DOT/FAA/CT-84/3

AD-A142 092

# Study on Transport Airplane Unplanned Water Contact

Richard A. Johnson

February 1984 Final Report

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US Department of Transportation

Federal Aviation Administration

Technical Center
Atlantic City Airport, N.J. 08405

# **Technical Report Documentation Page**

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Atlantic City Airport, New Jer	sey 06403						
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This study provides for an identification of accident scenario(s) and associated occupant risks and survival equipment needs, relating to the inadvertent or unplanned water contact of transport category airplanes. This identification was obtained, in part, from the results of contractual studies of transport accident data. The subject study concludes that while the unplanned water contact of a transport airplane occurs less frequent than corresponding ground contact, the impact loads are often higher, leading to greater fuselage damage. Also, the unplanned water contact occurs more frequent than a planned water landing (ditching) and usually involves adverse flooding conditions. These conditions, in turn, affect the ability of occupants to retrieve, deploy and/or don on-board floatation equipment.							
17. Key Words		18. Distribution Statement					
Unplanned Water Contact		Document is avail through the Natio Service, Springfi	nal Technica	l Information			
19. Security Classif. (of this report)	20. Security Class	if, (of this paye)	21. No. of Pages	22. Price			
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#### **EXECUTIVE SUMMARY**

This study identifies the accident scenario(s) and associated occupant risks and survival equipment needs, relating to the inadvertent or unplanned water contact of transport category airplanes. This study focuses on the results contained under a recent industry evaluation of survivable transport aircraft accidents. These results are summarized with emphasis placed upon the definition of the unplanned water crash environment. From this and other available imformation, the behavior of typical transport airplanes in unplanned water contact type accidents is identified to include the general condition of the cabin, structural damage, floatation time, attitude, availability of emergency exits, emergency evacuation equipment, and other factors found relevant to occupant survival.

#### INTRODUCTION

## PURPOSE.

The purpose of this study was to identify the accident scenario(s) and associated occupant risks and survival equipment needs, relating to the inadvertent or unplanned water contact of transport category airplanes.

# BACKGROUND.

During the 1970's the Federa. Aviation Administration (FAA) and aviation community directed a significant amount of research towards the development of improved aircraf' water evacuation and survival equipment. With emphasis placed upon occupant survivability during the controlled or normally configured emergency landing of an aircraft on the water, this effort was focused primarily on improving the access and use of onboard floatation equipment. The availability of new low weight materials made possible the development of lighter, more accessible liferaft designs including door mounted slide/raft devices that could be launched automatically from the aircraft exit. Such materials also provided for new lifevest designs characterized by higher buoyancy performance. These equipment improvements were reflected under the establishment of new design and installation requirements and associated crew training and operational procedures. To date, requirements, applicable to new slide/raft, liferaft and lifevest designs, have been adopted under recent airworthiness and operational rule changes and/or are currently being promulgated under new proposed minimum performance standards (references 1 to 8).

In 1981, the FAA initiated further research to improve occupant survivability in aircraft accidents resulting from inadvertent or unplanned water contact. addressed under this research effort were: aircraft certification and operational provisions for unplanned water landings near airport terminals; aircraft floatation equipment needs which take into account occupant hypothermic effects and equipment accessibility and use; and airport water/sea rescue procedures. The subject study represents a supporting part of this research effort. Specifically, it is aimed at the identification of the unplanned water contact scenario(s) and includes occupant risks and survival equipment needs. The study focuses on the results contained under a recent industry evaluation of survivable accidents (references 9, 10, These results will be summarized with emphasis placed upon the idenand II). tification of the unplanned water-crash environment. Also, from available information, the study will characterize the behavior of typical transport airplanes in unplanned water contact type accidents to include the general condition of the cabin, structural damage, floatation time and attitude, availability of exits and emergency equipment, and other factors found relevant to occupant survival.

## ACCIDENT SUMMARY

## DATA BASE.

In January 1980, an accident study was contracted with three major aircraft manufacturers (references 9, 10, and 11) for the primary purpose of defining a range of crash situations that would form the basis for improved crashworthiness design technology and the identification of structural components and aircraft systems that influence the crash behavior of an aircraft. The data base for this effort began with a review of some 933 transport ground/water accidents which has occurred

between the years of 1959-1979. The accident data were obtained from various sources including FAA/Civil Aeronautics Board (CAB) and National Transportation 'Safety Board (NTSB) reports, and information released by foreign government organizations, airlines, and aircraft manufacturers. The accidents selected for evaluation were survivable accidents in which the governing criteria were established around (a) a survivable airframe volume (prior to fire), (b) the capability of at least one occupant able to withstand the accident environment, (c) the potential for occupant egress, and/or (d) a demonstration of structural system performance.

For the purpose of this report the accident data base selected under reference 9 was used because of the emphasis placed upon the water contact occurrence. This data base is presented in table 1 and contains a total of 153 worldwide transport aircraft accidents in which water involvement was identified in 16 of the cases. As noted, the summary provided in table 2 covers 11 of these accident cases, since water was only incidental to 5 of the 16 accidents and not directly associated with resulting fatalities/injuries. The cases that have been excluded are the B707 C30 accident; L1011 Everglades accident; B727 Maderia accident; B727 Mexico C1.y accident; and the B707 Rio de Janiero accident. The 11 water impact accidents are characterized by the presence of 218 fatalities and 80 serious injuries. A brief assessment of both the 153 land and water accidents, as they relate to severity of occurrence, occupant survivability, aircraft size and configuration, operational phases, structural damage, and system participation is provided in the following sections of this report.

## SEVERITY/SURVIVABILITY.

The 153 accidents in the data base were assessed on the amount of damage to the aircraft and the effect of this damage on survivability. The extent of damage is categorized in table 3 with the effect on occupant survivability summarized First, as regards to the selected data base and overall survivin table 4. ability, fire presented the greatest hazard. Known fire fatalities outnumbered known trauma fatalities by 2.84:1. Fire hazard was most severe for accidents having major fuel spills due to rupturing of fuel tank (categories 4, 5, and 6). Trauma fatalities occurred mostly in categories 5 and 6, which involved severe fuselage brecks. The single instance in category 2 resulted from a local loss of survivable volume; and 5 instances in category 4 resulted from severe lower fuselage crush. While deep water impact accidents represented less than 10 percent of the study data base, little structural or detailed information is available on such accidents in which a large percentage of the occupant fuselage perished. Water impact usually results in severe damage to the lower fuselage, often accompanied by class 2 breaks in the fuselage and separation of wings, engines, and landing gear. In some cases involving low impact conditions, many occupants drowned after evacuating the aircraft. In such cases, the high fatality rate was due to inappropriate action of the cabin crews after the aircraft came to rest. As noted, drownings accounted for 218 fatalities, at least 15 of which occurred after evacuation. In most accidents involving drowning, few details are available, except for the DC9 St. Croix accident. In this case, the drownings were found to have occurred after evacuation with fatalities due to trauma occurring as a result of floor distortion and seat separation, and to occupants who did not use their seatbelts. In general, the overall survivability of either the ground or water impact accident decreases as the major structural damage to the aircraft increases.

# TABLE 1. STUDY DATA BASE

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077161 DCR DENVER	X 122 17 O LDG FIRE YES	
011961 DC8 JFK	X 106 4 ? TO FIRE PAR	
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166101 LMI ANKAKA 002861 720 POSTOM	X 34 27 K CLI FIRE UDF	187
092761 CVL BRASSILA	71 0 2 LDG YES 1	ir i
072761 707 HAMBURG	X 41 0 10 TO FIRE YES	
060362 707 PARIS, DRLY	X 132 130 2 TO FIRE UDF	
082062 DC8 RID DE JANIERO	X 105 15 7 TO YES	TA
0/0363 CVL CORDOBA, ARGENTINA	X 70 0 7 APP FIRE YES	
031604 DAC WISLEY, ENG.	5 0 1 LDG YES	
112364 707 ROMF	X 145 0 7 LDG YES 1	i Ai
032264 EMT SINGAPORF	A 13 40 CO IO FIRE VES	
050265 720 CAIRO	X 127 121 6 APP FIRE HAF	
070165 707 KANSAS CITY	X 65 D 2 LDG YES	
110865 727 CINCINNATI	X 62 58 4 APP FIRE PAR	
111165 727 SALT LAKE CITY	X 91 43 35 LDG FIRE YES	
091365 880 KANSAS CITY	X 40 0 CLI FIRE YES	
022765 880 IKI IS., JAPAN	X 60 2 LDG FIRE YES	
070466 DCB AUCKLAND	X 5 2 1 TO FIRE PAR	
082666 880 TOKYO	X 5 5 0 TO FIRE YES	
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112067 BBO CINCINNATI	X 82 70 12 APP FIRE PAR	
030567 DCB MONROVIA	X 90 51 23 APP FIRE UDF	
063067 CVL HONG KONG	X 80 17 5 APP YES W	IAT
092967 CMT ROME	X 66 0 0 LDG YES	
11056/ 880 MUNG KUNG	X 137 1 7 TO YES L	MI
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061368 ZOZ CALCUTTA	X 63 6 2 APP FIRE YES	
060368 727 JFK	102 0 4 LDG UDF	
032168 727 CHICAGO	X 3 0 1 TO FIRE YES	
020768 707 VANCOUVER, B.C.	X 61 1 U LUG PAR	
021668 727 TAIPEI	X 63 21 42 APP FIRE UDF	
040868 707 LONDON	X 127 5 7 CLI FIRE YES	
042068 707 WINDHUEK	X 128 123 5 CL1 FIRE PAR	
080268 DCB MILAN 011469 BAC MILAN	X 95 12 7 APP FIRE YES X 33 0 0 TO YES	
101669 DC8 STOCKTON, CA.	X 50 0 10G FIRE YES	
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091269 BAC MANILA	X 47 45 2 APP FIRE PAR	

