

1 **Safety Concept and Quantitative Risk Analysis for US Road Tunnel Projects**

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 The experience from road tunnel incidents in Europe has substantially improved tunnel safety
3 since the late 1990s. Those findings can be applied in road tunnel projects to increase safety and
4 sustainability, and reduce costs, including projects in the US. A holistic safety concept serves as
5 a basis of design for road and structural design, systems and equipment. Hazards are evaluated
6 and assessed, safety goals are defined and measures are evaluated in order of their effectiveness,
7 prioritizing prevention, while also complying with codes and guidelines that focus on fire life
8 safety. A quantitative risk analysis (QRA) is developed based on proven methods and adapted to
9 US road tunnel conditions. The proposed road tunnel QRA approach focuses on accident risks
10 based on statistical data, and on fire risks based on an event tree analysis for different scenarios.
11 Simulations of smoke spread and egress are to be conducted for many critical scenarios under
12 varying initial and boundary conditions and traffic scenarios. The effects of particular safety
13 measures can be evaluated and compared. The QRA is a comprehensive Engineering Analysis
14 for approval by the Authority Having Jurisdiction (AHJ), as required by the governing code
15 NFPA 502.

16

17 **Keywords:** Road Tunnel Safety, Holistic Safety Concept, Quantitative Risk Analysis

1 INTRODUCTION

2 The United States have the largest road network in the world, and abundant experience
3 with road safety in general, but there are relatively few road tunnels. According to the FHWA
4 national tunnel inventory (NTI), there are only approx. 185 road tunnels over 1000 ft (300 m)
5 and only 30 road tunnels in the whole US are over one mile long. In contrast, in Europe there are
6 approximately 4000 road tunnels over 1000 ft and much longer road tunnels than in North
7 America. Major tunnel fire catastrophes in the 1990s and the subsequent development,
8 implementation and operational experience of new road tunnel safety standards, as documented
9 e.g., in World Road Association documents (PIARC, Lit. 4 - 13), has led to substantially
10 improved tunnel safety. The key feature is a risk-based approach that may be applied to increase
11 safety and sustainability, and reduce costs of road tunnel projects also in the US. Safety measures
12 with the highest efficiency may be identified by means of a probabilistic risk assessment, to
13 answer the questions: Is a risk worth the benefit? Are risk mitigation measures worth the
14 resulting risk reduction?

15 The following quote from David Okrent, Professor Emeritus of Engineering and Applied
16 Science at the University of California, Los Angeles and world renowned physicist and expert on
17 nuclear reactor safety (1922 – 2012), brings the argument to the point: ‘... *if our priorities in*
18 *managing risks are wrong, if we are spending the available resources in a way that is not cost-*
19 *effective, we are, in effect, killing people whose premature deaths could be prevented*’ (Lit. 33).

21 SAFETY CONCEPT

22 The safety concept serves as a basis of design for road and structural measures, systems
23 and equipment. Hazards are evaluated and assessed, safety goals are defined and safety measures
24 are evaluated in order of their effectiveness, prioritizing prevention, while also complying with
25 codes and guidelines that focus on fire life safety. A systematic road tunnel hazard analysis
26 approach addresses the following incidents:

- 27 • Collisions
- 28 • Fires
- 29 • Explosions
- 30 • Natural disasters
- 31 • Structural collapse
- 32 • Toxic material release
- 33 and combinations of the above.

34
35 The hazards can be assessed in terms of:

- 36 • Damage to health and life of drivers, maintenance personnel, and emergency services
- 37 • Damage to vehicles
- 38 • Damage to infrastructure (road, structure, equipment)
- 39 • Damage to the environment (e.g., spillage of contaminated fire suppression water)
- 40 • Indirect economic damage, e.g., traffic disruption due to incidents

41
42 Safety goals must be defined and prioritized, such as:

- 43 1. Protect the life and health of motorists and people in and around the tunnel.
- 44 2. Protect the life and health of personnel and responders.
- 45 3. Maintain availability of the tunnel for traffic operation.
- 46 4. Protect assets (vehicles, equipment, roadway, infrastructure, environment)

47

1 Safety measures to achieve the safety goals are prioritized in the order of effectiveness:

- 2 1. Prevention
- 3 2. Mitigation
- 4 3. Evacuation
- 5 4. Rescue

6

7 Collisions impose the most significant risk to drivers on roads. The risk is largely related
8 to driver behavior and vehicle properties, but can be reduced by tunnel safety measures.

