

Influence of meteorological phenomena on worldwide aircraft accidents in the period 1967-2010

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1 Abstract

2 Based on the information available in databases from relevant national and international
3 organizations from 1967 to 2010, an Aviation Weather Accidents Database (AWAD)
4 was built. According to AWAD, the weather is the primary cause in a growing
5 percentage of annual aircraft accidents: from $\approx 40\%$ in 1967 to almost 50% in 2010.
6 While the absolute number of fatalities and injured people due to aircraft accidents have
7 decreased significantly, the percentage of fatalities and injured people in accidents
8 attributed to the weather shows a slight increase in studied period. The influence of
9 turbulence, clear air turbulence, wind shear, low visibility, rain, icing, snow and storms
10 on aircraft accidents was analysed, considering the different phases of flight, the
11 meteorological seasons of the year, and the spatial distribution over four zones of the
12 Earth. These zones were defined following meteorological and climatological criteria,
13 instead of using the typical political criteria. A major part of the accidents and accidents
14 attributed to the weather occur in latitudes between 12° and 38° in both hemispheres. It
15 is concluded that actions aimed at reducing the risk associated with low visibility, rain
16 and turbulence, in this order, should have priority to achieve the most significant
17 improvements in air transport safety.

18 **Keywords:** accident; aircraft; weather; air transport; fatality; flight phase; geographical
19 location; meteorological phenomena; safety

20

21 1. INTRODUCTION

22 The weather has always been an important factor in aviation safety since the dawn of
23 the air transport industry. To mitigate the safety risks associated with weather hazards in
24 the different phases of flight, state-of-the-art aircraft incorporate a variety of systems
25 and sensors, including de-icing systems, weather radars, etc. These airborne systems, in
26 combination with other systems (*e.g.*, Global Navigation Satellite Systems, Instrument
27 Landing Systems) and services (*e.g.*, the provision of frequently updated, accurate
28 weather forecasts) have allowed a significant and continued reduction in the ratio of
29 accidents and incidents per number of aircraft operations. Thanks to this, aviation has
30 become the first ultra-safe system in the transport history (ICAO, 2009).

31 Despite all the safety improvements, the weather is still today a major cause of aviation
32 accidents and incidents. Namely, according to statistics from the USA Federal Aviation
33 Administration (FAA), the weather was the primary cause of 23% of all the aviation
34 accidents in USA in 2012 (FAA, 2013). In addition, the weather has been responsible
35 for an increasing percentage of flight delays over the last decades, up to, for instance,
36 approximately 70% of the delays in the USA National Airspace System (NAS) in 2012
37 (FAA, 2013). Moreover, the total economic impact of the weather in 2013 was
38 estimated in \$3 billion, including costs of property damage, injuries to people, delays
39 and associated increases in aircraft operating costs (FAA, 2013).

40 The meteorological phenomena and atmospheric conditions that are hazards with the
41 potential of causing aircraft accidents are well known. However, to the authors'
42 knowledge, there are only a few works aimed at establishing the relative contributions
43 of the various meteorological phenomena to weather-related aircraft accidents, while
44 considering also the phases of flight. Namely, on one side, Luers and Haines (Luers *et*
45 *al.*, 1983) studied the effects of heavy rain on aircraft, and described how this meteor
46 was responsible for several aircraft accidents. On the other side, Rasmussen *et al.* (2000)
47 analysed five take-off accidents attributed to inappropriate de-icing and low visibility
48 associated with heavy snowfall.

49 Furthermore, to the authors' knowledge there is no previous investigation about the
50 spatial and seasonal distribution of this type of accidents considering the world total air
51 traffic. The works on the influence of weather on aircraft accidents are limited so far to
52 a national or regional scale. For instance, Pike (1988) analysed the damage to aircraft
53 and injuries to people in the UK from 1977 to 1986. In total, 1926 accidents were
54 studied, 432 of which (*i.e.*, 22.4%) were related to the weather. From 1967 to 1976,
55 there were 1776 accidents concerning all powered aircraft in the UK Register, 173 of
56 which (*i.e.*, 9.7%) were related to the weather. Shao *et al.* (2013) examined the factors
57 involved in aircraft accidents in Taiwan from 1985 to 2011, including weather
58 conditions during take-off, landing and ground operations.

59 The objective of this work was to integrate in one database the information about
60 worldwide aircraft accidents from 1967 to 2010 available in databases from relevant
61 national and international organizations. On the other hand, based on these data, the
62 contribution of several meteorological phenomena to aircraft accidents was analysed in-
63 depth. In particular, we analysed the influence of turbulence, clear air turbulence (CAT),
64 low visibility (caused by fog, heavy rain or snowfall), rain, icing, snow and storms (see
65 Annex A). This analysis considers the different phases of flight (*i.e.*, take-off, climb,
66 cruise, descent and landing, as described in Annex B), the meteorological seasons of the
67 year, and the spatial distribution over four zones of the Earth. These zones were defined
68 following meteorological and climatological criteria, instead of using the typical
69 political criteria for classification of the location of the accident (*i.e.*, classification
70 considering the country where the accident occurred).

71

72 **2. METHODOLOGY**

73 The International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) states that an accident is “an
74 occurrence associated with the operation of an aircraft which takes place between the
75 time any person boards the aircraft with the intention of flight until such time as all such
76 persons have disembarked, in which:

- 77 a) a person is fatally or seriously injured (except when the injuries are from natural
78 causes, self-inflicted or inflicted by other persons, or when the injuries are to
79 stowaways hiding outside the areas normally available to the passengers and
80 crew);

- 81 b) the aircraft sustains damage or structural failure (except for engine failure or
82 damage, when the damage is limited to the engine, its cowlings or accessories;
83 or for damage limited to propellers, wing tips, antennas, tires, brakes, fairings,
84 small dents or puncture holes in the aircraft skin); or
85 c) the aircraft is missing or is completely inaccessible”.

86 On the other side, an incident is “an occurrence, other than an accident, associated with
87 the operation of an aircraft which affects or could affect the safety of operation” (ICAO,
88 2001). In the analyses as part of our investigation, only accidents are considered.

89 A database named the Aviation Weather Accidents Database (AWAD) was created *ad*
90 *hoc* for this investigation, containing information about worldwide aircraft accidents
91 from 1967 to 2010 for which the primary cause has been established to be the weather.
92 Aircraft accidents are generally caused by a chain and/or combination of multiple
93 factors. The final contribution of each factor to the accident occurrence is quantified in
94 the corresponding accident investigation. Notwithstanding this, for the sake of
95 simplicity, aircraft accidents for which the investigation established that the primary
96 cause was the weather are hereafter termed “weather-caused accidents”.

97 AWAD was built from information in databases of several national and international
98 organizations (from now on named “primary databases”). Namely, we used the
99 databases from the ICAO, *i.e.*, the Accident/Incident Data Reporting (ADREP) system
100 (ICAO, 2013), the FAA (FAA, 2013), the USA National Transportation Safety Board
101 (NTSB, 2013), the Civil Aviation Authority of New Zealand (CAA of New Zealand,
102 2013) and Transport Canada (TC, 2013). Furthermore, the information obtained from
103 these organizations was crosschecked with that available in the websites of the Aviation
104 Safety Network (Aviation Safety Network, 2013), AirSafe (AirSafe, 2013), AirDisaster
105 (AirDisaster, 2013), the Cabin Safety Research Technical Group (CSRTG, 2013), and
106 the Aircraft Crashes Record Office (ACRO, 2013).