TABLE 1. STUDY DATA BASE (Continued)

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112770 DC8 ANCHORAGE	X	229	47	47	TO.	FIRE		=
072770 DC8 NAHA, DKINAWA	ĭ	4	4	Ŏ	APP	C10C		WAT
OZOBIO CHI MUNICH	X Y	23 82	0 61	U 21	APP	FIRE		
050270 DC9 ST. CROIX, V.I.	Ŷ	63	25	25	LDG			WAT
070570 DC8 TORONTO	X	108	108	0	LDG	FIRE		
091570 DC8 JFK	X	156	0	11	LOG	FIRE		
O105/0 990 STOCKHOLM	ĭ	10	5	4	CLI		PAR	
123770 BAC CONSTANA	Ä Y	93 27	10	3	ADD		YES UDF	
113070 207 TEL AVIV	Ŷ	3	0	ò	10	FIRE		
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090671 BAC HAMBURG	X	121	22	?	CLI	FIRE	UDF	
121571 707 URUNCHI, CHINA	X	3	0	0	LDG		YES	
051872 DC9 FT. LAUDERDALE	X	10	0	3	LDG	FIRE		
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122972 L10 MIAMI	X	176	99	60	APP	FIRE	NO	WAT:
012172 DC9 ADANA	X	5	1	?	APP	FIRE		
1)4)777 VC1 ADDIS ABABA	X	107	43	?	10	FIRE		
112072 DCD MOSCOW HSSD		א, טפו	61	15	CIT	FIRE		
122372 F28 QSL0 · · ·	Ŷ	;	40	7	APP	FIRE		
122872 F28 BOLBAO, SPAIN		4	0	4	LOG		YES	
030573 707 DENVER		3	0	0	TO	FIRE		
0/31/3 DC9 BUSIUN, MASS.	¥	89 77	89	Ū	APP	FIRE		
112773 DC9 CHAITAROUGA	·Ŷ	26	ŏ	16	LDG	LINE	YES	
012273 707 KHANO, NIGERIA	X	202	172	?	LDG	FIRE		
053173 737 NEW DELHI	X		52	?	APP	FIRE		
060973 707 RIO DE JANEIRO	X	-	Š	Ŏ	APP	E105	P.AR	WAT
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062373 DCB JFK		128		8		FIRE		
121773 DC9 GREENSBORO .		91		Ŏ		FIRE		
121773 OCI BOSTON		151		3		FIRE		•
121973 707 NEW DELHI	X			3		FIRE		
122373 CVL MANAUS, BRAZIL 011674 707 LOS ANGELES	X			1 3	LDG	FIRE	YES	
011374 707 PAGO PAGO, AM. SAMOA		101		5		FIRE		
091174 0C9 CHARLOTTE, N.C.	X		71	10	APP	FIRE	PAR	•
091174 727 PORTO ALEGRE, BRAZIL		74	0	0	LDG		YES	
O10174 F28 TURIN, ITALY	X	42	. 38	4	APP	FIRE	UDF	

TABLE 1. STUDY DATA BASE (Continued)

010274 F28 IZMIR, TURKEY 031574 CVL TEHRAN, IRAN 112074 747 NAIROBI, KENYA 020975 BAC LAKE TAHOE 033175 737 CASPER, WYO. 062475 727 JFK 080775 727 DENVER 092475 F28 PALEMBANG 111275 727 RALEIGH, N.C. 111275 DC1 JFK 111575 F28 NR. BUENOS AIRES 121675 747 ANCHORAGE 010276 DC1 ISTANBUL 040576 727 KETCHIKAN 042276 720 BARRANQUILLA, COL. 042776 727 ST. THOMAS, V.1. 062376 DC9 PHILADELPHIA 121676 880 MIAMI 111676 DC9 DENVER 030477 DC8 NIAMEY, NIGER 031777 707 PRESTWICK 032777 747 TENERIFE 032777 747 TENERIFE 032777 747 TENERIFE 040477 DC9 NEW HOPE, GA. 092777 DCR KUALA LUMPUR 100277 DCR SHANNON 111977 727 MADEIRA 112177 BAC BARILOCHE, ARG. 121877 CVL MADEIRA 041877 DC8 TORYO 111777 747 JFK 021178 737 CRANBROOK, B.C. 030378 DCE SANTIAGO DE COMPO. 040278 737 SAO PAULO 040478 737 CHARIROI, BELGIUM 050878 727 PENSACOLA 052578 880 MIAMI 062678 BOC9 TORONTO 070978 EAC ROCHESTER	T 72 65 7 CLI FIRE UDF
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010274 F28 IZMIR, TURKEY	X 72 65 7 CLI FIRE UDF
USID/4 CVL IEHRAN, IRAN	X 96 15 7 TAX FIRE YES
112074 747 MAINUBL, KENTA 020975 RAC LAKE TENDE	X 157 59 44 CLI FIRE PAK
033175 737 CASPER WYO.	X 44 U U   U   125
062475 727 JFK	X 124 112 12 APP FIRE PAR
080775 727 DENVER	X 134 0 15 CL1 YES
092475 F28 PALEMBANG	X 62 25 7 LDG FIRE UDF
111275 727 XALETON, N.C.	139 0 1 APP TES
111575 F28 NR. BUENOS AIRES	A VE U U TOO ALC
121675 747 ANCHORAGE	121 0 2 TAX YES
010276 DC1 1STANBUL	X 373 0 1 LDG FIRE YES
040576 727 KETCHIKAN	X 57 1 32 LDG FIRE YES
042276 /ZU BARRANQUILLA, COL.	X 40 1 APP FIRE YES
042//0 /2/ SI. IMUMAS, V.I.	X 88 37 19 LDG FIRE PAR
121676 RRO MIAMI	X 105 0 36 LDG . YES
111676 DC9 DENVER	X 95 0 2 TO FIRE VES
030477 DCB NIAMEY, NIGER	X 4 Z 2 APP FIRE YES
031777 707 PRESTWICK	X 40 0 TO FIRE YES
032777 747 TENERIFE	· X 396 334 62 TAX FIRE PAR
032777 747 TENERIFE	X 246 246 C TO FIRE YES
040477 DC9 NEW HOPE, GA.	X 85 62 22 APP FIRE PAR
192777 DER KUALA LUMPUR	X 79 34 7 APP FIRE UUF
111077 DER SRANNUN	Y 164 128 36 ING FIRE TES
112177 BAC BARILOCHE, ARG.	X 79 45 34 APP UDF
121877 CVL MADEIRA	X 57 36 13 LDG YES WAT
041877 DC8 TOKYO	X 140 0 0 TO YES
111777 747 JFK	3 0 0 LDG YES
021178 737 CRANBROOK, B.C.	X 49 42 5 LDG FIRE PAR
130178 OCT FOR WAREERS	X 222 0 52 1DC YES
040278 737 SAO PAULO	X 42 0 O LDG FIRE YES
040478 737 CHARLROL, BELGIUM	X . 3 0 O LDG FIRE YES
050878 727 PENSACOLA	X 58 3 11 APP YES WAT
052578 880 MIAMI	X 60 0 TO YES
062678 DC9 TORONTO	X 107 2 7 TO PAR
070978 BAC ROCHESTER 103179 DC1 MEXICO CITY	77 0 1 LDG YES X 87 70 17 LDG F1RE UDF
111578 DCB COLUMBO, SRI LANKA	N 0, 10 11 100 1111 101
121778 737 HYDERABAD, 1ND1A	X 126 1 4 TO FIRE YES
122378 DC9 PALERMO, ITALY	X 129 108 7 LDG UDF WAT
122978 DC8 PORTLAND, OREGON	X 185 10 23 APP PAR
032578 720 LONDON .	82 0 7 LDG YES
020979 DC9 MIAMI	X 5 0 1 CLI YES
021979 707 ST. LUCIA	170 0 0 APP YES X 64 45 15 APP FIRE PAR .
031479 727 DOHA, QATAR	X 64 45 15 APP FIRE PAR . X 67 0 8 LDG FIRE YES
042679 737 MADRAS 100779 DC8 ATHENS	X 154 14 D LDG FIRE YES
TONALA DOU VINENA	or war with the second terms that

