INTRODUCTION
The first manned powered flight with a fixed wing aircraft in 1903 took a chain of visionaries, engineers and inventors, each of them solving one piece of the puzzle. Essential to solving this puzzle was Sir George Cayley who strongly believed that flight with fixed wing aircraft instead of flapping ones was the better approach. His unmanned glider experiments in 1809 were important steps in that direction. The unpiloted manned gliders from Otto von Lilienthal were an important sequel to those of Cayley, showing the capability of lifting a human being with a fixed lifting surface. What was not there was a lightweight propulsion system to overcome drag and go beyond gliding, the understanding of the importance of roll control next to pitch and directional control, wing warping for roll, proper understanding of stability, and light and strong airframes to carry man, engine and fuel. The Wright brothers’ solution to the puzzle was a lightweight wooden structure, stiffened and strengthened with bracing wires, piston engines with enough specific power, propellers, a fabric covered wing to generate lift, a proper weight distribution, three axis control, acceptable stability using a canard configuration, and a landing gear. Once a solution to the puzzle was demonstrated, an explosion of aircraft designs occurred in different parts of the world.

THE NEED FOR POWER
Sir George Cayley envisioned a fixed wing aircraft with separate elements for lift generation, propulsion, flight controls and pilot cabin, way back at the end of the 18th century, more than a century
before the first successful flight test by the Wright brothers. He also predicted that the powered flight would be possible if an engine would be able to produce “more power in a given time, proportion- al to its weight, than the animal system of muscles”.

Approximately half a century later steam engines were invented to be used in aviation. Even though the steam engines, in accordance with their time, were the state of the art engines, they were too bulky and were just not powerful enough to be used in heavier than air aircraft. A few years later in 1859 Belgian engineer Jean Lenoir invented the first internal combustion (IC) engine, a single cylinder 2-stroke reciprocating engine that used coal gas as fuel. Although there were several problems with this engine, it paved the way for a radically different kind of engine that was more efficient and compact than the steam engines. The internal combustion engine was further developed by the Germans, namely by Nikolaus Otto, the inventor of the 4-stroke engine, and Karl Benz, who designed and built 4-stroke engines to be used for the first time in automobiles. By the end of the century, reciprocating IC engines proved their ability and hence became the choice of propulsion for aircraft.

Unlike a steam engine where the fuel is burnt outside the engine to create steam pressure, an IC engine burns the fuel inside the cylinder, forcing the piston to move within the cylinder. The piston is connected to a crankshaft that converts the reciprocating motion of the piston to rotational motion. A large flywheel is attached to the crankshaft to store some of the energy in the form of inertia for the subsequent strokes of the piston which are used to push the exhaust air out of the engine, to suck in fresh air and fuel, and for compression of the air before igni- tion. The valves in the cylinder open and close appropriately to create boundary conditions for different operations within the stroke, see figure 1. A piston engine therefore has only one power stroke in 2 or 4 strokes (depending on whether it is a 2 or a 4-stroke engine).

THE FIRST FLIGHT

The power-to-weight ratio has always been the most essential criteria in selecting a powerplant for the aircraft. Therefore the Wright brothers used a reciprocating IC type engine to power their Wright Flyer in 1903. The Wright broth- ers built their own engine with the help of their mechanic Charlie Taylor. This 4-stroke engine weighed around 90kg and produced around 12hp of power. A simple sprocket chain drive with a gear system powered the twin propellers that rotated in opposite directions while a basic gear system allowed them to change the propeller speed in spite of the engine rotating at a fixed speed, figure 2. The first Wright Flyer engine was by no means a state of the art engine (cooling problems meant it became less efficient the longer it ran) but it did make a mark of its own in history. In contrast to their engine, the propellers used by the Wright brothers were very good. In absence of any theory on propellers, they designed their own propeller and were among the first to understand that the propeller works in a similar way to a wing.

The need for more power, a higher power-to-weight ratio and reliability were the key drivers in the design and development of aircraft engines. It did not take long for the military to see the potential of aircraft being used as a potent weapon in warfare. World War I saw many new developments in aircraft and aircraft en- gines. Many of the WWI fighters were powered by rotary engine. These engines rotate with the propeller and had the advantage of being air cooled meaning they could dispense with the heavy and com- plicated liquid cooling systems required in other types of engines. However after the war, the rotary engines were becoming obsolete due to the more powerful and advanced non-rotary engines (inline, V type and radial) that revolved at high rpms and did not have the smoke in- halation problems for the pilot that rotary engines had.

After WWI, civil aviation emerged with the birth of KLM Royal Dutch Airlines, the oldest airline today which started in May 1920. This fledgling industry was aided by the historic first non-stop flight across the Atlantic in 1927, after which pioneer Charles Lindburgh used his reputation to promote the development of civil aviation. This ushered in a new era in aviation and radial engines which continued to be at the forefront of the propulsion systems.