107 Despite the rigorousness of all these organizations in reporting about the accidents in
108 their records, the information related to a given accident is not always totally coincident,
109 *i.e.*, it is not uncommon to observe discrepancies in, for instance, the reported number of
110 fatalities or injured people, or even the causes of the accident. We decided that AWAD
111 would include only those accidents for which the same information is reported in all the
112 primary databases; in particular, the type of aircraft, the date and location of the

113 accident, the number of passengers, the number of fatalities and injured people, the
114 flight phase, the atmospheric conditions and the causes of the accident. This is
115 necessary to ensure the quality and veracity of the information in AWAD. An
116 unfortunate consequence is that the number of weather-caused accidents included in
117 AWAD and considered in this research may then be smaller than the actual number of
118 weather-caused accidents, since some of these may have been excluded due to
119 discrepancies in the reported information in one or more primary databases. In addition,
120 the following criteria were established with the purpose of analysing only accidents
121 involving commercial civil aviation aircraft: only flights under Instrument Flight Rules
122 (IFR) of turbine-engined, fixed-wing aircraft, with maximum certificated take-off mass
123 over 2250 kg (ICAO, 2001) and 19 passenger seats or more, were considered. Hence,
124 finally, 1099 weather-caused accidents were analysed in the present work, from 2686
125 aircraft accidents reported in the primary databases. In any case, the studied sample is
126 large enough so that our analysis features sufficient statistical validity.

127 For all the primary databases, the data records begin in 1967, year in which the
128 amendment to the ICAO Annex 13 to the Chicago Convention entitled “Communication
129 procedures for sending aircraft accident notification” became effective and applicable.
130 Therefore, the data records in AWAD also begin in 1967. Particularly, these records
131 contain information like, *inter alia*, the number of fatalities and injured people, the
132 flight phase, the meteorological season and the date and location of the accident.

133 An important innovation and distinctive feature is that, while the primary databases
134 refer simply to the day, month, year, and country in which the accident occurred, in
135 AWAD the date and location are referenced following meteorological criteria to
136 facilitate a better understanding of the influence of the weather. Namely, for classifying
137 the location of the accident, four climate zones were defined based on the position of the
138 Ferrel, Hadley and Polar cells in the General Atmospheric Circulation. Particularly,
139 Zone 1 is the Equatorial area, *i.e.*, latitude within $\pm 12^\circ$, where prevailing winds from the
140 North and the South converge, causing strong vertical air currents and deep convections
141 in the atmosphere. Zone 2 corresponds to latitudes between 12° and 38° in both
142 hemispheres, characterized by persistent high pressures, where subsidence dominates at
143 low altitudes. Zone 3 corresponds to latitudes between 38° and 64° in both hemispheres,
144 characterized by low pressures and large-scale synoptic fronts. Finally, Zone 4
145 corresponds to high latitudes (between 64° and the respective Pole in both hemispheres).

146 For classifying the date of the accident, the meteorological seasons corresponding to the
147 Northern Hemisphere were used, *i.e.*, the spring corresponds to March, April and May
148 (autumn in the Southern Hemisphere), the following three consecutive months
149 correspond to the summer (winter in the Southern Hemisphere), and so on.

150

151 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

152 The information in AWAD about worldwide aircraft accidents for which the primary
153 cause has been established to be the weather was analysed from different perspectives: 1)
154 to identify trends in the period 1967-2010, 2) to determine the effect of various
155 meteorological phenomena depending on the flight phase, and 3) to establish the spatial
156 and seasonal distribution of aircraft accidents following meteorological criteria.

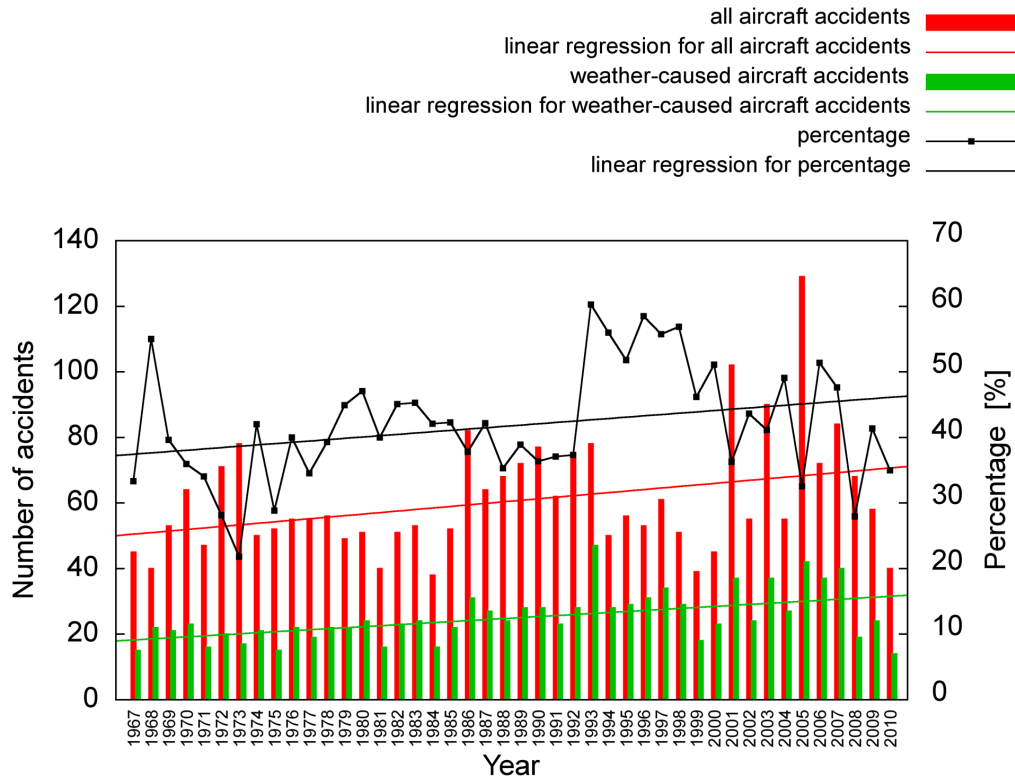
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158 **3.1 Trends related to weather-caused accidents in the period 1967-2010**

159 One of the most relevant observations derived from the data in AWAD is the evolution
160 of the worldwide annual total number of accidents and the annual number of weather-
161 caused accidents from 1967 to 2010, which are shown in Figure 1, together with the
162 annual percentage of the latter number respect to the former. The linear regressions of
163 the data in Figure 1 indicate that all these numbers have grown in the studied period (in
164 part due to the relatively large number of accidents that occurred in 2001, 2003, 2005
165 and 2007). The aviation safety thinking and safety reliability have evolved significantly
166 in this period, spanning across three different eras: the technical era (before 1969), the
167 human era (1970-1995) and the era of organization (from 1996 to present day). This
168 way, the air transport has evolved from a fragile system to a safe one, and ultimately to
169 an ultra-safe system, in less than a century (ICAO, 2009). The safety standards required
170 by ICAO for the air transport industry have been kept constant over the last decades
171 below one catastrophic event per 10 million cycles (ICAO, 2009), while the worldwide
172 air traffic (*i.e.*, the absolute number of flights) has increased dramatically. Hence,
173 consequently, it is normal to expect the annual absolute number of accidents to increase,
174 and this is exactly what has occurred over the years (see Figure 1). Remarkably, the
175 annual absolute number of weather-caused accidents has increased comparatively faster

176 (i.e., the percentage of annual weather-caused accidents has increased noticeably from
 177 1967 to 2010, from $\approx 40\%$ to almost 50% , as shown in Figure 1).

