t_f}(t) + E_{prop,t \rightarrow t_f}(t) \quad (9)$$

Assuming that the power required to operate each avionics component is constant throughout the mission, the required energy to power the avionics systems is estimated as

$$E_{av,t \rightarrow t_f}(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n \int_t^{t_f} P_{instr\_i} dt \quad (10)$$

where  $P_{instr\_i}$  is an array whose elements are the (constant) power required to operate each instrument on-board the aircraft.

To estimate the required propulsion energy to finish the mission successfully three different approaches were considered. The first approach (M1) estimated the propulsion power required to maintain flight in an equilibrium condition (cruise or hover). Integrating the propulsion power required to fly in the equilibrium condition over the expected remaining mission duration nets the propulsion energy required for flight in this equilibrium state. A correction (or safety) factor, determined experimentally or through flight simulations, should be used to make the estimate closer to the real value.

The second approach (M2) is based on the force diagram of Figure 3, from which the required thrust  $T$  is obtained.

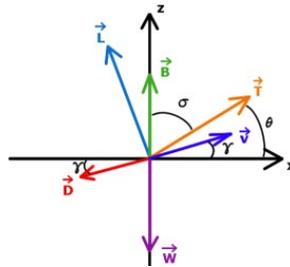


Figure 3 - Force diagram for a generic UAV

The balance of forces is given by  
 The balance of forces is therefor

$$\vec{T} = W \cos(\sigma) + B \cos(\sigma) + T_{drag} \quad (11)$$

where  $B$  represents the buoyancy force. The drag polar curve  $C_D = f(C_L)$  and the relationship between lift coefficient and the angle of attack ( $C_L = f(a)$ ) of the UAV are used in addition to Eq.(11) to solve the balance of forces, assuming the desired acceleration for each mission segment, the weight and buoyancy (in case the UAV in study is a dirigible balloon) of the aircraft are known. The climb angle  $\gamma$  is calculated according to the waypoints defined during mission planning.

The UAV types considered all use propellers to generate thrust, which is related to the power that has to be transferred to the air by the propellers for a given manoeuvre. Using the momentum theory [7] it is possible to estimate the mechanical power that the propeller is required to transfer to the air as

$$P_{propeller,i} = \rho \omega_i^3 \pi r_p^5 C_{p,i} \quad (12)$$

where  $r_p$  is radius of the propeller,  $\omega$  is its angular velocity and  $C_p$  its power coefficient, which can be obtained from experimental characterization of the propeller or from appropriate tables as a function of thrust required and airspeed. The total propeller power required is then obtained by summing the power required from each of the individual propellers. Finally, using the estimated efficiency of the propulsion system, the electric propulsion power required to be extracted from the sources in the future can be estimated as

$$\dot{E}_{prop} = P_{prop} = \frac{P_{propeller}}{\eta_{prop}} \quad (13)$$

The propulsion required energy is therefore obtained by integrating the propulsion required power that has to be extracted from the energy sources in the future, thus

$$E_{prop,t \rightarrow t_f}(t) = \int_t^{t_f} P_{prop} dt \quad (14)$$

A third approach (M3) to determine the required propulsion and avionics power required is to experimentally characterize the energy requirements of an aircraft as a function of airspeed, exemplified in Figure 4 for a small fixed wing solar powered UAV [8] while in cruise condition.

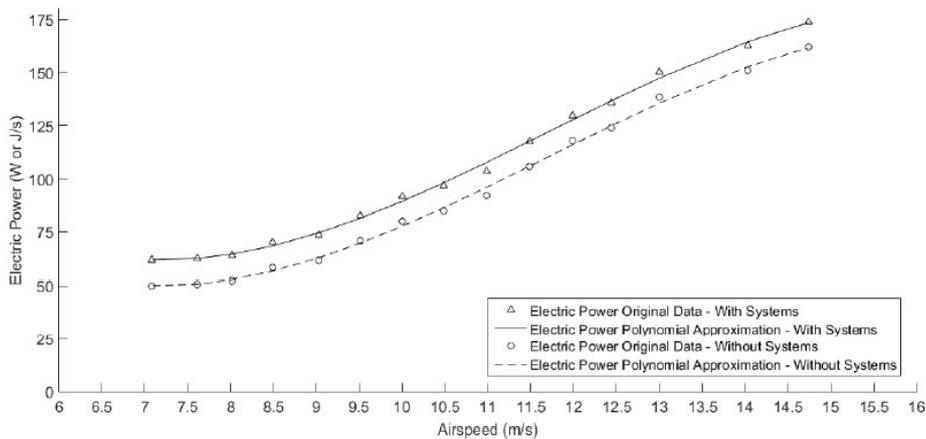


Figure 4 - Power required as a function of airspeed for the LEEUAV during cruise

If it is possible to provide an estimate for the required airspeed at different flight stages, the required propulsion energy to finish the mission can then be obtained by integrating the corresponding value of required electric power from the curve over the expected remaining duration of the mission,

$$E_{av,t \rightarrow t_f}(t) + E_{prop,t \rightarrow t_f}(t) = \int_t^{t_f} P_{el} dt \quad (15)$$

Notice that since this particular experimental characterization is only valid for cruise, this approach results in an underestimation of the power requirements for take-off and climb. If a more detailed experimental characterization of the power requirements for different flight stages was available, a better quality estimate could be obtained.