9 The probability of a collision or fire hazard on a defined road section is in first order
10 correlated to its length and traffic load, with a correction for increased accident risk of short
11 tunnels due to influence of portal zones (Lit. 8). There is an increased likelihood of collisions in
12 the tunnel portal zones, same as under wide bridges, due to changing light conditions. In
13 contrast, the interior of tunnels provides safe, uniform conditions. Inside a tunnel, drivers are not
14 exposed to glare and changing light, and unfavorable environmental conditions such as rain,
15 snow and ice, that may lead to accidents on open roads. Therefore, the collision risk in long road
16 tunnels is lower compared to open roads.

17 Fires on roads happen less often than collisions. Most vehicle fires result from technical
18 defects and are limited in size and potential damage. According to the PIARC report (Lit. 11),
19 the proportion of fires in which “there is neither personal injury nor damage to property” is
20 between 80% and 90%. Collisions are the leading cause of large fires that may lead to fatalities
21 and structural damage (Lit. 17). Therefore, any safety measures that reduce the collision risk also
22 reduce the fire risk. The governing NFPA 502 standard (Lit. 2) focuses on mitigation,
23 evacuation, and rescue measures to reduce the fire risk.

24



25

26 **Figure 1 Car fire and large truck fire in tunnels**

27

28 Collision and fire hazards may happen during the regular road operation, or they may
29 occur during maintenance or construction work with lane closures, which obstruct the traffic and
30 increase the risk.

31 Risks from natural disasters depend on the local conditions, and may be reduced in first
32 order by appropriate design features, e.g. flood prevention (Lit. 9). Structural collapse must be

1 prevented by adequate design, strict quality control, and regular inspection, maintenance, and
2 repair (Lit. 1, 13).

4 **SAFETY MEASURES**

5 **Prevention**

6 Prevention measures have the highest priority, and apply both to open roads and tunnels,
7 such as:

- 8 • Driver education
- 9 • Measures to improve driver awareness and avoid distraction.
- 10 • Well maintained vehicles in good condition with on-board safety systems
11 (e.g., driver assistant systems).
- 12 • Traffic concept and road alignment providing a smooth, constant travel through the tunnel as
13 far as possible (e.g., by adequate lane & shoulder width, avoiding impact surfaces, avoiding
14 lane merges in tunnels, avoid weaving, etc.).
- 15 • Speed limit, adequate to sight distance and traffic conditions, that may be enforced.
- 16 • Traffic management, avoiding congestions.
- 17 • Traffic restrictions (permanent or temporary, e.g., on hazardous goods).
- 18 • Future connectivity to enable communication between vehicles and to road systems (V2X)

19
20 Tunnel specific prevention measures are:

- 21 • Bright tunnel walls, shielding drivers from distraction, separating roadway directions, and
22 serving as fire compartmentalization.
- 23 • Wide shoulders.
- 24 • Tunnel lighting, which is directly related to the permitted speed and sight distance.
25 Appropriately designed and controlled lighting is especially important to reduce the collision
26 risk in the portal zones.
- 27 • Floor guidance lights reduce the probability of accidents and serve as wayfinding lighting
28 for egressing motorists in case of a fire.
- 29 • Regular inspection and maintenance of structure, systems, and equipment.
30 Since any traffic obstructions increase the collision and fire risk, lane closures for
31 maintenance and construction works should be limited as far as possible.