TABLE 2. ACCIDENT DATA BASE SUMMARY (1959-1979)

	LAND	WATER	TOTAL
Accidents	142	- 11	153*
<b>Fatalities</b>	3573	218	3791
Serious			
Injuries	1046	80	1126

\*Foreign 91 U.S. and Possessions 62

## AIRCRAFT SIZE/CONFIGURATION.

Figure 1 identifies the size of aircraft represented in the data base, and figure 2 provides for the percentage of acciden's as a function of aircraft size and config-Small commuter type short haul aircraft, constitute approximately 40 percent of the accident cases; larger short haul group, approximately 20 percent of the cases; narrow-body long haul group, approximately 35 percent; and wide-body long haul aircraft, approximately 5 percent. Of particular interest is the effect of size on aircraft crash performance and survivability. Considering the effects of scale, as in dynamic modeling, it might be expected that larger aircraft would fare better than smaller aircraft if the crash environment is not scaled up. Further, the individual occupant does not scale up but becomes relatively smaller in the larger aircraft with a corresponding improvement in his survival prospects. For instance, fuselage structural elements such as frames and stringers are stronger in an absolute sense and offer greater energy absorbing capability for larger commercial jet aircraft than for smaller propeller driven aircraft. This feature provides an inherent crashworthiness performance of the jet as compared to the propeller aircraft. An assessment of the accident data seems to indicate that relative size within the jet group has only minor effects on the crash performance. In general, it takes a larger tree, a larger house, and a deeper or wider ditch to do equivalent damage to a large aircraft. There are exceptions however, when considering accidents between smaller commuter aircraft with pressurized and nonpressurized fuselage of unequal strength but equivalent size. Notwithstanding that no two accidents are identical, an accurate comparison of damage between a large and small aircraft with or without pressurized fuselages can be made.

With respect to the effects of aircraft configuration on the total number of accidents, figure 2 also provides for the difference between aircraft types and service classes. It can be seen that approximately 20 percent involved non-passenger service as further broken down into cargo, training, and positioning flights. As regards to cargo service, a review of the accident data showed some cases where cargo shift during the accident increased the hazard to the flight crew. (A notable instance was the 880 Miami accident in 1976 where cattle pens broke loose during an overrun and blocked the cockpit door.) Training accidents most frequently involve engine-out takeoff attempts. These accidents involved extreme yaw and roll angles with ground strikes of wings, engines, or aft fuselage.

#### TABLE 3. STRUCTURAL DAMAGE SEVERITY

# DAMAGE CATEGORY 1 MINOR IMPACT DAMAGE - INCLUDES ENGINE/PYLON DAMAGE OR SEPARATION. MINOR LOWER FUSELAGE DAMAGE, AND MINOR FUEL SPILLAGE. 2 MODERATE IMPACT DAMAGE - INCLUDE HIGHER DEGREES OF DAMAGE OF TYPE 1 AND INCLUDES GEAR SEPARATION OR COLLAPSE. SEVERE IMPACT DAMAGE - INCLUDES SEVERE LOWER FUSELAGE CRUSH AND/OR 3 CLASS 1 OR CLASS 2 FUSELAGE BREAKS, MAY HAVE GEAR COLLAPSE, BUT NO TANK RUPTURE. 4 SEVERE IMPACT DAMAGE BUT NO FUSELAGE BREAK - INCLUDES MAJOR FUEL SPILLAGE DUF. TO WING LOWER SURFACE TEAR AND WING BOX DAMAGE. 5 EXTREME IMPACT DAMAGE - INCLUDES CLASS 1 OR CLASS 2 FUSELAGE BREAKS WITH WING SEPARATION OR BREAKS, MAY HAVE GEAR AND/OR ENGINE SEPARATION. 6 AIRCRAFT DESTRUCTION - INCLUDES CLASS 3 FUSELAGE BREAKS OR DESTRUCTION WITH TANK RUPTURE, GEAR AND/OR ENGINE SEPARATION.

FUSELAGE BREAKS. CLASS 1 - SECTIONS BREAK REMAIN TOGETHER

CLASS 2 - SECTIONS BREAK AND OPEN

CLASS 3 - SECTIONS BREAK AND MOVE OFF

TABLE 4. SUMMARY OF FATALITIES AS A FUNCTION OF DAMAGE SEVERITY

	•	Hu11			Tot	al it.	Fi	re	Tr	ಕಿರ್ಬಿತಿ	Dros	ning	Uni	kr.
<u>Cat</u>	Accidents		Fire	Occupan		<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	5	3	#	*	ř	<u> </u>
1	5	3	4	616	53	8.6	53	8.6	. 0	0	0	g	0	0
5	24	12	6	1684	. 1	.06	0	0	1	06	0	0	0	0
3	22	20	9	2024	225	11.11	55	2.72	. 5	. 0.25	165	8.15	0	0
4	40	36	35	3425	875	25.54	722	21.08	5	.15	18	.53	130	3.80
5	35	35	23	2618	934	35.68	335	12.80	210	8.02	<b>3</b> 2	1.22	357	15.93
6	20	.50	18	1990	1547	77.74	169	9.50	190	9.54	3	0.15	1165	58.54
UNX*	7	7	3	311	156	50.16	2	.64	65	20.90	0	0	89	28.62
	153	133	103	12668	3791	29.93	1356	10.70	476	3.76	213	1.72	1741	13.74

<sup>\*</sup> Insufficient information for category assignment

Some accidents involve touch-and-go landing practice. The principal variation in structural configuration is in placement of engines. Approximately 60 percent of the accidents involved aircraft with wing-mounted and aft body-mounted engines. The aft-mounted engines only separated from the aircraft due to high acceleration loading, while the wing/pylon-mounted engines separated both from high accelerations and from contact with external objects.

## STRUCTURAL DAMAGE.

Of the 153 accidents studied, 94 involved aircraft with engines on the wing pods and 59 involved aircraft with engine pods on the aft fuselage. In figure 3, it may be seen that engine separation occurred in 55 percent, landing gear collapse or separation occurred in 75 percent, wing box breaks occurred in 45 percent, fuselage breaks occurred in 48 percent, and water ditching impact breakup occurred in 3 percent of the accidents. The separation of an engine and the breaking of a wing-box imply fuel spills. In some instances, a fuselage break in an aircraft with aft-mounted engines also caused a fuel spill. The wide-body long haul aircraft have main body landing gear which transfers high impact loads to the fuselage structure. Water ditching impact breakup is considered separately from fuselage breaks because, in general, the hydrodynamic forces involved are different.

Considering fuselage breaks (excluding fuselage lower surface rupture) of the 153 impact survivable accidents, 64 are known to have experienced one or more breaks. Forty-six of the 64 were fatal accidents. Available data indicates that 39.5 percent of the persons onboard in the 64 accidents were fatalities. The other 82 accidents in this study did not experience fuselage breaks, and 27 of these were fatal accidents of which 20.6 percent of the persons onboard were fatalities. These data are plotted under figure 4. Of the 64 accidents experiencing fuselage breaks, 6 involved the aircraft touching down (impacting) on ground or in swampy areas with shallow water. Data on these accidents are plotted in figure 5. The six water entry accidents, in which the fuselage broke into several pieces and had a 36.8 percent fatality rate (36.8 percent of occupants onboard), are further discussed under the "Unplanned Water Contact" section of this study. The 58 ground slide accidents experienced fuselage breaks due to main landing gear separation/ collapse, excessively hard touchdown on hard flat/impact after takeoff, touchdown in areas of trees/building/objects or on rocky/rough terrain, or combinations of these conditions.

With respect to fuselage lower surface rupture of the 153 impact survivable accidents, 57 aircraft are known to have experienced considerable damage to the lower fuselage and little or no damage to the upper fuselage (above the floor Seventeen of these 57 were fatal accidents, with 17.5 percent of the persons onboard being fatalities. In addition to the accidents with lower surface damage, three of these were fatal accidents with 45.8 percent of the persons onboard being fatalities. Lower fuselage tear or rupture generally occur when landing gear fails to support the aircraft. Thus, scrubbing on rough surfaces (sometimes even on the runway) rips open the thin skins and body frames. At the same time, wing-box fuel tanks are also subject to rupture and fuel spillage. 37 of 53 ground slide accidents (4 of the 57 accidents were water entry accidents), the wing-box was probably ruptured and of these, 32 to 35 involved minor to severe fires. Lower surface damage accidents are divided into three groups for study purposes: extensive rupture, minor or moderate damage, and those involving water entry. The four accidents involving water entry are discussed under the "Unplanned Water Contact" section of this study.