Lastly, for the particular case of a solar UAV, the energy to be harvested for the remaining mission needs to be estimated. Assuming level flight (which constitutes the largest percentage of mission time), the approach of reference [9] can be used to estimate the solar irradiance in a given location, at a given time. It should be noted that this model is used for aircraft operating at high altitudes, and the effects of temperature, humidity and albedo are not accounted for. The expected energy to be harvested from a given time instant  $t$  until the end of the mission is finally obtained by integrating the power output of the solar panel over time, as

$$E_{solar|pred,t \rightarrow t_f}(t) = \int_t^{t_f} JS_{PV}\eta_{PV} dt \quad (16)$$

where  $J$  is the solar radiation (or solar power per unit area),  $S_{PV}$  is the solar panel area and  $\eta_{PV}$  is its efficiency.

#### 4 Simulations and Results

In this section the simulations performed on the EMS and the main results obtained are discussed.

The online simulations were performed by using a Simulink® model of a multirotor available on the internet, which had some flaws in the control system designed, for example, while moving in a straight line, the motors angular velocity would be the same as that of the hover condition, independently of the reference ground speed. The angular velocity of the motors only changed to perform attitude corrections. Nonetheless this model was used in the online simulations due to a lack of alternatives.

The offline simulations were performed using MATLAB® scripts and available data regarding the LEEUAV aircraft.

The online simulations are intended to preview the behaviour of the EMS through the course of an entire mission, with continuous updates. The first method (M1) to calculate the required energy to complete the mission was used in this case. However, it was not possible to perform the simulations including the influence of wind on the dynamics of the aircraft due to the limitations of the control system designed for the multirotor.

The correction factor  $\zeta_{C_f}$  was first calibrated by performing a series of simulations with different missions under different conditions. Due to the issues with the control system, discussed previously, it was found that the correction factor has no relationship with the mission duration, which is not realistic. Despite this fact, the maximum value found for the  $\zeta_{C_f} = 1.0487$  is used in order to perform the following analysis and evaluate the performance of the EMS given this choice.

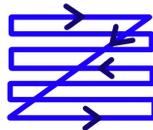


Figure 5 - Mission path for online simulations

The mission path chosen for the online simulations is shown in Fig.5, with the initial and final points on the ground, and the path being followed at an altitude of 10m. The results of this simulation, therefore the values of each parameter of the past and future energy balances, are shown in Fig.6.

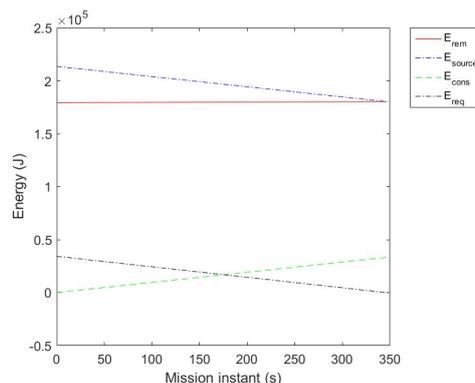


Figure 6 - Estimate for the energy remaining at the end of the mission and its components

The qualitative analysis of Fig.6 is promising. As the mission progresses the consumed energy increases as expected, starting at 0 J and ending with its maximum value; similarly, the estimate for the required energy to complete the mission decreases over time, having its maximum value at  $t_0$ , and reaching 0 J at the end of the mission. Notice that the estimate for the required energy at  $t_0$  is almost equal to the value of the consumed energy at  $t_f$ , which indicates that the estimate for the required energy is very satisfactory. The energy available in the energy sources (battery and mechanical energy in this case) decreases over time as

expected. From its initial value it decreases around 35 kJ until the end of the mission, around the same amount of total consumed energy.

The estimate for the energy remaining in the energy sources at the end of the mission should, ideally, be a straight line (constant value over time), meaning that at any instant, during the course of the mission, it is possible to predict the final state of the energy sources. This parameter is the most important in the context of the energy monitoring system. Its analysis is what allows the operator or the mission planning module to understand whether or not there will be enough energy available to finish the planned mission. If the value drops below zero at any moment, it means the UAV will not have enough energy to finish the planned mission successfully, and the mission should be changed accordingly. However, for a real scenario, a safety threshold must be defined to avoid incidents.