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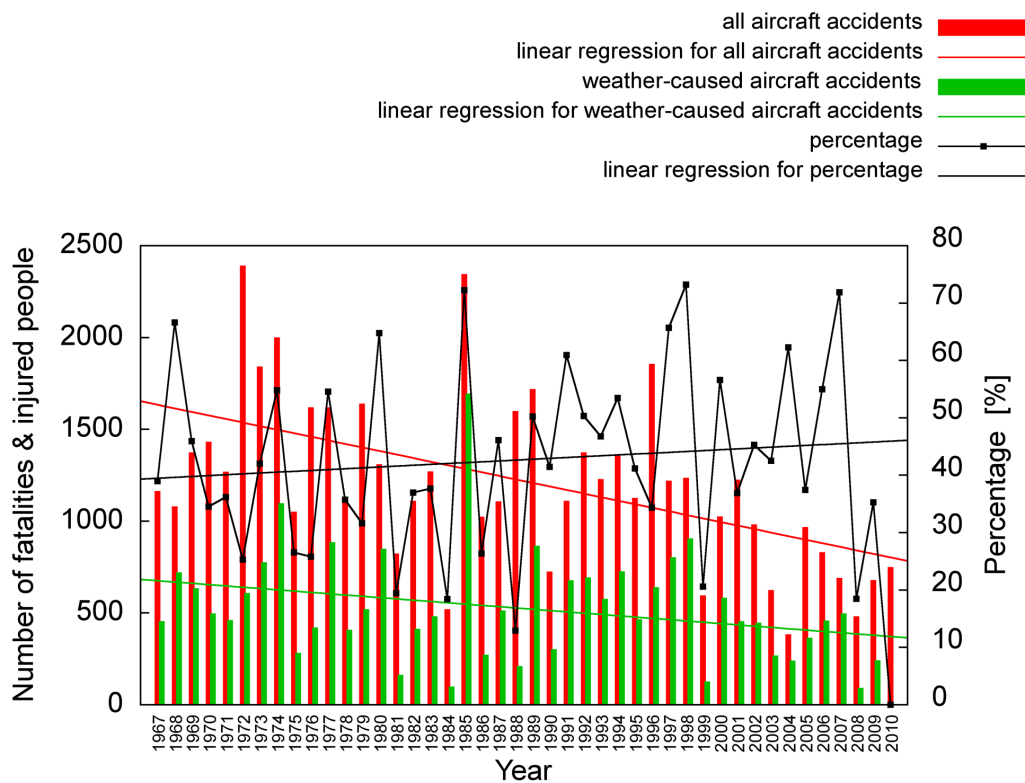


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180 **Figure 1** Worldwide annual number of aircraft accidents and annual number of weather-caused
 181 aircraft accidents from 1967 to 2010, and percentage of the latter number respect to the former.

182

183 Figure 2 shows the annual number of fatalities and injured people corresponding to all
 184 aircraft accidents worldwide, and to weather-caused accidents only, in the period 1967-
 185 2010. In both cases, the linear regressions of the data show a progressive decrease in the
 186 number of fatalities and injured people in the last decades. However, the decrease in the
 187 number of fatalities and injured people associated with weather-caused accidents is
 188 comparatively less significant. Therefore, the percentage of the contribution of weather-
 189 caused accidents shows a slight increase. Thus, from Figure 1 and Figure 2, it seems
 190 that the aviation safety improvements from 1967 to 2010 have had a smaller effect on
 191 weather-caused aircraft accidents compared to other accidents, i.e., the number of
 192 weather-caused accidents and the associated fatalities and injured people have been less
 193 sensitive to those improvements.



195

196 **Figure 2** Total number of annual fatalities and injured people in all aircraft accidents worldwide,
 197 and in weather-caused accidents only, from 1967 to 2010, and percentage of the latter number
 198 respect to the former.

199

200 **3.2 Distribution of weather-caused aircraft accidents according to the flight** 201 **phase in which the accident occurred**

202 Aircrafts operate in all the layers of the troposphere, from the lowest levels (take-off
 203 and landing) and medium levels (climb and descent), to the highest levels (cruise). This
 204 section analyses the influence of meteorological phenomena in weather-caused aircraft
 205 accidents depending on the flight phase. Particularly, Figure 3 shows, for each of the
 206 flight phases, the relative contributions of various meteorological phenomena to
 207 weather-caused aircraft accidents worldwide from 1967 to 2010. For instance, it shows
 208 that turbulence has a significant impact in those flight phases at medium and high levels
 209 of the troposphere. Namely, it is responsible for around 19%, 66% and 57% of the
 210 weather-caused accidents in the climb, cruise and descent phases, respectively; while in
 211 the phases at low levels, it is responsible for significantly less of the accidents (10% and
 212 3% for the take-off and landing phases, respectively).

213 In the primary databases, CAT is considered separately from other types of turbulence
214 and so it is in AWAD. CAT is characteristic of high flight levels near the upper limit of
215 the troposphere, but it is responsible for much less weather-caused accidents compared
216 to turbulence: only 4%, 13% and 7% of this type of accidents in the climb, cruise and
217 descent phases, respectively (as expected, CAT has no impact at low levels, *i.e.*, during
218 take-off and landing). The reason for these low contributions is that CAT can often be
219 avoided because, on the one hand, pilots inform of CAT encounters by means of pilot
220 reports of turbulence (PIREP). On the other hand, because there are operational methods
221 for CAT forecasting, like the Graphical Turbulence Guidance (GTG), which currently
222 flight dispatchers can use when preparing the flight plans of commercial aviation
223 aircrafts, aside from other more advanced methods under development (Sharman *et al.*
224 2000; McCann *et al.* 2012).

225 Low visibility (caused by fog, heavy rain or snowfall) is a major factor in weather-
226 caused accidents, especially in those flight phases for which the terrain is much closer to
227 the aircraft, or the aircraft flies in more congested air spaces like the vicinity of
228 aerodromes. In particular, low visibility is responsible for around 65%, 53%, 17%, 21%
229 and 48% of the weather-caused accidents in the take-off, climb, cruise, descent and
230 landing phases, respectively.

231 Rain is also more likely to affect aircraft flying at low levels of the troposphere. In
232 particular, rain is the second major cause of weather-caused accidents in the landing
233 phase, with around 34%, while for the take-off, climb and descent phases, the influence
234 drops to around 17%, 11% and 5%, respectively. As regards to weather-caused
235 accidents in the cruise phase, the influence of rain is minimal (only around 3%).

236 Storms (including lightning and heavy winds) have rather testimonial impact in the
237 take-off and cruise phases: only 3% and 0.5% of the weather-caused accidents are
238 attributed to storms in these phases, respectively. On the other side, the percentage of
239 weather-caused accidents associated with storms is roughly uniform for the other flight
240 phases (between 5 and 7%). An explanation might be that severe storms are often
241 associated with cumulonimbus, which can be found practically in any layer of the
242 troposphere, and consequently aircrafts are exposed to this hazard in all flight phases. In
243 general, the contributions of storms to weather-caused accidents are low probably
244 because storms are reported by weather forecasting services and other affected aircraft,