32 33 **Mitigation**

- 34 • Fast incident detection, in particular relying on:
35 - Acoustic Detection System (ADS)
36 - Closed-circuit television (CCTV) camera system with Automatic Incident Detection (AID)
37 - Smoke detection (Visibility measurement)
38 - Fire detection (Linear Heat Detection system)
39 Reliability of detection is essential, because automatic reactions to false alarms would have
40 negative effects.
- 41 • Signals and barriers for lane or tunnel closures in case of an incident with adequate distance
42 for lane changes and off-ramps for deviations.
- 43 • Signals inside long tunnels, to warn and prevent vehicles from approaching the incident site
44 further.
- 45 • Traffic management in the adjacent road network, to allow for traffic leaving the tunnel in
46 case of an incident.

- 1 • Fixed Fire Fighting System (FFFS)
- 2 • Fire Protection
- 3 • Drainage

4
5 **Evacuation**

- 6 • Wide shoulders to provide safe evacuation path
- 7 • Emergency exits in short distances, equipped with appropriate doors and signage
- 8 • Emergency lighting and floor guidance lights
- 9 • Public Addressing / Voice Alarm System (PA/VA)
- 10 • Fire ventilation / smoke control

11
12 **Rescue**

- 13 • Emergency Response Plan
- 14 • Emergency responder access routes
- 15 • Staging areas at portals
- 16 • Means of communication
- 17 • Standpipes with Fire Department connections (FDC)
- 18 • Staging areas at portals
- 19 • Rescue equipment
- 20 • Regular emergency responder training & exercises

21
22 The following systems are proposed as a novelty in the US, and substantially improve road
23 tunnel safety:

- 24 • Floor Guidance Lights (Lit. 20)
- 25 • Acoustic Detection System (Lit. 21)
- 26 • Tunnel ventilation with active flow control (Lit. 29, 31)
- 27 • High pressure water mist FFFS (Lit. 25, 26).

28
29 **Tunnel Ventilation**

30 Tunnel ventilation system can be crucial to improve safety and reduce costs in road
31 tunnels (Lit. 31). Transversal ventilation systems were developed in the US by the Pittsburgh
32 Bureau of Mines more than 100 years ago to dilute the pollutants produced by the cars at that
33 time, but transversal systems require high investment and operational costs. Due to massive
34 decrease of vehicle emissions and an increasing percentage of electric vehicles, air quality in
35 road tunnels is not an issue today, and transversal ventilation systems have become obsolete.
36 Longitudinal ventilation systems with jet fans are much more cost effective and have been
37 applied since the early 1960s in Europe.

38 Nowadays, tunnel ventilation systems are mostly designed for fire ventilation. A
39 mechanical ventilation system is required by NFPA 502 (Lit. 2) for tunnels longer than 3,280 ft
40 (1 km). In shorter tunnels, a mechanical ventilation system is not required if an adequate safety
41 level can be demonstrated by an engineering analysis. However, mechanical ventilation does not
42 necessarily improve tunnel safety but instead can even increase the risk. In practice, most
43 fatalities in road tunnel fire incidents were caused by toxic smoke spread caused by the operation
44 of the mechanical ventilation (Lit. 31).

45 The fire ventilation goal is to provide tenable conditions, which is particularly
46 challenging when motorists are situated on both sides of a fire. The airflow and resulting smoke

1 spread are determined by uncontrollable forces such as moving traffic, meteorological pressures
2 and fire buoyancy. Therefore, an active dynamic flow control, based on precise and reliable in-
3 tunnel airflow measurement, is required to achieve defined flow conditions (Lit 29, 30). That is
4 not feasible in short tunnels.
5



6
7 **Figure 2 Fire fighting of a large tunnel fire under controlled flow conditions**
8

9
10 Delayed detection, signal processing and system reaction lead to a delay, while smoke
11 spread is initially driven in first order by the piston effect of moving vehicles. The tunnel may be
12 completely full of smoke before any systems, namely traffic management and fire ventilation,
13 can react. To assess the usefulness of a mechanical ventilation for supporting the evacuation of
14 motorists, means of egress must be considered. In particular, where motorist may be exposed to
15 smoke downstream of a fire, providing emergency exits in short distances is crucial. This can be
16 evaluated by simulations of smoke spread and egress for analysis of ASET = Available Safe
17 Egress Time (time until conditions become untenable) and RSET = Required Safe Egress Time
18 (time to evacuate the tunnel) as described in the following section on Quantitative Risk Analysis.