## SUBSYSTEM PARTICIPATION.

The crash dynamic response and interaction of the various components and their structural systems are shown in table 5. The frequency of occurrence or participation of each of these structural system failures in the data base of accidents considered is shown in table 6. The diagonal shows the total participation of any one component while the off-diagonal values show co-participation of other com-The data presented on cabin interior, seats, doors, and floors are as cited in the accident data reports. The failures associated with these subsystem areas have such a significant effect on occupant survivability during an emergency evacuation on either land or water. Those failures affecting occupant survivability during water impact occurrence will be further discussed in the "Unplanned Water Contact" section of this report. In this regard, it should be noted that in field investigations of accidents, interior structural component failures are not consistently documented and omission of mention of a particular corponent does not necessarily indicate no failure has occurred. The participation of structural factors in fatalities is shown in figure 6 (the percentage fatality participation coming from table 4). The major factor in fatalities is fire/smoke. The unknown represents a combination of trauma and fire. The role of trauma injuries in fire fatalities is undefined.

Available factual data relating to the 47 accidents citing door/exit problems are tabulated in figure 7. These data also indicate that most occurrences (47 percent) involved doors at the front of the fuselage and only 16 percent at mid-body and 27 percent at the aft fuselage. This ratio is expected, since during ground-slide accidents the forward fuselage is the first to impact objects such as buildings, trees, poles, etc. These data also indicate that forward fuselage doors involved jamming in 64 percent of the cases and blockage in 35 percent of the cases. Doors in the aft fuselage had approximately the same ratio. Mid-body exits, however, had this ratio reversed with blockage being 64 percent of the cases and jamming only 36 percent of the cases. It is probable that wing-box structure provides protection from jamming of the mid-body over-wing exits.

Of the 153 accidents, 36 are known or reported to have experienced passenger or crew area floor displacement or rupture. Such failures were reported as "probable" in 4 other accidents. Statistical data on these occurrences are tabulated in figure 8. For study purposes, these 36 accidents are divided into three groups: 15 that did not involve a fuselage break, 17 that did involve a fuselage break, and 4 that involved the aircraft touching or overrunning into water.

## OPERATIONAL PHASE.

The percentage of accidents by operational phase and by operational time is shown in figure 9. Considering those operational phases taking place near or on the ground (load, taxi, takeoff, initial climb, initial approach, final approach, landing), 79.3 percent of the accidents occur in 18 percent of the operational time. Further, those accidents that occur during climb, cruise, and descent are generally non-survivable and were considered outside the range of study and selected data base. The average distance from the airport that the various accident types occur is shown in table 7. Figure 10 compares a fatality rating to the distance from airport in miles. The accident severity is related to the distance from airports at which aircraft accidents occur. Accidents around airports; hard landings, takeoff aborts, and overshoots are relatively fatality free. Undershoots which occur at approach velocities, but involve terrain with some degree of

# TABLE 5. STRUCTURAL SYSTEMS

SYSTEM	CRASH FUNCTION	CRASH DYNAMICS	INTERACTION	OLEFAT BEAULT
	<del></del>			DIRECT RESULT
Fuselage	React Obstructions	Lower Fuselage Crush	Floor Displacement	Energy Absorption by Deformation
			Cargo Displacement	Energy Absorption by Grd. Friction
	Energy Absorption	Upper fuselage Distortion	Upper Fuselage Distortion Body Fuel/Elec. Line Rupture Seats Door/hatches	Fuel/Fire/Smoke/ Water/Mud Entry Floatation Loss Fuselage Damage Survivable Vol. Loss Egress Blockage
	Floatation		Cabin Interior Floor Structure	Seat Lateral Displace
	fgress	fuselage Break	Doors/Hatches	Energy Absorption by Deformation Survivable Vol. Loss Occupant Ejection/ Egress Route
	Support Floor Beams		Body Fuel Lines	Loose Cabin Interior Items Floor/Seat Track Rupture High Floor Accel,
	Support Cabin Interior Items	Fuselage Disintegration	Floor Struc. Displace. Seats Labin Interior Items	fuel/Fire Entry Seat Separation/ Ejection Cabin Debris Floatation Loss Energy Absorption
	Constrain/Baygage+Cargo			Fuesologe Damage
tue: Task St <b>oraye</b> System	Retain Structural Integrity Limit Fuc! Spillage	Engine Line Rupture Body Line Rupture	Pylon/Engine fuselage	Fuel Spill
Floor Structure	Restrain Smate/Tracks Energy Abscrition Provide Eg.a.s Cabin Interior Items	Deformation Rupture	Seat Track/Seats Cabin Interior Items Doors/Hatches Seat Tracks/Seats	Energy Absorption Egress Blockage
	Aetain Structural integrity		Cabin Interior Items	
Seets/ Restruints Systems	Occupant Confeinment/ Protection	Seat Track Delorm./ Rupture	Floor Beams	Seat Elevation/ Separation
Remain Attaches	Erergy Absorption	Seat Deformation	Seat Tracks	Energy Absorption Load Limiting
	Remain Attached to floor Release as Required (Belts/Harness)	Seat Rupture Belt/Harness Rupture	Seat Structure Bulkhead Structure	Occupant Kelaease/Injury Occupant Ejection/Injury Energy Absorption
Cabin Intorior System	Contents Containment Remain Attached to Stricture	Overhead Compartment Spillage	Upper Fuselage	Cabin Debris
37376111	Meline III Introducto de ser level	Overhead Compartment Separation	Floor Beams	Egress Blockage
		Cailing Panel/Sidewall Separation Galley/Closet/Divider Separation Galley/Closet Spillage	C•i	
Entry and Escape Doors	Operate as Required	Blockage by Debris Jammed by Floor Jammed by Fuselage Distort.	Cabin Interior Sys. Floor Structure Upper Fuselage	Egress Blockage Fuel/Fire/Smoke Entry
		Inadvertant Opening		

# TABLE 5. STRUCTURAL SYSTEMS (Continued)

SYSTEM	CRASH FUNCTION	CRASH DYNAMICS	INTERACTION	DIRECT RESULT
Landing Gear	Energy Absorption Maintain Grd, Clearance Separate with no Damage to Airframe	Stroke/Jeer Deformation	Loed Airframe	Energy Absorption by Gear
Nose		Collapse Aft/Side and/or Separation	Forward fueselage Grd. Contact	Energy Absorption by Grd. Friction Energy Absorption by Lwr. Fuse. Def.
			Penetrate Lower Fuselage	Gear Damage Floor Deformation Fire Entry to Cabin Fusalage Break
Kain/Body		Collapse or Separation Aft/Side	Center Fuselage	Water/Fuel/Fire Entry to Lwr. Fuse.
		ATTYSTEE	iwr. Fuse. Pene- tration Wing Pod Grd.	Energy absorption by Pylon Def. Grd. impact loads
			Contact Wing Grd. Impact	to Wing
			Wing Box Tear	Fuel Spill/Fire
			Slewing of A/C Lwr. Fuse. Pene-	Fusminge Break Body Fuel Line
			tration	Break/Fire
			Aft Structure Contact	Empennage Damage
Wing Pylon/ Engine	React Obstructions	Deformation	Load Wing Structure	Pylon/Engine Damaçe Energy Absorption Load Wing Structure Grd. Friction
	Energy Absorption Separate with no Damage to Airframe	Collepse/Separation	Fuel/Electric/ Hydraulic Line Rupture	Pylon/Engine Damage
			•	Fluid Spill/Arcing
			Wing Box Web Tear Wing Lower Surface Penetratio: Wing Ground Contact	fire Wing Bux Breek Energy Absorption
	Provide Gr. Reaction			
Aft Pylon/ Engine	Separate with no Damaya to Airframe	Deformation/Separation	Fuel/Electric Line Rupture	Pyton/Engine Demage Fuel Spill/Arcing/ fire
				Fuselage fire damage
Wing Structure	Support Main Gear Support Engine/Pylon	Deformation	Load Fuse. Structure	Energy Absorption Fuel Leak Wing Damage
	Contain fuel Reacts Obstructions	Separation	A/C Dynamics/ Floatation Loss Hinder Egress	Fuel Spill/Fire Wing Jamage
	Prevent A/C Roi!			
	Energy Absorption	Wing Box Break	A/C Dynamics/ Floatation Loss	Fuel Spill/Fire Wing Damage
	Egress Route Provide Floatation	Lower Surface Tear	fuel Spill/Fire Wing Demage	

TABLE 6. STRUCTURAL COMPONENT PARTICIPATION

Kimbarc	nf	Accidents	_ 10	52 '	Istal

<del></del>	Hull Loss	Fire	Gear Sep.	Engine Sep.	Fuselage Crush & Break	Tank Rupture	Cabin Interior	Seats	Doors	Floors	Body Fuel Lines	Water
Hull	133	95	80	70	90	100	37	36	40	32	7	15
Fire	95	<u>103</u>	64	59	70	85	25	27	28	21	5	4
Gear	80	54	<u>95</u>	57	62	71	33	26	38	33	5	8
Engine	70	59	<b>5</b> 7	<u>80</u>	61	61	30	28	28	26	4	10
Fuselage	90	70	62	61	100	73	34	38	41	38	5	14
Tank	100	85	71	61	73	107	33	32	31	25	6	10
Cabin	37	25	33	30	34	33	45	26	24 .	22	2	7
Seats	36	27	26	28	38	32	26	41.	. 23	24	3	5
Doors	40	28	38	25	41	31	24	23	47	30	3	5
floors	32	21	33	26	38	25	22	24	30	42	3	7
Lines	7	5	5 (	4	5	6	-2	3	3	3	<u> 7</u>	2
later	15	4	8	10	14	10	7	5	5	7	2	16

roughness and contour unpredictability at an average distance of approximately 900 feet shy of the runway, are moderately severe, but less than the average. Stalls which occur on an average of about 1.2 miles from the airport are severe accidents. The airplane's uncontrolled attitude at impact during a stall contributes to this severity. Collision with obstacles near the airport are relatively mild. Usually they involve wires and approach lights which damage the airplane but do not inhibit the pilot from making a safe landing. Injuries that result from this type of accident often occur during the evacuation from the airplane. Collisions with obstacles, generally trees and buildings, are more fatal than the average. This type of accident occurs at an average distant of 2.3 miles from the airport and has a fatality ratio equal to 1.86. Uncontrolled ground/water collisions occur at an average distant of 2.7 miles from the airport and have a fatality ratio of 3.26. The controlled ground/water collision accident type occurs at an average distance of 8 miles from the airport (excludes one accident approximately 80 miles from the airport) and has a normalized fatality ratio of 3.59, which is the highest of all the categories.