World War II again saw remarkable develop- ments in aircraft and related systems, and pushed the developments in these areas to their limits. In order for early en- gines to achieve higher speeds or higher thrust levels, it required the propeller to run at a higher speed. Therefore they soon became limited by the formation of shock waves at the propeller blades that reduced the efficiency drastically. In addition, flying higher was not possible with reciprocating engines because as the density of air reduced at higher altitudes, the engine power reduced dramatically. The adjustable pitch system in propeller and superchargers helped in enlarging the flight envelope, however by the end of the war, designers started to realize the fundamental limitations of the IC engine-propeller type of propulsion system.
THE JET AGE

However in the mean time (around 1939), a British Engineer, Sir Frank Whittle and a German scientist, Hans von Ohain, independently developed a totally different kind of propulsion system based on the Brayton cycle called “The Gas Turbine Engine”. The gas turbine engine uses rotary compressor and turbine (turbo machinery) to achieve the compression and work extraction process respectively. The advantage of a gas turbine is that it does not have any reciprocating elements as in the piston engines, and can therefore produce power on a continuous basis. Also, the mass flow intake of gas turbines is orders of magnitude higher than a reciprocating engine and therefore their power/thrust output is much higher than reciprocating IC engines.

The gas turbine engine, also known as the jet engine, developed by these two pioneers had four basic elements. A rotary centrifugal that compressed the air, a combustion chamber which added energy to the compressed air, a turbine that extracted enough power from the air to drive the compressor, and finally a nozzle wherein the available energy within the flow after the turbine was converted into kinetic energy of the jet. This hot exhaust ejected at very high velocities from the exhaust nozzle produces thrust.

The jet engine breathed a new lease of life into aviation, and it did not take long for aircraft designers to appreciate the capabilities and possibilities offered by the jet engines. The first purpose built jet airliner was the de Havilland Comet which entered into service in 1952. Although the Americans initially lagged behind the Europeans in development of the jet engine, they soon became the pioneers of this new technology, thanks to their experience in manufacturing super/turbo chargers and their huge industrial support base.

The early jet engine was driven by the hot exhaust coming out of the nozzle, see figure 3; however the jet was very noisy and the engine was not fuel efficient. To deal with this problem, engine designers came up with a solution. Instead of using all the energy in the jet to produce thrust, they would use a large part of this energy to drive a fan that produced thrust using the cold, low velocity jet air. This new engine architecture was called “The Turboprop Engine”.

Figure 2. The Wright Flyer engine

Figure 3. Schematic of a Gas Turbine Engine (Jet Engine)
engine. The turbofans had a higher fuel efficiency and were less noisy when compared to the jet engines.

Modern aero engines operate at a high overall pressure ratio (around 40) and high turbine inlet temperature (around 1700K) to achieve a high thermal efficiency. To enhance their propulsive efficiency, the bypass ratio has been increased to around 10. The GE 90, which was put into service in the mid 90’s holds the world record for being the highest thrust producing engine. It produces a thrust of over 400KN (the Wright flyer produced a thrust of around 300N) and has a thrust-to-weight ratio of 5.6. The reliability of the modern turbofan engines has increased substantially, making air travel one of the safest modes of transportation, while improvements have also led to significant reductions in noise and fuel consumption.

NEW ENGINE CONCEPTS
It can be seen that the propulsion system and technology have been the key drivers in aviation and will continue to be so. Fuel consumption and noise levels have been reduced dramatically, however the current generation turbofans have reached their limits. This calls for a paradigm shift in the propulsion technology for future airplanes.

Geared Turbofan (GTF) Engine: Modern turbofan engines aim to have a high bypass ratio (BPR), which means that the ratio of cold air (air which only passes through the fan) to hot air (air which passes through the combustion chamber) is getting larger. However the fan is connected to the low pressure (LP) compressor and turbine shaft, and while the fan wants to rotate at a low speed – the LP compressor and turbine want to rotate at a higher speed. This poses several problems, therefore one solution is the GTF engine. This concept addresses the present problems by introducing a reduction gear system to de-couple the fan from the LP systems. As a result, the GTF system allows the fan to operate at a slower, optimum speed while letting the booster and the LPT to operate at their higher speeds. However, the additional weight and complexity of the gear system can reduce some of the benefits. Pratt & Whitney first demonstrated the GTF engine known as PurePower PW1000G, see figure 4, and is expected to be incorporated in service for Airbus A340-600 by 2013.

OPEN ROTOR TURBOFAN ENGINE:
An unducted fan or open rotor engine is a modified turbofan engine, with the fan placed outside of the engine nacelle on the same axis as the compressor. Open rotor engines are also known as ultra-high bypass (UHB) engines or UnDucted Fan (UDF) engines. The design is intended to offer the speed and performance of a turbofan with the fuel economy of a turbo-prop. This concept is not new and was investigated by General Electric and NASA in the late 70’s. However, this concept has been revived again by CFM®. This version has a set of two counter-rotating blades, and is slated to have a bypass ratio of 35:1. To ensure maximum efficiency in every stage of the flight, each blade will have its own pitch change mechanism. However, the main concern with this concept is the high intensity of noise, especially during take-off. In addition, installing these large diameter engines on conventional aircraft can be a problem. Also, due to the unshielded blades, blade containment is a major safety issue.

Hybrid Engines:
In order to make aviation more sustainable, both in terms of reducing the fuel consumption as well as emitting less CO2 at higher altitudes, new engine configurations are being proposed which are quite different from the conventional high bypass turbofan engines. The current generation turbofan engines have reached a technological plateau and it is often claimed that complying with future regulations will not require evolution but, rather, revolution. In order to do so, researchers are proposing novel engine configurations such as that shown in figure 5 which are capable of using multiple fuels, in this case liquid hydrogen and biofuel.

CLOSURE
Aviation has always been at the forefront of technology in the past and always will be in the future. Most of the major breakthroughs in aviation have come because of the advancements in the propulsion. With the world becoming a smaller place than ever before, propulsion technologies will play even a greater role in shaping the future of aviation.