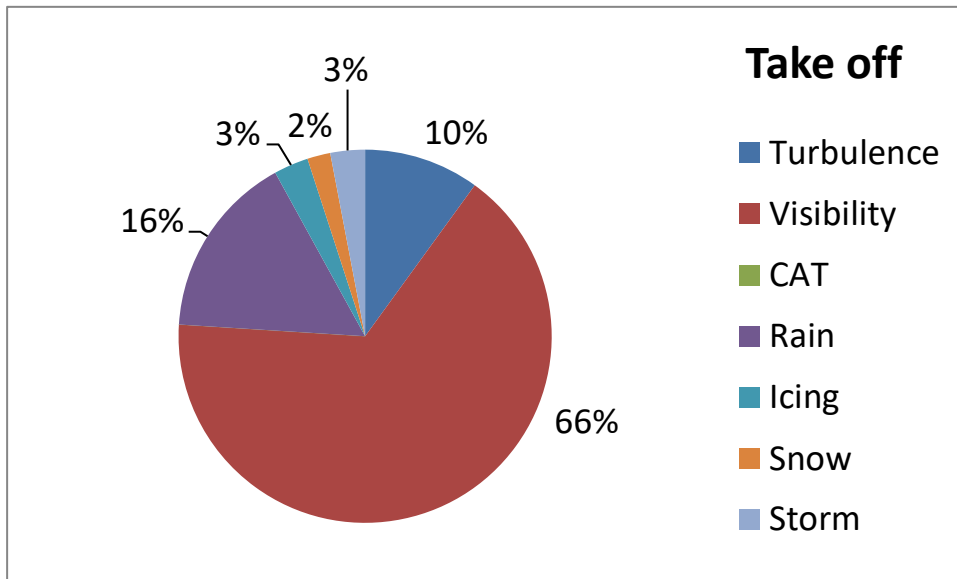
245 and can be detected by airborne weather radars. Thus, aircraft can often dodge storms.
246 Another reason is that aircraft respond generally very well to lightning impacts, which
247 most of the times do not cause high severity damage on the airframe or the avionics.
248 The particularly low contribution of storms to weather-caused accidents in the landing
249 phase is likely thanks to the fact that aircrafts are diverted to alternative airports if a
250 severe storm is affecting the destination airport. The even lower impact of storms in the
251 take-off phase is probably because flight departure is often conveniently delayed if a
252 potentially dangerous storm is affecting the aerodrome of origin.

253 Icing usually affects aircraft flying at medium and high levels of the troposphere
254 because supercooled water drops can form ice on parts of the aircraft at the low
255 temperatures typical of these levels (that can be as low as -60°C), a process that could
256 ultimately cause an accident. Nowadays, the effects of icing have been greatly reduced
257 thanks to de-icing systems in use and the fact that icing areas are thoroughly reported.
258 Thus, for instance, this meteor has a marginal contribution to weather-caused accidents
259 in the cruise and descent phases. Unfortunately, its impact in other flight phases still
260 cannot be neglected. In particular, icing is responsible for around 7% and 9% of the
261 weather-caused accidents in the climb and landing phases. The small contribution of
262 icing in the take-off phase (only 3%) is likely thanks to the additional contribution of
263 the de-icing services provided to aircraft on the ground prior to take-off.

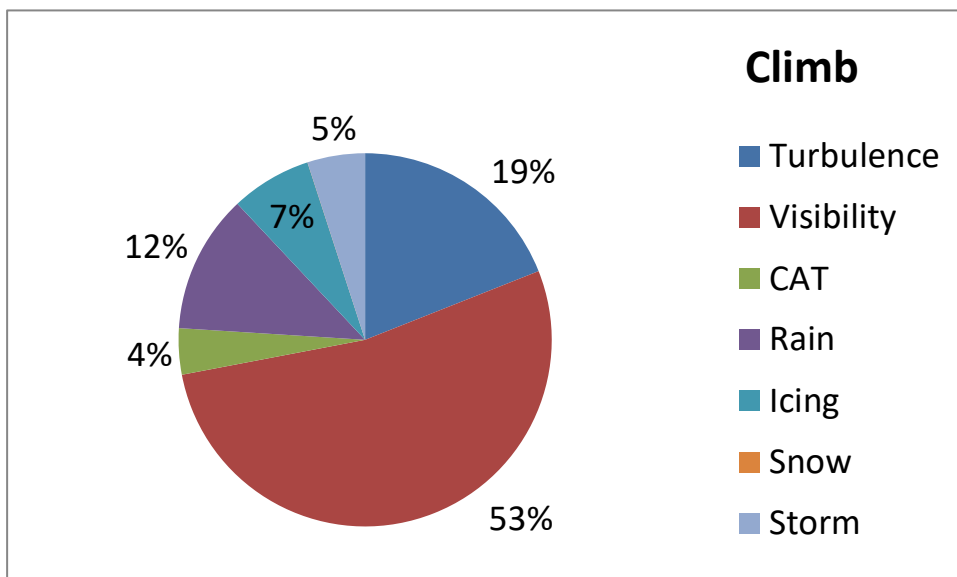
264 Finally, the snow has very low influence in the weather-caused accidents in all the flight
265 phases: it is responsible for only around 2% of the weather-caused accidents in the take-
266 off and descent, and less than 1% in the climb, cruise and landing phases.

267 To sum up, low visibility is the main contributing factor to weather-caused accidents in
268 all flight phases but the cruise and descent, where it is the second major factor after
269 turbulence. Rain is the second major contributing factor in the take-off and landing
270 phases. In the take-off phase, rain (storms) causes 17% (3%) of the weather-caused
271 accidents, while in the landing phase it causes 34% (6%). This suggests that more often
272 the take-off is conveniently delayed due to rain and/or storms, thus preventing the
273 aircraft from being exposed to a high level of risk, while conversely landing under rain
274 and/or storms is unfortunately attempted more than it should, due to low fuel level, etc.