TABLE 7. AVERAGE DISTANCE FROM AIRPORT ASSOCIATED WITH ACCIDENT CATEGORIES

Description	Average Distance from Airport (Miles)
Hard landing	0.00
Controlled collision	7.80
Uncontrolled collision	2.70
Undershoot	.16
Stall	1.20
Collision with obstacle (all) (a) off airport (b) at airport	(1.50) 2.30 0.00
Aborted takeoff	.13
Overshoot	•11

## SCENARIO(s)

From the study of both ground and water accidents in reference 9, three representative crash scenarios were identified with their selection based upon accident conditions involving consequences such as the aforementioned structural failures and occupant injury levels. As identified, these scenarios are described in the following paragraphs.

#### AIR-TO-SURFACE, HARD LANDINGS.

This scenario considers those types of accidents in which the aircraft impacts a level surface from the air, is characterized by a high sink rate with wheels up or down, with the airplane in a symmetric noseup or nosedown attitude typical of a Crashes on a final approach usually occur hard landing or approach accident. because the aircraft is not where the pilot thinks it is. The forward speed of the aircraft is between the speed for tlap deployment (160 to 175 knots) and stall (120 to 126 knots). The rate of descent is between 3 and 12 meters per second (m/s) (600 and 2400 feet per minute (ft/min). The angle of the aircraft relative to the ground (pitch) is dependent on the slope of the ground and the attitude of the aircraft. The airplane altitude is assumed symmetrical with +15° pitch, with impact on the runway or within 200 meters of the runway. The aircraft gross weight is weight at takeoff less weight of fuel burned. For landing accidents, forward speed may be between the prescribed landing speed and stall speed. Some instances of higher speeds were noted, but these cases resulted in overruns. The pitch of the aircraft is between 3° to 4° nosed down/up to the noseup stall angle. Rate of descent is between 3 and 12 m/s (600 and 2400 ft/min).

## AIR-TO-SURFACE, FLIGHT INTO OBSTRUCTION.

This scenario considers those accidents in which an airplane encounters a hostile environment at impact such as during an undershoot. In this scenario the hazard and terrain conditions have a significant influence on the severity of damage the airplane sustains. The hazards include ravines, embankments, lights, poles, trees, dikes, buildings, and vehicles. These accidents can be generally described as controlled or uncontrolled collisions with obstacles, hostile terrain or water (undershoot) occurring near the airport (from 150 to 1200 meters off the runway) or in some cases several miles from an airport. If the accident occurs during the landing or approach phase, the airplane is in a level attitude with 0° to +15° pitch, and approximately zero roll and yaw. If the accident occurs during takeoff, the pitch can range from 0° to +45°, roll from +5° to +45°, and the yaw from 0° to +10°. The ranges of forward speed and sink speed are from 120 to 200 knots and from 3 to .2 m/s (600 to 2400 ft/min), respectively. The hazards and terrain conditions have a significant effect on the structural damage and airplane postimpact behavior.

The Air-To-Surface Hard Landing and Flight Into Obsruction scenarios or crash environments are most representative of seven unplanned water impact cases identified in table 1. As applicable to a high sink rate approach or landing undershoot on the water, the scenarios describe an impact condition in which fuselage rupture and loss of lives is most likely, due to a combination of high impact loads, obstructed escape routes, and/or instantaneous cabin flooding. In addition, the scenarios define the situation in which onboard survival equipment items, normally intended for use during a planned ditching occurrence, would probably not be readily available, due to non-accessible stowage (doors, overhead, etc.) and insufficient retrieval and deployment time. For example, the use of multiple occupant liferaft and slide-raft devices is dependent upon an intact fuselage with operational exits and/or accessibility to equipment stowage areas not affected by severe cabin flooding conditions.

## SURFACE-TO-SURFACE.

This scenario considers those accidents in which the aircraft is on the ground and encounters obstructions. The accident is characterized by horizontal motion of the airplane into a hazard such as during takeoff-abort or landing overrun. The sink speeds, including ground-slope effects, range from 70 knots to rotation speed with the airplane in a level attitude of the hazard encountered and range from paved surface, and hard ground (sliding contact) to ditches, humps, vehicles, light poles, buildings, soft earth, and/or water.

The surface-to-surface crash scenario characterizes the three identified cases of an aircraft overrun or slide/roll into the water [table 1]. It describes relatively minor impact conditions in which the cabin remains generally intact and allows time for occupants to evacuate with full use of all onboard emergency equipment. This scenario describes an impact occurrence with a high probability of survival.

### **RISKS/EQUIPMENT NEEDS**

Prior to identifying the occupant risks and equipment needs associated with an unplanned water contact occurrence, it is necessary to review the boundary conditions which have already been identified for both the uncontrolled ground and water impact crashes as presented under the scenario section of this report. It is also necessary to review those conditions which have resulted from a controlled or planned emergency water landing. This review will allow for an understanding of differences that exist between ground versus water crash occurrences which involve a "controlled" or "uncontrolled" aircraft. Notwithstanding the limited number of water impact occurrences and associated information available, the review will provide a better insight into those aspects affecting occupant survivability during the inadvertent impact of aircraft on the water.

From the aforementioned study results, it is obvious that the operating conditions and circumstances leading to either a ground- or water-impact occurrence are generally equivalent. However, during the actual impact event, it should be noted that the impact loads are transmitted into the aircraft fuselage/floor structure in a different manner as a result of surface variations (ground versus water), plowing, hydraulic effects, etc. Accordingly, the damage to an aircraft structure under equivalent crash conditions will vary between a ground and water impact. There are other variances as exhibited by the fact that the ground impact may involve a fire threat while the water impact concerns the potential of a sinking fuselage.

Considering strictly the unplanned water contact occurrence, and the small number of survivable cases reported during the last 20 years, it must be recognized that a larger accident base with more detailed information is needed to determine and develop any substantial improvements. For example, in the review of the 11 water impact cases in this study, very little postcrash information was available because the fuselages needed for subsequent evaluations were most often nonexistent (due to sinking). Also, unlike the controlled water impact or ditching occurrence, no analysis or tests have ever been conducted which describe quantitatively the behavior of an aircraft during an unplanned water contact. However, sufficient information is available which depicts a controlled emergency landing on the water, as well as an uncontrolled impact on the ground. While the controlled water and uncontrolled ground impact accelerations are usually less severe than the same

characteristic pulses experienced during an uncontrolled water crash (due to plowing), it is believed that accident data obtained from the larger number of unplanned ground impact occurrences can be correlated to some degree with data already obtained from known controlled water impact (ditching) occurrences, analysis, and model tests. From this information it should be possible to form a rational basis which provides for the identification of occupant risks and survivable equipment needs appropriate to the unplanned water contact occurrence. A more indepth review of the planned and unplanned water contact occurrence is provided under this section. With respect to this review, it should be noted that many of the reported ground impact accidents could have equally involved water crashes, had the impact zones of the surrounding airport areas been water rather than land. Notwithstanding the higher number of ground impact occurrences, the number of water crash events could have been potentially higher.