19 **Structural Integrity**

20
21 Bridges and tunnels may collapse due to deterioration and corrosion. The atmosphere in
22 tunnels is wet and corrosive, therefore the protection of the tunnel structure and equipment from
23 corrosion, as well as regular inspection is essential. Detected damages must be adequately
24 repaired.

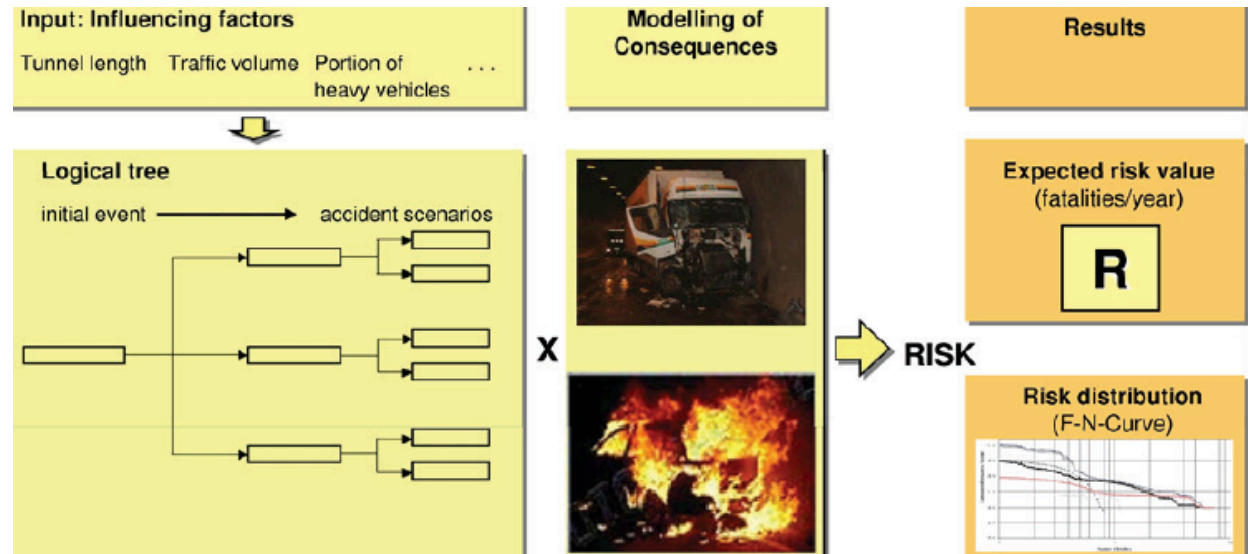
25
26 A large fire in a tunnel may cause substantial damage, leading to lengthy tunnel closure
27 for repair work. In cut & cover structures or lids, even a structural collapse may result. In first
28 order, tunnels rely on the fire department to control the fire and limit the damage. A Fixed Fire
29 Fighting System (FFFS) may be useful when the tunnel operator cannot rely exclusively on the
30 Fire Department, and the expected costs for tunnel closure and refurbishment after large fires,
31 considering the probability of such events, are higher than the Life Cycle Costs (LCC) of the
FFFS. This can be evaluated by a monetized risk assessment. Of particular interest is the
comparison with LCC of structural fire protection measures such as protection boards. Fire

1 protection boards need to be regularly removed for inspection of the underlying structure, which
 2 would require extended tunnel closures.

3
 4 **QUANTITATIVE RISK ANALYSIS (QRA)**

5 **Methodology**

6 QRA has been developed in the US for a wide range of applications, e.g., nuclear
 7 facilities, chemical industry and NASA, but until recently has not been applied to US road
 8 tunnels. NFPA 502 (Lit. 2) requires conducting an 'engineering analysis' considering multiple
 9 relevant factors.