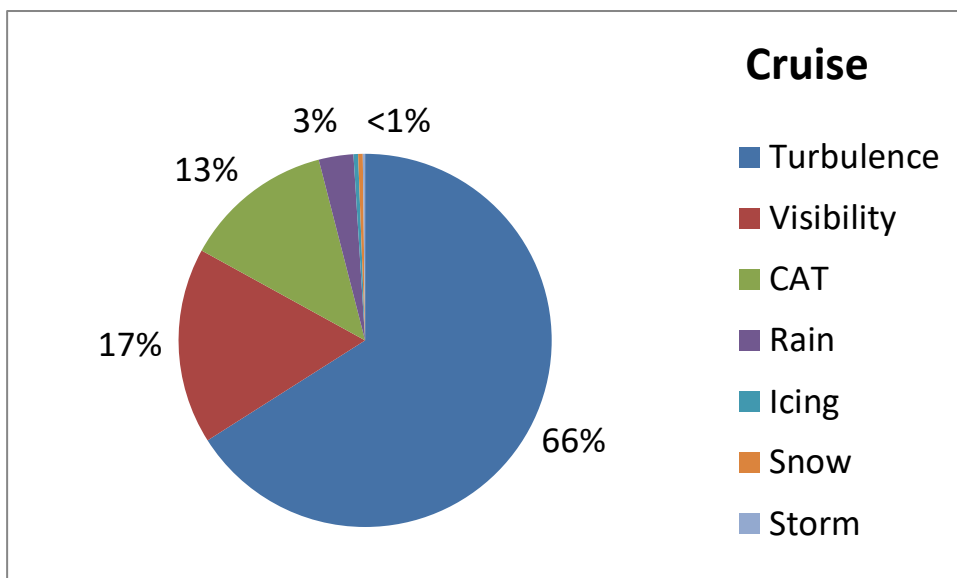
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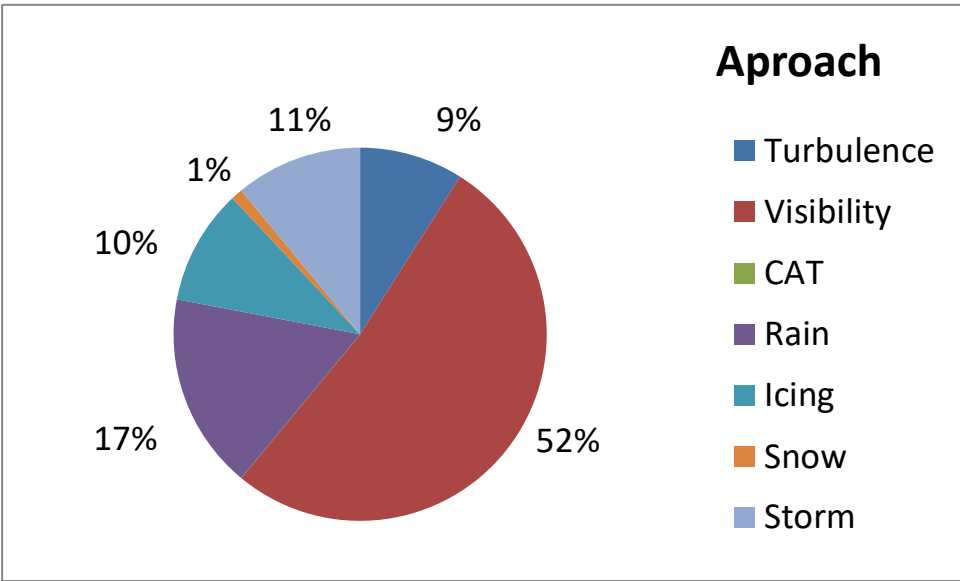
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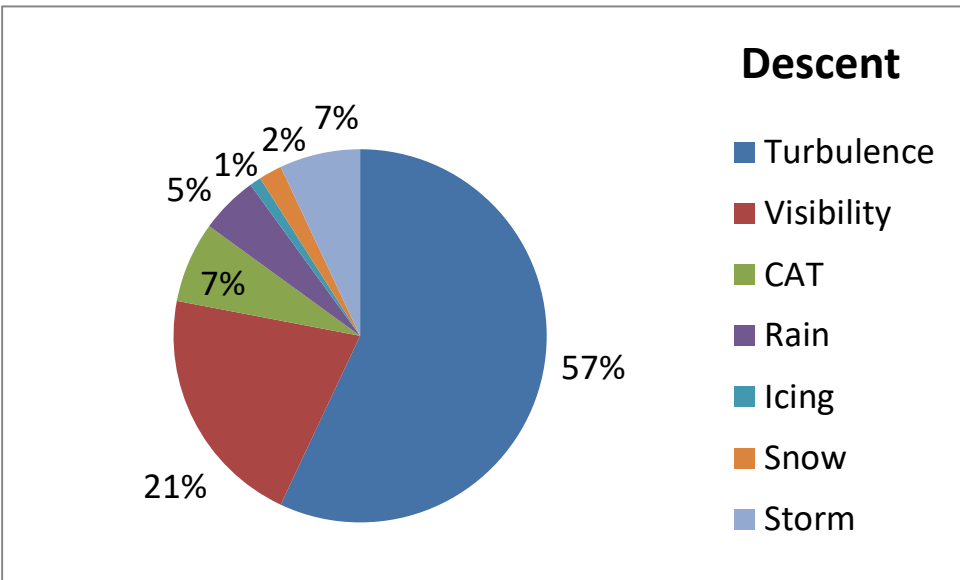
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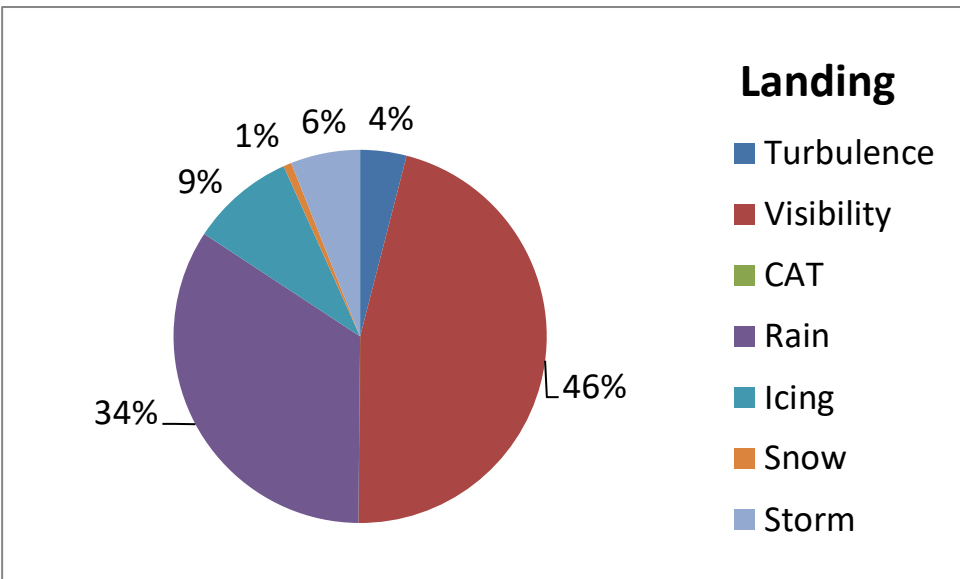
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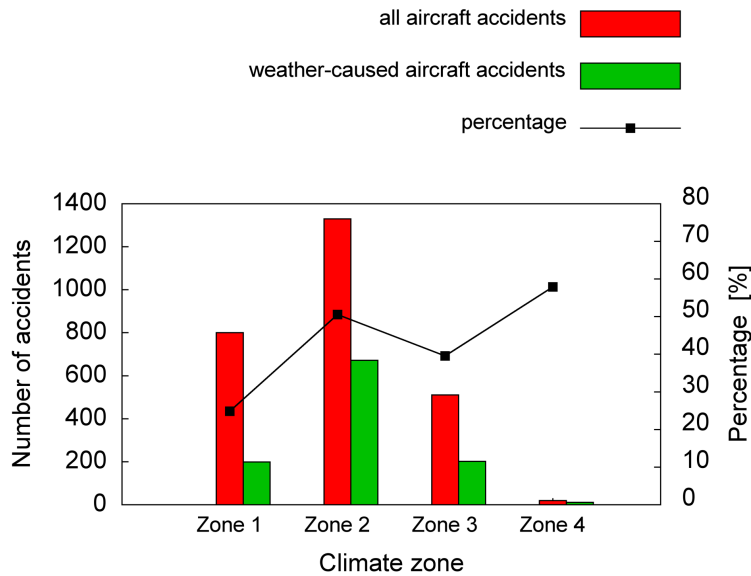
282 **Figure 3** Relative contributions of meteorological phenomena (turbulence, low visibility, CAT,
283 rain, icing, snow and storms) to worldwide weather-caused aircraft accidents from 1967 to 2010,
284 for the various flight phases: a) take-off, b) climb, c) cruise, d) approach, e) descent and f)
285 landing.

286

287 **3.3 Spatial and seasonal distribution of worldwide aircraft accidents**

288 In this section, the spatial and seasonal distribution of worldwide aircraft accidents in
289 the period 1967-2010 is analysed. First, all these accidents were classified considering
290 the location where the accident occurred, in correspondence with the four climate zones
291 defined in Section 2. Figure 4 shows the results of this classification, indicating also the
292 absolute number of weather-caused accidents and the corresponding percentage in
293 relation to the total number of accidents, for each of the zones. The results differ
294 noticeably from one zone to another. This is not due only to the varying affectations
295 associated with each zone, but also to the different traffic volumes in each of the zones.
296 It is remarkable the relatively high percentage of weather-caused accidents for Zone 2
297 (latitudes between 12° and 38°) and for Zone 4 (latitudes between 64° and the respective
298 Pole): 50% and 59%, for a sample size of 1330 and 19 accidents, respectively. For Zone
299 1 (the Equatorial area, *i.e.*, latitudes within $\pm 12^\circ$) and Zone 3 (latitudes between 38° and
300 64°), the percentage of weather-caused accidents is smaller (25% and 39%, for a sample
301 size of 800 and 511 accidents, respectively). The reason for the latter might be that the
302 meteorological phenomena in Zone 1 and Zone 3 are of lower intensity compared to
303 Zone 2 and Zone 4, and/or that other factors causing accidents (not related to the
304 weather) become comparatively more important in the former zones.

305



306

307 **Figure 4** Number of aircraft accidents and number of weather-caused aircraft accidents from
 308 1967 to 2010, and percentage of the latter number respect to the former, for four climate zones
 309 defined in both hemispheres: Zone 1, latitude within $\pm 12^\circ$; Zone 2, latitude between 12° and 38° ;
 310 Zone 3, latitude between 38° and 64° ; and Zone 4, latitude between 64° and the respective Pole.