### PLANNED WATER CONTACT.

The planned water contact occurrence can be described as a controlled and normally configured emergency landing of an aircraft on the water. This emergency water landing or "ditching" occurrence is further defined by the NTSB as a "forced landing of aircraft in water" (reference 13) of which such conditions exclude instances where an aircraft collided with land or water in uncontrolled flight. The basis for an established scenario covering on emergency water landing is prescribed under the various sections of the FAR's which relate to requirements on aircraft water impact behavior, floatation characteristics, emergency exits, equipment, and demonstrated occupant evacuation capability. Under the identified aircraft general ditching provisions of Part 25 (reference 1), it is required that all practical design measures, compatible with the general characteristics of the airplane, must be taken to minimize the probability that in an emergency landing on the water, the behavior of the airplane would cause immediate injury to the occupants or would make it impossible for them to escape. For example, there should not be any exclusively high vertical, lateral, or longitudinal accelerations developed, any dangerous tendency for the aircraft to dive under the water, or any excessive structural damage which would cause rapid sinking or collapse of the structure about the occupants. From the structural aspects, these provisions provide that external doors and windows have strength to withstand probable maximum water local pressures which are likely during a water landing, or if not so substantiated, the effects of their collapse must be considered in evaluating the aircraft water impact behavior and floatation characteristics. In addition, the provisions provide for a determination of fuselage buoyancy and substantiation that the floatation time and aircraft trim (considering exit sill heights, structural damage, and leakage) will allow the occupants a sufficient period to safely evacuate the aircraft. For the aircraft manufacturer's demonstrated compliance to these provisions, the fuselage bottom strength is verified to assure against ditching impact damage which might lead to excessive water influx to the cabin or lead to adverse ditching behavior. In addition, an analysis is provided to substantiate aircraft trim buoyancy and floatation periods with and without understructure rupture and impact damage. The methods of analysis vary between damonstrated scale strength model landing tests with and without simulated wave patterns to comparisons with other airplanes of similar configurations whose ditching performance is known.

From a review of these jet transport ditching substantiations, and taking into account various configured aircraft and their landing weights, approach attitudes,

speeds, descent rates, floatation characteristics, sea states, etc., several observations were made. First, demonstrated emergency water landing approaches are made in a controlled manner with gear-up (if retractable), full flaps, and at a normal landing speed with an impact descent rate of less than 5 ft/sec. Several aircraft are limited to a maximum vertical descent of 3 ft/sec to preclude fuselage damage and, in such cases experience longitudinal and vertical accelerations (considering perpendicular beam sea approaches) in the 2 to 4g range, respectively. Floatation time, assuming no extensive fuselage damage but allowing the loss of buoyancy at appropriate non-pressurized areas, such as gear wells, fairings, empennage, and wing center sections, has been shown to extend up to a 10- to 45-minute period, depending on aircraft size and configuration. In such cases, the aircraft buoyancy and leakage effects are analyzed to assure sill heights remain above the water and emergency exits are useable during this period. It is further shown, within these floatation periods, that occupants have sufficient time to evacuate the aircraft, taking into account, the operation of emergency exits and the retrieval and deployment of stored survival equipment, i.e., lifevest, liferafts, sliderafts, etc. A nominal 3-minute evacuation period has been considered satisfactory under such emergency conditions. High-wing commuter aircraft usually display a water rollover attitude in which exits on one side, such as main entry doors, may or may not be These aircraft, as well as any aircraft whose exits due to adverse fuselage floatation attitude may not be available, are designed with additional ditching exits to accommodate evacuation of the total onboard occupancy. Considering expected sea conditions, recent ditching substantiations have been predicted upon aircraft impacting water with 6- to 7-foot waves running parallel to the aircraft line of approach. Indicated are the conditions that if an aircraft is landing head-on into the face of a wave, excessive fuselage damage could occur.

To date, the planned emergency landing of a jet transport aircraft in water is rare, with only one intentional case involving an Overseas National Airways DC9, May 17, 1970. As identified in table 1, the aircraft ran out of fuel and was unexpectly ditched Northwest of St. Croix, Virgin Islands. While 40 occupants survived (35 passengers and 5 crew members), there were 25 occupant fatalities (including a stewardess and two infants). This ditching resulted in an NTSB special study (reference 4) which included the aircraft impact dynamics, equipment failure and post-ditching emergency egress problems. The magnitude of the deceleration was estimated to be 8-23g's (longitudinal) applied over 0.5 to 1.0 seconds, with the aircraft stopping in 15.2 to 24.4 meters. In this instance, the preditching briefing was incomplete, and the stewardess and at least five passengers were unrestrained at impact. At least seven restrained passengers were thrown from their seats, and their double-seats failed, which contributed to the fatalities. It was estimated that the aircraft floated for 5 to 6 minutes and most passengers were evacuated within 2 to 3 minutes. This floatation period was approximately one third the time identified under the DC9 ditching substantiation, which leads one to believe that significant lower fuselage damage may have been present. Also, while the estimated impact conditions were within survivable limits for a restrained occupant, such conditions (considering minimum floatation time) appear to represent the upper limit for either a planned or unplanned crash of an aircraft in which occupants without sufficient prior briefings have time to retrieve and deploy existing emergency equipment (lifevests, liferafts, etc.) and evacuate into the open water.

While not included under the aforementioned data base, an unexpected, but controlled ditching of a smaller Lear Model 23 aircraft occurred on Lake Michigan in March 1966 during an approach landing to Meigs Field (Chicago). The 12-passenger aircraft with only the pilot aboard had an engine flame-out on approach and the pilot landed the aircraft on the water (4-foot waves) at approximately 90 knots within 900 yards from the end of runway. An escape hatch was used by the pilot to evacuate the aircraft, since the water was over the lower main door sill. liferaft was dropped by helicopter for the rescue of the pilot within 5 minutes after touchdown. The aircraft subsequently was towed to shore and prior to retrieval remained afloat approximately 24 hours. The damage extended to missing flaps, torn fairings and fuel/hydraulic lines, lost left wing tip tank gear door, and wrinkled fuselage skin. This case points out that for either a planned or unplanned water contact occurrence, if the impact forces are sufficiently low and the aircraft fuselage remains intact without significant rupture and leakage, the chances of occupant survivability, resulting from extended buoyancy and floatation of the fuselage, is substantially increased.

## UNPLANNED WATER CONTACT.

The unplanned water contact occurrence defines an uncontrolled and/or improperly configured impact on the water. Accidents in which aircraft impact water unexpectedly involve special hazards. In air-to-surface accidents, which included the previously discussed DC9 St. Croix accident, 46.3 percent of the occupants drowned. Of the 16 water accidents identified in table 1, water was an important factor in 10 of the unplanned impact cases and in the aforementioned DC9 occurrence. These cases are reviewed under this section. Note, that under the DC9 occurrence, the pilot initiated a controlled descent into the water at approximately 90 knots (5° to 6° noseup). However, the passengers and crew had not been completely advised and the ditching occurrence was not truly a planned one. The number of fatalities (23) may have been reduced, if it was properly planned.

Unplanned water entry accidents, considering these 11 cases, appear to have some common factors. First, they usually occur at night. Second, there is usually a relatively rapid loss of floatation resulting in a portion or all of the aircraft sinking. Third, while there has been confusion, some occupants have been able to evacuate the aircraft. Finally, many of the drowning fatalities occur after the occupants have left the aircraft. Assessment of the water entry accidents is shown in figure 11. The accidents are divided into two groups: high energy impact and slide/roll into the water. There are eight high energy accidents. There are three cases where the aircraft rolled or slid into the water. For all these accidents the fuselage experienced either lower surface crush or had one or more breaks.

Six water entry accidents in which the fuselage broke into several pieces (fuselage break) had fatalities (36.8 percent of those persons onboard were fatalities). In five of these accidents, one section of the fusciage sank rapidly — some of the passengers and crew probably were ejected or fell into the sea without benefit of survival gear and others were trapped inside. The other sections floated briefly, allowing evacuations into rafts or floating slides. In other accidents, the fuselage sections floated briefly; however, 84 percent of those onboard drowned. Survivor reports indicated that in at least two accidents, interior and carry-on debris blocked evacuation routes and in two other accidents some exit doors were jammed. In another, the passenger compartment floor was displaced upward restricting evacuation.

Four accidents involved water entry; that is, touchdown in deep water or rolling into deep water at high speed, such that the lower surface of the fuselage was torn or ruptured but the fuselage did not break (lower fuselage crush). Three of these four accidents resulted in extensive lower surface damage and the aircraft sank rapidly. All three were fatal accidents with 18.1 percent of persons onboard being fatalities. One accident resulted in moderate damage to the lower surface as the aircraft rolled into water and came to rest on its gear with the water at or slightly above the cabin floor. There were no fatalities. However, in these accidents, the aircraft floated at least 5 minutes and in most cases 10 to 20 minutes, thus allowing adequate time to escape. In three of the four accidents it was established that the onboard rafts and float slides were not used.

The floor system was known to be disrupted in six of the eight high energy water entry accidents. Disruption was due, in part, to the hydrodynamic forces of water entering the fuselage through the underside through breaks in the fuselage. . part of this disruption resulted in displacement and elevation of floor beams with subsequent separation of seats, which contributed to problems in the evacuation of the aircraft. In addition, doors were jammed and debris from cabin interior systems were present.

Accidents, where aircraft skidded or rolled into water, experienced similar damage as the high energy impact, but to a lesser degree. However, close proximity of land, substantially reduced drowning. The 15 drownings in the DC8 Rio de Janeiro accident were attributed to disorientation of the occupants after they evacuated the aircraft, and to improper use of floatation devices.

With respect to the DC9 St. Croix accident, even though it was known that ditching was inevitable, there were problems associated with the deployment of stowed liferafts and lifevests. Other problems with this equipment were encountered in the DC8 Los Angeles accident. It is felt that incidence of drowning could be substantially reduced by better instructions and location of such equipment to improve accessibility.