11
 12 **Figure 3 Road tunnel QRA procedure (from Lit. 8)**

13
 14 The operational risk of a road is in first order directly proportional to its length and traffic
 15 load. A tunnel QRA focuses on accident risks based on statistical data, and on fire risk based on
 16 an event tree analysis for different scenarios. With the QRA, the effect of particular safety
 17 measures can be evaluated by comparing life cycle costs of safety measures with the monetized
 18 risk of incidents. Such assessments take into account the impact on life and health of motorists
 19 and residents, material damage, and economic damage resulting from road closure for repair
 20 works multiplied with the likelihood of a particular incident.

21 The accident risk is calculated based on available accident statistics for a particular road
 22 where the tunnel will be, and comparison to US state and nationwide accident rates. The fire risk
 23 is based on simulations of smoke spread and egress for different scenarios. The scenarios are
 24 developed into an event tree, assigning probabilities to each scenario, as explained below.

25
 26 **Modeling**

27 Safe evacuation of motorists is evaluated by an analysis of ASET/RSET. ASET is
 28 assessed by modeling the smoke spread, which depends on the type of fire, meteorological
 29 conditions, particularly wind on tunnel portals, fire buoyancy, and the flow induced by moving
 30 traffic. For RSET, evacuation is modeled based on simple assumptions about evacuee behavior,
 31 in particular the delay of egress and assumed walking speed.

32 In building fire life safety applications, ASET/RSET is evaluated only for one or a few
 33 'worst case' scenarios. In contrast, in tunnels, varying longitudinal flow conditions determine

1 smoke spread, therefore ASET/RSET must be evaluated for many different scenarios under
2 varying boundary and initial conditions. Scenarios with and without operating safety systems,
3 such as mechanical ventilation or FFFS, are to be simulated, since all systems can fail.
4 Modeling is based on simplifications about aerodynamics and thermodynamics, using
5 assumptions, physical parameters, and boundary conditions. numbers of required simulations. A
6 one-dimensional (1D) model does not consider local three-dimensional (3D) effects, e.g. smoke
7 stratification and asymmetric flow profiles. Since there is no smoke stratification in a 1D model,
8 the results are considered conservative. 3D modeling is very elaborate. A major disadvantage of
9 3D models is that moving traffic, which has the most important influence on airflow and initial
10 smoke spread, cannot be modeled with justifiable effort. However, 1D models are not applicable
11 for complex geometries, such as buildings and underground garages, and when the tunnel length
12 is short in comparison to the width.

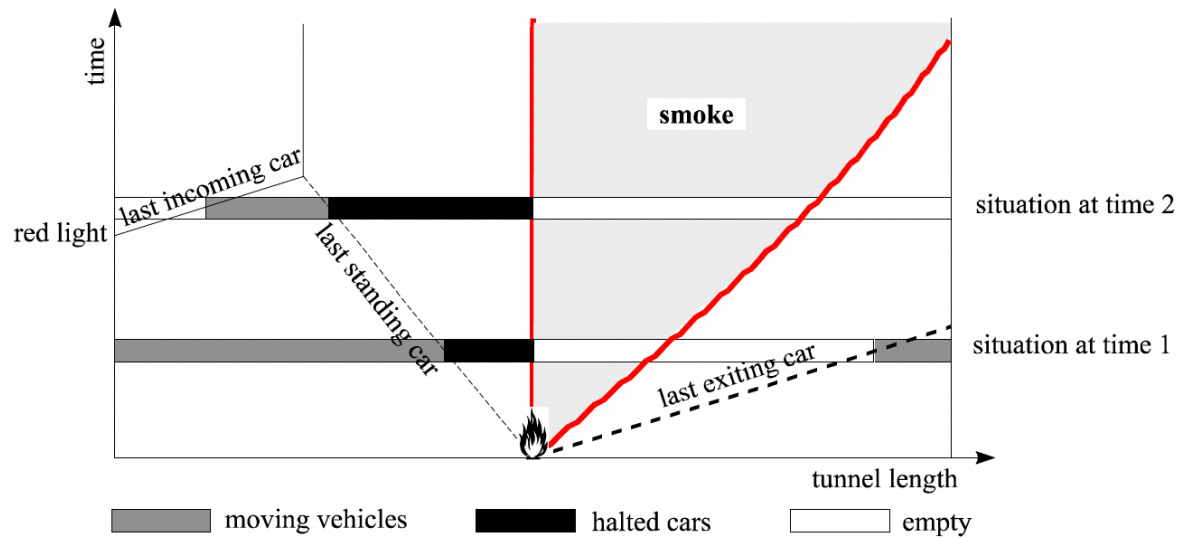
13 One-dimensional (1D) methods model the airflow and smoke spread in a tunnel
14 considering:

- 15 • A model of the tunnel geometry for the complete tunnel network, e.g., both tunnel cells and
16 all cross passages in a twin tube highway tunnel.
- 17 • An aerodynamic model for incompressible flow with variable density
- 18 • A fire model with heat and smoke production
- 19 • Losses from surface drag, tunnel entry and exit, obstructions, standing vehicles
- 20 • Meteorological pressure (Wind on portals, buoyancy, barometric pressure)
- 21 • Forces induced by moving vehicles
- 22 • Forces induced by ventilation system (e.g. jet fans)
- 23 • Forces induced by the fire (Buoyancy, throttling effect)

24
25 Dynamic development of a fire incident is modeled as follows:

- 26 • Start and development of fire
- 27 • Vehicles stopping in front of fire, other vehicles moving until they stop at the end of the
28 queue
- 29 • Vehicles downstream drive through, unless they are blocked, which would impose the most
30 dangerous scenario
- 31 • Vehicles on adjacent lanes keep on driving
- 32 • Incident detection (based on temperature threshold or smoke reaching positions of smoke
33 detectors)
- 34 • System reaction time (signal evaluation, plausibility check, positive alarm sequence)
- 35 • Signals on tunnel portals turn red, ideally preventing further vehicles from entering but there
36 is no guarantee that motorists will not enter the tunnel regardless
- 37 • Alarming of motorists (PA/VA system) and emergency services
- 38 • Start of ventilation, with appropriate start-up time, and dynamic achievement of target flow
39 by active flow control, which can take several minutes.
40 (sidenote: In short tunnels, active flow control is hardly feasible)
- 41 • Activation of FFFS

42



1
2 **Figure 4 Dynamic traffic and smoke spread model (from Lit. 24)**

3
4 Simulation time is usually until egress has been completed and a steady state flow has been
5 achieved. Arrival of emergency services on site, assisted evacuation and fire fighting usually
6 occur after completion of self evacuation and is not considered in the modeling, but is an
7 important aspect of the safety concept.

8 For proof of fire resistance as required by NFPA 502, temperature loads on the structure
9 are calculated conservatively with still standing air as an initial condition, for scenarios with and
10 without FFFS. 3D simulations are useful to determine temperatures on structures in defined fire
11 scenarios for the determination of required structural fire protection measures.

12
13 **PRACTICAL EXAMPLE**

14 The proposed methodology for concrete US projects is based on the German QRA BAST
15 model (Lit. 14, 15), which can be adapted to US specific conditions.

16
17 **Accident Risk**

18 Statistical accident data on a particular highway provide probabilities of different
19 accident types and initial collision rates. Those values can be compared with state and
20 nationwide data for plausibility check.