311

312 Zones 1 and 2 show the largest number of accidents. The reason is not a higher air
 313 traffic volume in these zones, but the fact that in Zones 1 and 2 there is a larger
 314 proportion of developing countries, where, for instance, aircrafts are generally older and
 315 the radio-navigation equipment and airport infrastructures for instrument approach and
 316 landing may not be as advanced as in other countries. That is, agents in these
 317 developing countries, although compliant with ICAO standards and recommended
 318 practices (SARPS), like agents of all ICAO Member States, do not usually aim at and
 319 achieve target safety standards as far beyond the ICAO SARPS as agents in developed
 320 countries do. For example, on one hand, aircrafts from Caribbean airlines have
 321 traditionally been involved in a comparatively large proportion of accidents. On the
 322 other hand, there is a smaller proportion of aircraft, cabin crew and airports certified for
 323 instrument precision approaches, leading to a greater number of non-precision
 324 approaches, and thus low visibility implies a higher level of risk. The figures reported in
 325 Section 1 suggest a smaller relevance of the weather in accidents in developed countries
 326 (thus, apparently, the meteorological phenomena entail a lower level of risk there). For
 327 instance, the weather was the primary cause of 23% of all the aviation accidents in USA
 328 in 2012, and in UK it was responsible for 9.7% (in 1967-1976) and 22.43% (in 1977-

329 1986) of the accidents, compared to a growing contribution of 40% to 50% if
330 considering the accidents worldwide, or a contribution of 50% in Zone 2.

331 Figure 5 shows the relative contributions of the various meteorological phenomena to
332 the weather-caused aircraft accidents in each of the four defined climate zones, in the
333 period 1967-2010. In Zone 1, low visibility (with 41%), rain (with 31%) and storms
334 (with 13%) are responsible for around 85% of the weather-caused accidents. A reason
335 might be that Zone 1 is associated with the Inter-Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ). In
336 the ITCZ, prevailing winds from the North and South converge, causing strong vertical
337 air currents and deep convections in the atmosphere, *e.g.*, deep clouds develop forming
338 deep cumulonimbus. These are often associated with severe thunderstorms and heavy
339 rainfall and, consequently, low visibility. Turbulences, probably associated with the
340 cloud dynamics mentioned before, are responsible for around 14% of the weather-
341 caused accidents in this zone. The contributions of CAT, icing and snow are residual (as
342 expected, since in Zone 1 snow is very infrequent).

343 Zone 2 corresponds to the high-pressure belt, characterised by subsidence, where
344 precipitation is inhibited. Consequently, weather-caused aircraft accidents associated
345 with rain decrease to around 11%, while those associated with turbulence increase to
346 around 30%, probably due to stronger and more frequent low-level turbulence due to a
347 warmer soil. The reason is that clear sky is dominant in Zone 2, such that the intense
348 radiation can heat the surface more significantly. Thus, the consequent horizontal and
349 vertical turbulences are probably behind this increased contribution of turbulence to
350 weather-caused accidents. Moreover, there is a significant increase in weather-caused
351 accidents attributed to snow, reaching around 7%. This meteor is unusual in Zone 2.
352 Therefore, many aerodromes and airports are probably not sufficiently well prepared to
353 manage the effects of this meteor, and thus the level of risk increases significantly when
354 snowing. Storms (mainly formed by deep convection) are associated with around 5% of
355 the weather-caused accidents (the influence of storms in this zone, where clear skies
356 dominate, decreases respect to Zone 1), while low visibility is associated with around
357 30%. The contribution of icing is again marginal, as expected.

358 Zone 3 corresponds to mid-latitudes, characterized by low-pressure systems and large-
359 scale synoptic fronts. In this zone, rain and snow are responsible for around 19% and
360 14% of the weather-caused aircraft accidents, respectively, while low visibility and

361 turbulence are responsible for around 12% and 10%, respectively. The contributions of
362 CAT and icing are again marginal. Finally, storms are the most significant factor,
363 accounting for around 42% of the weather-caused accidents in this region. The high
364 relevance of storms is due to the prevalence of large-scale synoptic fronts.

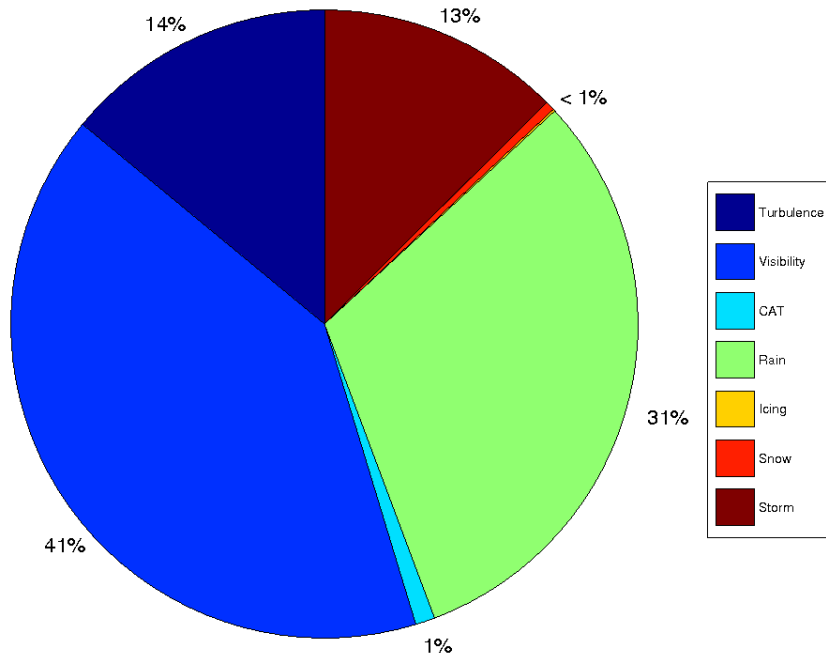
365 Focusing now on Zone 4, which corresponds to the highest latitudes, low visibility and
366 rain are responsible for around 53% and 36% of the weather-caused aircraft accidents,
367 respectively. It is important to remark that snow must be a frequent meteor affecting
368 many aerodromes in Zone 4, but surprisingly, snow has a very small contribution
369 (compared to, for example, Zone 2) and icing has never been reported as the primary
370 cause of any accident. This is probably due to the thorough *ad hoc* safety systems that
371 must be implemented in the aerodromes in Zone 4 and the aircraft that operate there, so
372 frequently affected by snow and icing, and due to the low number of operations in this
373 zone, especially in the winter, and mostly in the Northern Hemisphere). Finally, the
374 contributions of turbulence and CAT are residual.

375 To sum up, in all the zones but Zone 3, low visibility (caused by fog, heavy rain or
376 snowfall) is the main contributing factor to weather-caused accidents, having a similar
377 relative contribution; namely, being responsible for around 41% to 53% of the weather-
378 caused accidents in these zones. Rain is the second major contributing factor in all the
379 zones but Zone 2, being responsible for around 19% to 36% of the weather-caused
380 accidents in these zones. Therefore, from a global perspective and considering the
381 findings in Section 3.2, efforts devoted to improve or further implement procedures and
382 technologies that reduce the risk associated with low visibility and rain should have
383 priority. Moreover, it would seem appropriate also to act to reduce the risk associated
384 with turbulence, particularly for flights in Zone 2. The reasons are the significant
385 contribution of turbulence to accidents in Zone 2, the very large number of accidents
386 occurring in this zone, and the fact that turbulence is the main contributing factor to
387 weather-caused accidents in the cruise and descent phases.