It can therefore be concluded that in deep water entry accidents in which the fuselage does not break, the survivor rate should be very high with proper crew response/actions using available equipment such as liferafts and lifevests. However, when fuselage ruptures and immediate flooding occurs, it is evident that such equipment may not be readily available for use, in which case, seat cushions and/or more accessible floatation devices may represent the only means of survivability. This is characterized by the three of four deep water entry accidents in which, as stated above, onboard rafts and slides were not used.

## CONCLUSIONS

In view of the findings contained in this study, and as they relate to the unplanned water contact occurrences, it is obvious that regardless of how well certain equipment is designed, such equipment may not be appropriate for use under sovere environmental impact conditions. For example, the use of multiple occupant liferafts and slideraft designs has been demonstrated to provide a safe means of water evacuation and survival on aircraft involved in minor water impact conditions. On the other hand, and under more severe impact conditions involving a ruptured and rapidly sinking fuselage, such equipment by its very nature cannot be expected to be totally useable for egress. At this point, the occupant must rely on other existing personal equipment which is more readily available such as lifevest and/or individual floatation devices. Again, however, the successful use of personal floatation equipment under conditions of a sinking fuselage, is dependent upon the occupant's momentary knowledge of the equipment stowage location and manner of use, as described by passenger information cards and previous flight attendant briefings. It is also dependent upon the ability of the occupant to retrieve and don (in the case of the underseat packaged lifevests) this equipment under adverse flooding conditions (possibly under water).

Conclusions obtained under this study are as follows:

## 1. Occupant Risks

## Unplanned Water Contact

- . Involves different hazard than corresponding ground contact (sinking fuse-lage potential versus fire threat)
- . Occurs less frequently than unplanned ground contact but more frequently than planned water landing (ditching)
- . Leads to higher impact loads and greater fuselage damage than corresponding ground contact
- . Usually involves flooding conditions which adversely affect the ability of occupants to retrieve, deploy and/or don on-board floatation equipment
- . Most often occurs at night and in many cases drowning fatalities take place after occupants leave aircraft

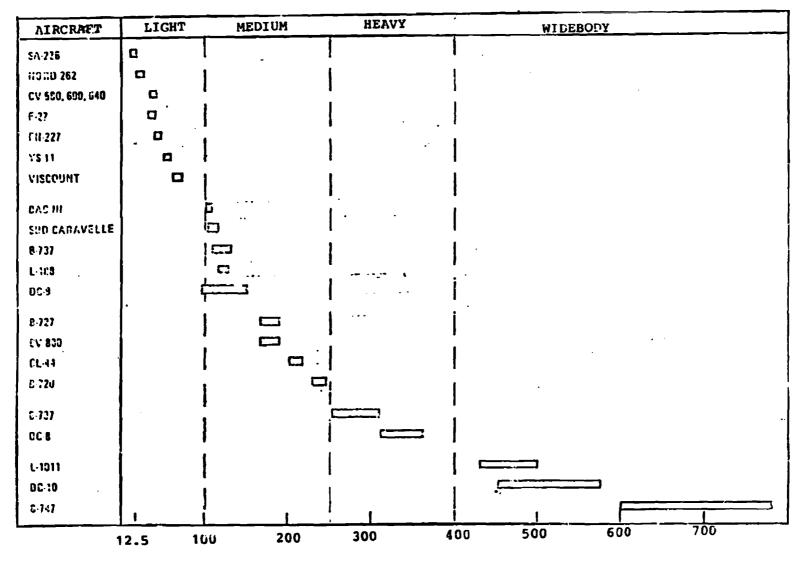
### 2. Equipment Needs

## Emergency Floatation Equipment

- . That is intended for use during a planned ditching may not be useable during an unplanned water contact occurrence (multiple occupant type)
- . That is readily accessible for use by each occupant may offer sole means of survival under severe unplanned water contact conditions (personal occupant type)
- . That is available for use during an unplanned water contact occurrence may vary in type between extended overwater and non-overwater operations
- That provides for occupant out-of-water assistance offers additional protection against hyperthermia effects (multiple occupant type)
- . That performs effectively is dependent upon effective cabin crew instructions and ease of equipment retrieval, deployment and use under adverse flooding conditions

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TYPICAL OPERATING WEIGHT, KIPS