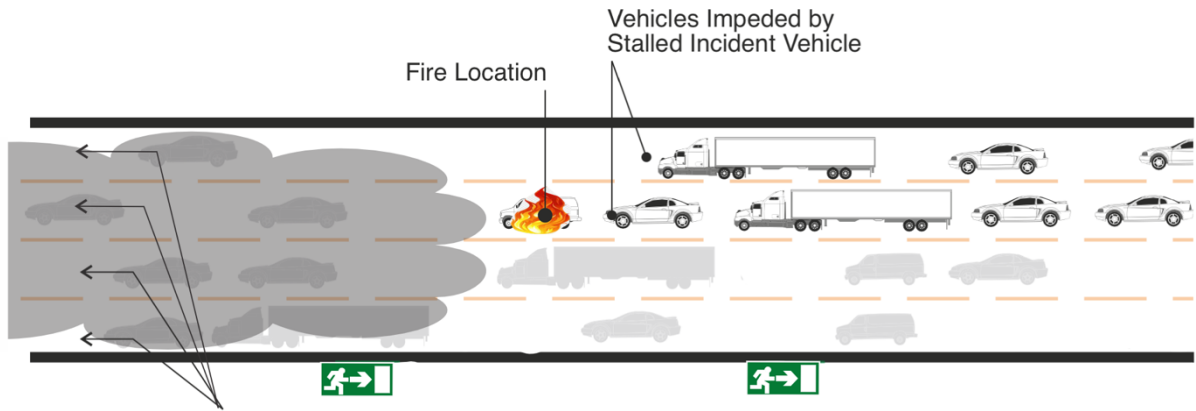
21 The BAST methodology (Lit. 15) provides the probability distribution of fatalities across
22 different accident types. Based on those data, the total accident risk is calculated, and displayed
23 in an F-N curve.

24
25 **Traffic Scenarios**

26 *1. Free flowing traffic*

27 This traffic scenario is characterized by traffic moving at or near speed limit with no buildup of
28 standing or slower vehicles. In case of a large fire, vehicles downstream of fire can leave the
29 tunnel, and motorists upstream of fire are safe to escape. This is the most likely scenario, in
30 particular for rural highway tunnels with low probability of congestions.

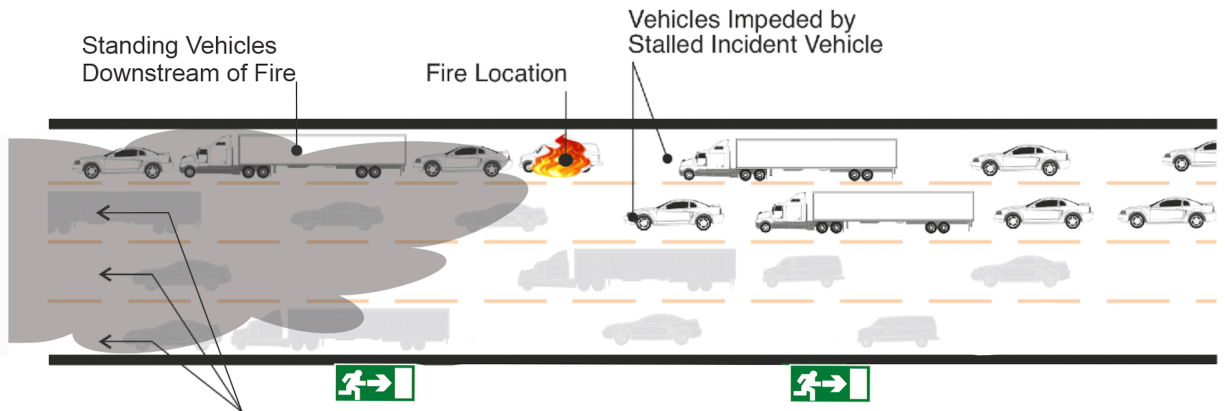
31 *Usually, no casualties from fire to be expected. Serious damage from large fires is possible.*



Vehicles Not Impeded by Stalled Incident Vehicle Continue to Exit the Tunnel

1
2 **Figure 5 Free flowing traffic scenario**

3
4 *2. Buildup of lane of standing vehicles and rear-end crash resulting in a fire*
5 In this scenario, traffic is moving at or near the speed limit in all lanes except a lane with a
6 buildup of standing vehicles due to an incident or congestion. A secondary incident then occurs
7 at the rear of the lane of standing vehicles resulting in a fire. In case of a large fire, vehicles and
8 motorists are exposed to smoke downstream of fire, even before incident is detected and safety
9 systems can react.
10 *This is considered a critical case because motorists being trapped downstream of the fire are*
11 *exposed to smoke.*