388

a

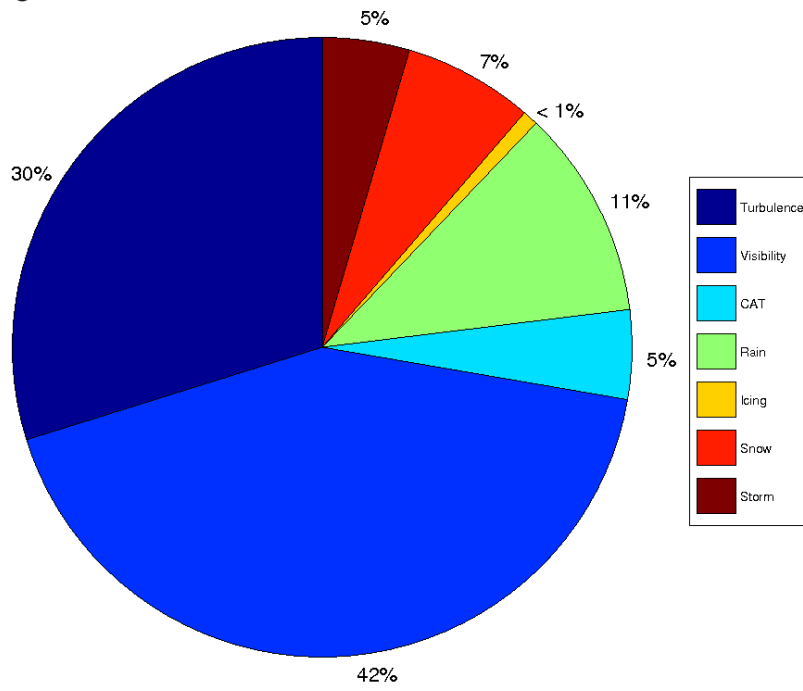
Zone 1



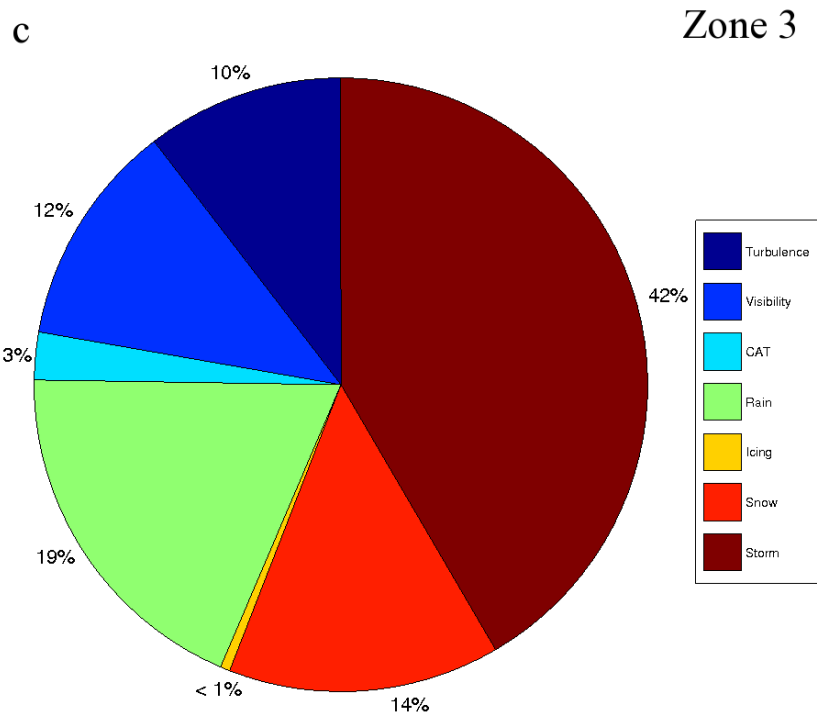
389

b

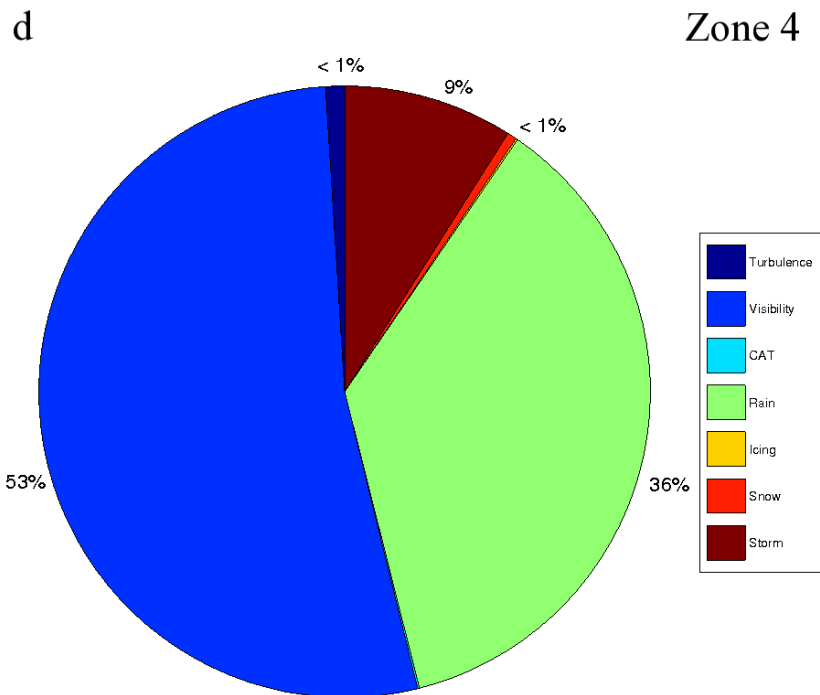
Zone 2



390



391



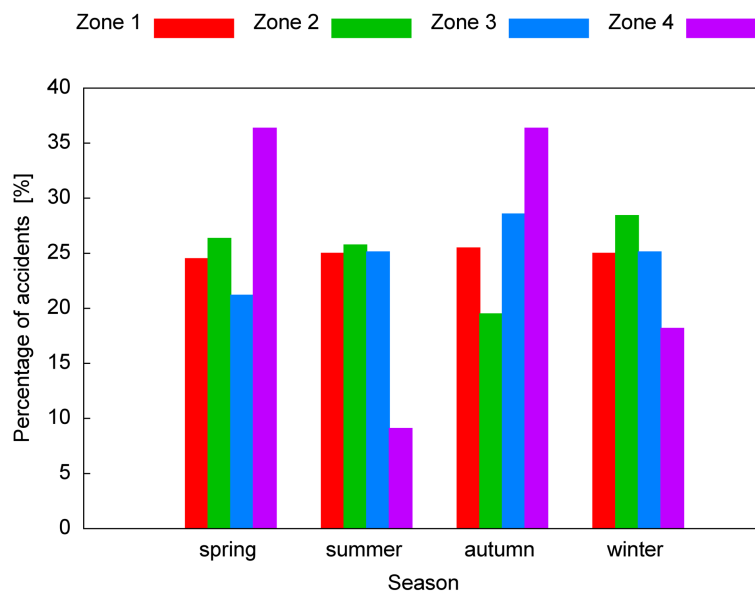
392

393 **Figure 5** Relative contributions of meteorological phenomena (turbulence, low visibility, CAT,
 394 rain, icing, snow and storms) to worldwide weather-caused aircraft accidents from 1967 to 2010,
 395 for four climate zones defined in both hemispheres: a) Zone 1, latitude within $\pm 12^\circ$; b) Zone 2,
 396 latitude between 12° and 38° ; c) Zone 3, latitude between 38° and 64° ; and d) Zone 4, latitude
 397 between 64° and the respective Pole.