In the case of this particular mission, since the energy remaining estimate is approximately at around 84% of the total energy of the battery during the whole duration of the mission, it means that this mission is feasible.

Since it was not possible to perform flight tests to collect data, and no guidance and control Simulink models of the aircraft were available, only offline simulations were performed for the case of the LEEUAV [8], given the available data from previous works (polar curve, relationship between lift coefficient and angle of attack, and Fig.4, to assess the performance of the EMS in this case. The offline simulations aim to predict if the planned mission is feasible (before take-off). In this case, the second (M2) and third (M3) methods are used to estimate the required energy to complete the mission. Additionally, the simulations were performed for a simple climb, cruise and descent mission profile, in which it was assumed that the aircraft turns off the engines and glides to the landing point during descent. The mission profile and the corresponding ground speed profile are shown in Fig.7.

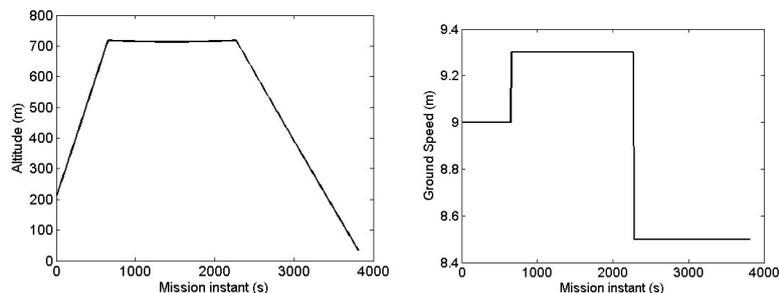


Figure 7 - Mission profile

An initial simulation without wind was performed to compare the predicted propulsion power requirements for different flight stages using each method used to estimate the required energy to complete the mission, and the results are shown in Tab.1.

Table 1- Comparison between the predicted propulsion power required to fly each stage by each method

Flight stage	M2	M3
Climb	578.3 W	247.1 W
Cruise	132.8 W	64.4 W
Descent	0	0

Method 3 is very accurate at predicting the power required to fly during cruise, due to the fact that it derives from an experimental characterization. This means that method 2 overestimates the power requirements for cruise by approximately 106%. Method 3 on the other hand, severely underestimates the power requirements for climb, since the experimental characterization on which method 3 is based on was performed only for the cruise condition, and no data was available for climb. The required power for the descent stage is zero since it is assumed the aircraft glides while descending.

It is possible to conclude that these methods are sensitive to the quality of the data available to perform the estimates and, to improve them, better data has to be obtained.

For the following simulations, an arbitrary temporal wind profile was chosen. The influence of performing the mission in different days of the year (day 172 - Summer Solstice, and day 355 - Winter Solstice) and different starting hours was also investigated. The results obtained are shown in Tab.2.

Table 2- Results of the offline simulations

Energy (kJ)	Day 172, 9:00	Day 172, 15:45	Day 355, 9:00
$E_{sources,t0}$	408.9	408.9	408.9
$E_{req} M2$	836.6	836.6	836.6
$E_{req} M3$	382.6	382.6	382.6
$E_{solar pred}$	627.2	428.6	263.0
$E_{rem} M2$	199.5	1.0	-164.6
$E_{rem} M3$	653.5	454.9	289.3

Two main conclusions can be drawn from this table. First it is possible to observe that during the Summer Solstice more solar energy is expected to be harvested compared to the Winter Solstice when the mission begins at the same hour. Also, on the same day more energy is expected to be collected if the mission starts in the morning than later in the afternoon. Secondly, the remaining energy term provides insight into under which conditions it is possible to complete the mission safely. With the temporal wind distribution and using method 2 to calculate the required energy to complete the mission, it is predicted that the mission can be completed safely in the Summer Solstice if it starts at 9h, and the battery would still have around 50% of its total energy at the end. If the mission starts at 15h45 however, the battery is predicted to finish the mission with less than 1% of its total energy, which is low enough to raise safety concerns, and the mission should be re-planned. During the Winter Solstice, the value of remaining energy is negative, meaning that the battery does not have enough energy to complete this mission, since not enough solar energy would be collected to compensate the amount consumed. If method 3 is used instead to calculate the required propulsion power, then the conclusion would be that this mission could be completed safely in any of the conditions considered. In reality, this probably would not be true since given the available data, the power requirements for climb would be underestimated by method 3. With better data available, this method would be more useful and provide more accurate remaining energy estimates.