FIGURE 1. TRANSPORT AIRPLANE VERSUS TAKEOFF GROSS WEIGHT

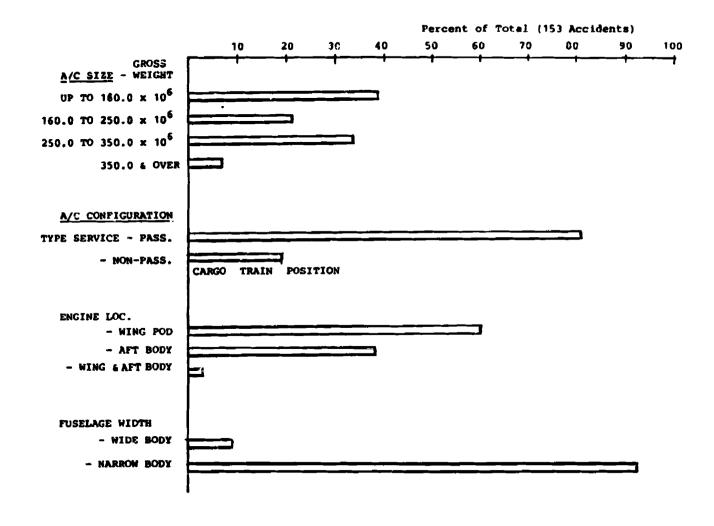


FIGURE 2. AIRCRAFT SIZE

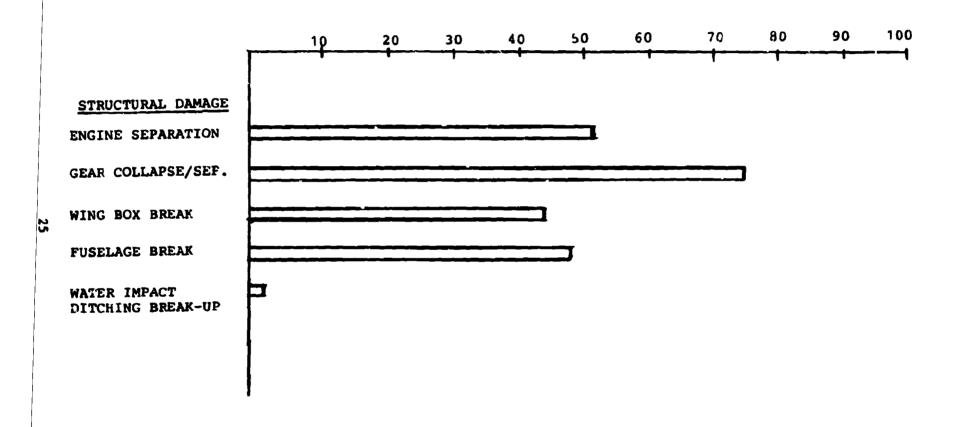


FIGURE 3. AIRCRAFT CONFIGURATION

Fatalities
Percent of total onboard

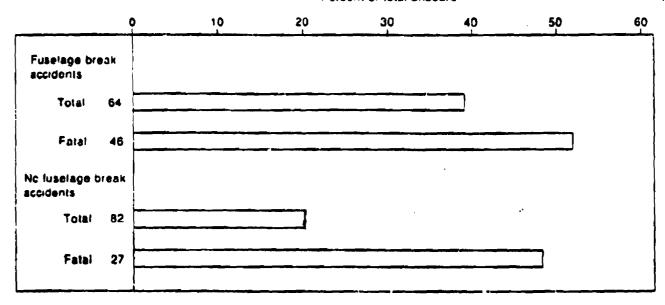


FIGURE 4. FATALITIES VERSUS PUBELAGE BREAK

Fatalities
Percent of total onboard

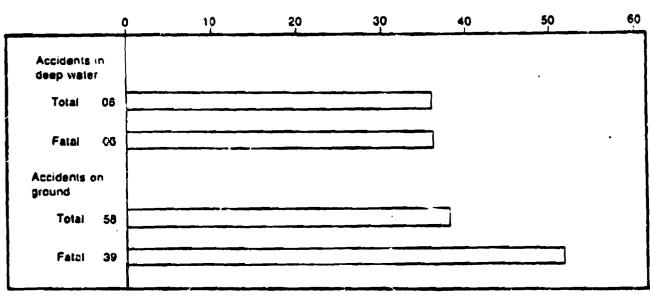


FIGURE 5. PATALITIES VERSUS ACCIDENT TYPE

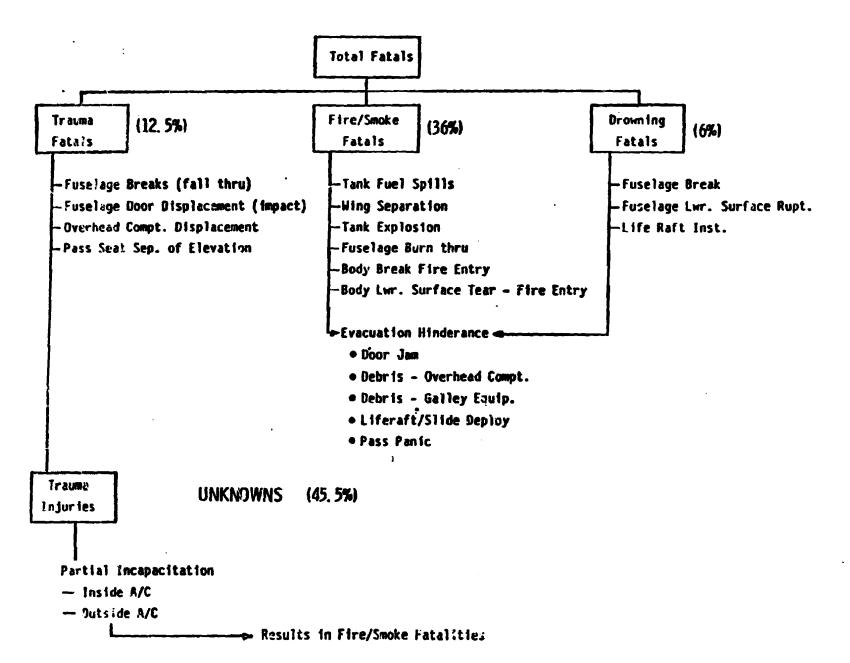


FIGURE 6. STRUCTURAL FACTORS IN FATALITIES

# Occurrences cited in 47 accidents

							Number	of cited	occurr <b>en</b>	ces					
			Jam cai	ming ise		Blockage cause					Could not be opened			Delay in openning	
Door - exit location	Door or exit position	Frame distortion	Floor lift	Latch mech.	Outside object	Galley	Interior & misc debris	Undefined	Evac. slide Or life raft	People panic	No other exit avail.	Owert to other exits some fatals	Divert to other exits no fatals	Divert to other exits some fatals	Divert to other exits
Fwd (39) 47%	L. entry Galley Cockpit	10	4 2 3	1	2	3	2. 3 • 1		2 1	· ŧ 1	1	5	7 6 3	6	1
Mid body (11) 16%	Fwd wing Over wing Alt wing	3		1			6	1				4	3		4
Aft (18) 27%	L. entry Tail entry Galley	4	2 2	1	•	2	· 2 1 2		·			6 1 1	1 1 4	1	1 1
Total (68)		19	15	4	2	5	17	1	3	2	1	23	25	7	12
100%			4	0 (59%)		28 (41%)				49 (72%)			19(28%)		

FIGURE 7. DOOR OR EXIT JAMMING AND/OR BLOCKAGE

									Nun	nber of a	ccidents	_				
	Total on	Total	% fatal-	oi,	Locatio		Separ-	Seat eleva-	Exit door jami	door lami	Egress inter-	folded	MLG tumb under	Grd.	Sev-	re Mod-
	board	ilies	ities	Fveo	Mid	Aft	4.0	lion	blocked	blocked	lerence	aft	body		ere	erale
Floor displace. (Excluding luselage treak) Total – 15	1126	18	1.6	12	1		3	7	5	4		8	1	8	4	4
(2 Fatai) Probabla - 1 (1 Fatai)	63	ę.	9.5			1		, .	1 -		1				<u> </u>   	
Floor displace. (Involving (luselage break) Total – 17 (11 Fatal)	1477	368	24.9	10	7	9	13	9	5	2	4	1		14	7	3
Probable - 3	339	132	38.9	2	2	2	1	2	1						2	
Floor displace. Due to deep water entry Total - 4	254	35	13.8	3	1	1	2	3	2 .		1	1				

FIGURE 8. PASSENGER/CREW COMPARTMENT FLOOR DISPLACEMENT

# ALL TYPES OF ACCIDENTS

WORLD-WIDE JET FLEET - ALL OPERATIONS - 1959-1979

# PROFILE BASED ON:

- 3,000 hours/year
- 8.2 hours/day
- 5 flights/day

# **EXCLUDES:**

- TURBULENCE (INJURY)
- EMERG EVACUATION (INJURY)
- SABOTAGE
- MILITARY ACTION

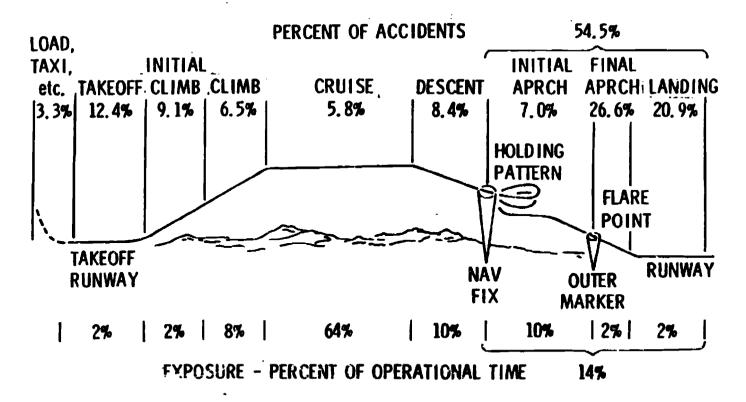


FIGURE 9. ACCIDENTS AS A FUNCTION OF OPERATIONAL TIME

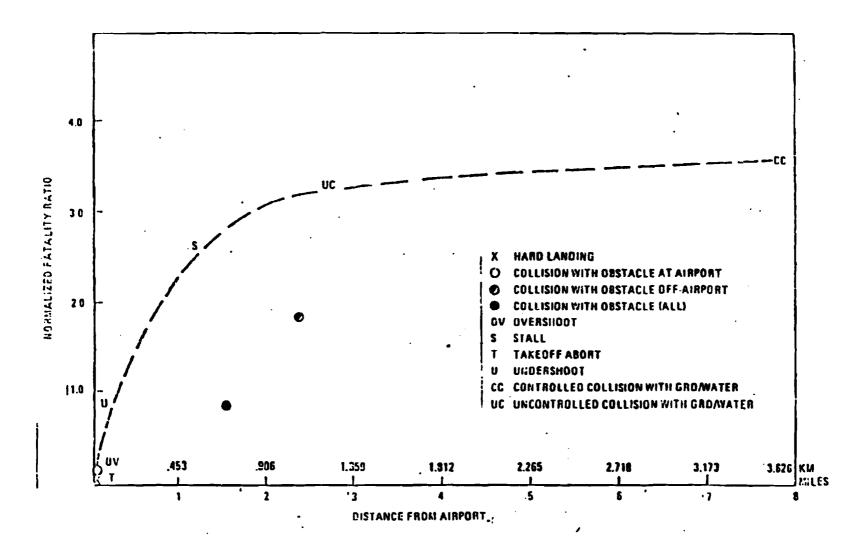


FIGURE 10. NORMALIZED FATALITY RATIO AS A FUNCTION OF DISTANCE FROM AIRPORT FOR CRASH SCENARIOS

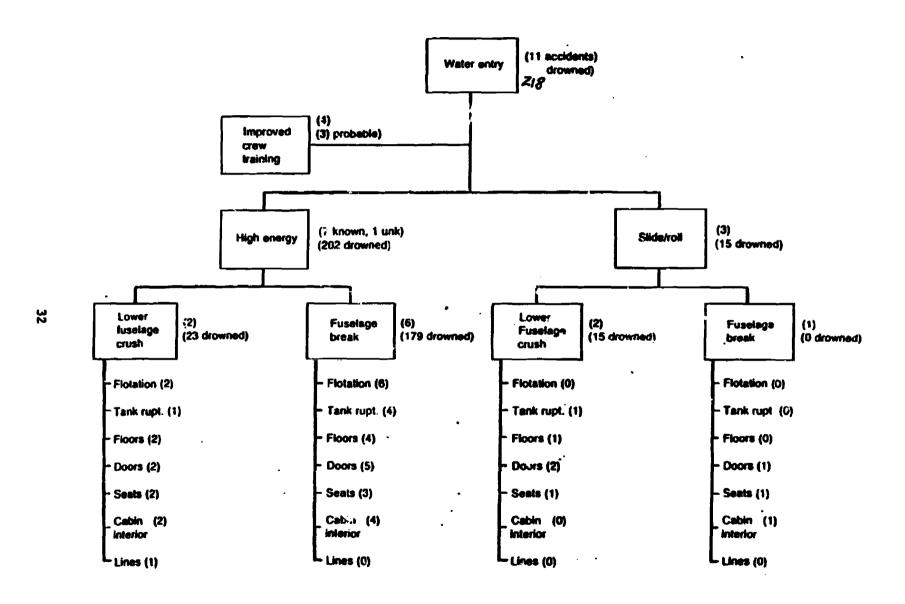


FIGURE 11. ASSESSMENT OF WATER ENTRY ACCIDENTS

4			
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