398

399 Figure 6 shows the distribution of weather-caused accidents depending on both the
 400 location and the meteorological season in which the accident occurred. Zone 1 shows a
 401 uniform distribution, *i.e.*, there is approximately the same number of weather-caused
 402 accidents in each of the seasons (around 25%). This is likely because in Zone 1 the
 403 weather shows no significant differences throughout the seasons, other than maybe
 404 more rainfall in the rainy season compared to the dry season. Zone 2 shows a similar
 405 percentage of weather-caused accidents in the spring and in the summer (around 26%),
 406 slightly more in the winter (around 28%), and significantly less in the autumn (around
 407 19%). For Zone 3, the autumn shows the largest percentage of weather-caused accidents
 408 (around 28%), while the spring shows the lowest (around 21%), and the summer and
 409 winter show a similar percentage (around 25%). Finally, for Zone 4, 36% of the
 410 weather-caused accidents occur in the spring and another 36% in the autumn, while only
 411 9% occur in the summer and 18% in the winter. This may be due to the large differences
 412 in the climate between seasons in Zone 4. However, the number of accidents in Zone 4
 413 is so small (19 accidents only) that these conclusions are not statistically significant.

414



415

416 **Figure 6** Percentage of weather-caused aircraft accidents in each meteorological season
 417 (referenced to the Northern Hemisphere) from 1967 to 2010, for four climate zones defined in
 418 both hemispheres: a) Zone 1, latitude within $\pm 12^\circ$; b) Zone 2, latitude between 12° and 38° ; c)
 419 Zone 3, latitude between 38° and 64° ; and d) Zone 4, latitude between 64° and the respective Pole.

420

421 **4. CONCLUSIONS**

422 A database (AWAD) was created based on the reports about aircraft accidents from
423 relevant organizations from 1967 to 2010. The information in AWAD was analysed
424 statistically. The results show that the weather is the primary cause in a growing
425 percentage of annual accidents (from $\approx 40\%$ in 1967 to almost 50% in 2010). While the
426 absolute number of fatalities and injured people due to aircraft accidents have decreased
427 significantly, the percentage of fatalities and injured people associated with accidents
428 attributed to the weather shows a slight increase. From the study of the contribution to
429 these accidents by each meteorological phenomena in the different flight phases, these
430 conclusions are drawn:

- 431 1. Low visibility is the main factor in weather-caused accidents in all flight phases
432 but the cruise and descent, where it is the second major factor after turbulence.
- 433 2. Rain is the second major factor in weather-caused accidents in the take-off and
434 landing phases, *i.e.*, it has a large influence on close-to-ground operations.
- 435 3. It appears that take-off is often conveniently delayed due to rain and/or storms,
436 while landing under rain and/or storms is attempted more than it should.
- 437 4. Turbulence and CAT are especially relevant at medium and high flight levels.
- 438 5. Storms, snow and icing have a rather testimonial impact in most phases.

439 The location of the accidents was classified based on four zones defined following
440 meteorological and climatological criteria. From the study of the contribution of each
441 meteorological phenomena in these zones, and the consideration of the meteorological
442 season in which the accident occurred, these conclusions are drawn:

- 443 1. In the Equatorial and polar zones, low visibility and rain are by far the
444 phenomena responsible for more aircraft accidents attributed to the weather.
- 445 2. The Inter-Tropical Convergence Zone, characterized by strong vertical air
446 currents and deep convection, is in the Equatorial zone. This explains the
447 significant impact of low visibility, rain, storms and turbulence in this zone.
- 448 3. In the polar zones, the weather is responsible for around 60% of the accidents.
- 449 4. A major part of the accidents and weather-caused accidents occur in latitudes
450 between 12° and 38° in both hemispheres (a high-pressure belt where subsidence
451 dominates at low altitudes). Low visibility and turbulence are the major
452 contributing factors to weather-caused accidents in this zone. Surprisingly, the

453 snow is responsible for a much larger percentage of weather-caused accidents in
454 this zone compared to the polar zones.

455 5. In the regions with latitudes between 38° and 64° in both hemispheres, where
456 low-pressure systems and large-scale synoptic fronts are usual, storms and rain
457 are the main contributing phenomena to weather-caused accidents.

458 6. In all but the polar zones, the weather-caused accidents can be considered as
459 uniformly distributed in the various meteorological seasons.

460 Summarizing, the weather has a major impact in the safety of the air transport industry
461 and, apparently, the aviation safety improvements from 1967 to 2010 have had a smaller
462 effect on weather-caused aircraft accidents (and the associated fatalities and injured
463 people) compared to other accidents. To achieve the most significant improvements in
464 air transport safety, it appears that actions aimed at reducing the risk associated with
465 low visibility, rain and turbulence, in this order, should have priority.

466

467 **ANNEX A – Occurrence categories**

468 Turbulence refers to in-flight turbulence encounters (ECCAIRS, 2013a). Remarks:

- 469 • Includes turbulence encountered by aircraft when operating around or at
470 buildings, structures and objects, and encounters with turbulence in clear air,
471 mountain wave, mechanical, and/or cloud-associated turbulence.
- 472 • Wake vortex encounters are also included here.
- 473 • Flights into windshear or thunderstorm-related turbulence are coded as storm.

474 Storms refer to flight into windshear or thunderstorm (ECCAIRS, 2013a). Remarks:

- 475 • Includes flight into windshear and/or thunderstorm-related weather, and in-flight
476 events related to hail, events related to lightning strikes and events related to
477 heavy rain (not just in a thunderstorm).
- 478 • Icing and turbulence encounters are coded separately (see icing (below) and
479 turbulence (above)).

480 Icing refers to accumulation of snow, ice, freezing rain, or frost on aircraft surfaces that
481 adversely affects aircraft control or performance (ECCAIRS, 2013a). Remarks:

- 482 • Includes accumulations that occur inflight or on the ground.
- 483 • Carburettor and induction icing events are coded in the fuel-related category.
- 484 • Windscreen icing which restricts visibility is also covered here.
- 485 • Includes ice accumulation on sensors, antennae, and other external surfaces.
- 486 • Includes ice accumulation on external surfaces including those directly in front
- 487 of the engine intakes.

488

489 **ANNEX B – Event phases**

490 Flight phases adopted for classification of the aircraft accidents (ECCAIRS, 2013b):

491 **Standing:** “The phase of flight prior to pushback or taxi, or after arrival, at the gate,
492 ramp, or parking area, while the aircraft is stationary”.

493 **Taxi:** “The phase of flight in which movement of an aircraft on the surface of an
494 aerodrome under its own power occurs, excluding take-off and landing”.

495 **Take-off:** “The phase of flight from the application of take-off power until reaching the
496 first prescribed power reduction, or until reaching the Visual Flight Rules (VFR) pattern
497 or 1000 feet (300 metres) above runway end elevation, whichever comes first or the
498 termination (abort) of the take-off”.

499 **Climb to cruising level or altitude (or simply “climb”, in our analysis):** Instrument
500 Flight Rules (IFR): “The phase of flight from completion of Initial Climb to arrival at
501 initial assigned cruise altitude”.

502 **Cruise:** IFR: “The phase of flight from the top of climb to cruise altitude, or flight level,
503 to the start of the descent toward the destination aerodrome or landing site”.

504 **Normal descent (or simply “descent”, in our analysis):** IFR: “Descent from cruise to
505 either Initial Approach Fix (IAF) or VFR pattern entry”.

506 **Manoeuvring:** “An event involving a phase of flight in which planned low-level flight,
507 or attitude, or planned abnormal attitude, or abnormal acceleration occurs”.

508 **Approach:** IFR: “The phase of flight from the outer marker to the point of transition
509 from nose-low to nose-high attitude immediately prior to the flare above the runway”.

510 **Landing:** “The phase of flight from the point of transition from nose-low to nose-up
511 attitude, immediately before landing (flare), through touchdown and until aircraft exits
512 landing runway, comes to a stop or when power is applied for take-off in the case of a
513 touch-and-go landing, whichever occurs first”.

514

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519

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