It was also found that calculating the propulsion power required is much faster with method 3, since in this case the required electric power is directly related to airspeed, while in the case of method 2 it is necessary to search the propeller performance tables for the right parameters given the required thrust and airspeed. In longer missions, method 3 would also dramatically outperform method 2 in terms of computation speed.

## 5 Conclusions

In this work, an Energy Management System for the Drones Safe Flight project [2] was proposed, which evaluates the past and future energy balance of the on-board energy sources of a UAV. Three different estimation methods for the required energy to complete the mission are presented. The performance of each method and of the overall EMS was discussed and qualitatively validated.

The first method was based on the idea of having a base energy estimate corrected by an empirical factor. The maximum correction factor found, after simulating a specific mission under slightly different forecasted conditions, should be used to avoid safety issues by overestimating the mission energy requirements. Additionally, a safety factor should also be included to account for unforeseen disturbances, such as real wind conditions and unexpected obstacle avoidance manoeuvres.

Simulations with the second method used propeller manufacturer data were not accurate enough for real applications, overestimating the power requirements for cruise by as much as 106%. Therefore an experimental characterization of the particular propeller used on the aircraft is required to obtain better estimates. The polar and the lift coefficient and angle of attack curves used were obtained through software tools, potentially being a source of error. Additionally, the expression used to obtain the propeller mechanical power is based on an equation valid for helicopters in hover, adding extra error.

The third method is highly accurate in predicting the energy requirements for the cruise stage, but since only data for cruise was available the power requirements for the climb stage are underestimated.

These three proposed methods are highly sensitive to the quality of the data and tools available. The biggest challenge found in this work was obtaining appropriate data and simulation tools to validate the proposed methods. The three proposed methods are simply workarounds the problem of not having a control and guidance model of the LEEUAV [8] available, leading to underwhelming results. With this in mind the results obtained, although qualitatively satisfactory, should be considered with some criticism.

Clearly there is room for improvement in future work, although this work attempts to assert the importance of the remaining energy estimation for the safety of low-cost UAVs. This parameter is useful when trying to predict mission feasibility, enabling better energy awareness during mission planning, and contributing to an online assessment of energy resources and mission energy requirements to enhance safety and prevent accidents. However it does not take into account situations where, for example, a very demanding climb condition would exhaust the battery's energy, even though if the flight continued the total energy balance could be positive since in cruise excess solar energy could be collected to recharge the battery. A failsafe to account for situations like these would have to be implemented, for example by breaking down the energy balance problem into subproblems for each mission segment, and if in any segment the remaining energy at the end of the segment was predicted to be negative then the mission would not be feasible.

## References

- [1] Gupta, S. G.; Ghonge, M. M.; Jawandhiya, P. M.: "Review of Unmanned Aircraft System (UAS)" *International Journal of Advanced Research in Computer Engineering & Technology*, Vol. 2 n.4 (2013), pp. 1646-1658.
- [2] Marta, A.C., Moutinho, A., Gamboa, P., Drones Safe Flight: On Addressing Operational Safety For Low Cost Small Drones. *Proceedings of CEM 2016 Mechanical Engineering Conference*, Porto, Portugal, Jun 2016.
- [3] Sadrpour, A., Jin, J., Ulsoy, A.G., Experimental Validation of Mission Energy Prediction Model for Unmanned Ground Vehicles. *Proceedings of the 2013 American Control Conference*, USA, Jun 2013.
- [4] Parasuraman, R., Kershaw, K., Pagala, P., Ferre, M., Model Based On-line Energy Prediction System for Semi-Autonomous Mobile Robots. *Proceedings of the 5<sup>th</sup> International Conference on Intelligent Systems, Modelling and Simulation*, Jan 2014.
- [5] De Carolis, V., Lane, D.M., Brown, K.E., Low-cost Energy Measurement and Estimation for Autonomous Underwater Vehicles. *Proceedings of the OCEANS 2014 Conference*, Taipei, China, Apr 2014.
- [6] Di Franco, C.; Buttazzo, G.: "Coverage Path Planning for UAVs Photogrammetry with Energy and Resolution Constraints" *Journal of Intelligent & Robotic Systems*, Vol.83 n.3 (2016), pp. 445--462.
- [7] J. Seddon. *Basic Helicopter Aerodynamics*. BSP Professional Books. 1990.
- [8] Marta, A.C., Gamboa, P., Long Endurance Electric UAV for Civilian Surveillance Missions. *Proceedings of the 29<sup>th</sup> Congress of the International Council of the Aeronautical Sciences*, St Petersburg, Russia, Sep 2014.
- [9] Xian-Zhong, G.; Zhong-Xi, H.; Zheng, G.; Jian-Xia, L.; Xiao-Qian, C.: "Energy management strategy for solar-powered high-altitude long-endurance aircraft" *Energy Conversion and Management*, Vol.70 (2013), pp. 20--30.