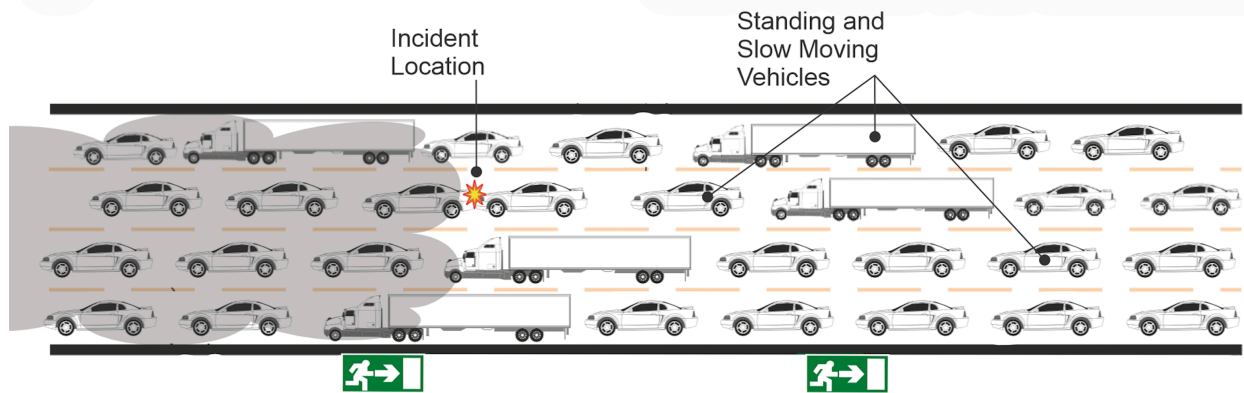


Vehicles Not Impeded by Stalled Incident Vehicle Continue to Exit the Tunnel

12
13 **Figure 6 Scenario with vehicles blocked downstream of fire**

14
15 *3. Congestion / stop-and-go*
16 Traffic is slowly moving, congested traffic resulting in a high density of vehicles in the tunnel.
17 Fires from technical defects can occur, which usually develop slowly. Low-speed rear-end
18 collisions are typically the only type of crash. No serious crashes / large fires resulting from
19 crashes to be expected. Fires from technical defects may occur, and develop into large fires,
20 although with a low probability.

1 *Mostly no casualties, no serious damage to be expected.*



2
3 **Figure 7 Congested traffic scenario**

4
5 **Fire Modeling**

6 For modeling of design fires, the following fires are to be considered according to the
7 BAST methodology (Lit. 15) for the ASET/RSET analysis:

- 8 • Car fire: 5 MW unsuppressed
9 • Truck/ bus fire: 30 MW unsuppressed
10 • Large Heavy Goods Vehicle (HGV) fire: 100 MW unsuppressed

11 The QRA methodology distinguishes between fires with immediate and with delayed
12 development. Fires with immediate growth are considered to result from collisions, following an
13 ultra-fast fire growth curve.

14 The delayed fire growth follows the growth curve up to a HRR of 5 MW and stays at that
15 HRR until 5 minutes after which it continues along the ultra-fast fire growth curve. A delayed
16 fire growth scenario is considered to result from technical defects, representing the majority of
17 fire incidents.

18 It is assumed that the FFFS is able to limit the HRR of all fires to under 20 MW
19 according to test data (Lit. 25, 26). The FFFS can also substantially reduce the smoke
20 concentration, and reduces fire buoyancy. On the other side, the FFFS disrupts any smoke
21 stratification in the application zone, which is detrimental to escape conditions.

22 Additionally, the following stress test scenarios have been evaluated for the fire
23 durability assessment:

- 24 • Extra-large (overventilated) HGV fire: 200 MW unsuppressed, ultra-fast growth
25 • FLC fire: 300 MW fire unsuppressed, fast linear growth of 20 MW/Min.

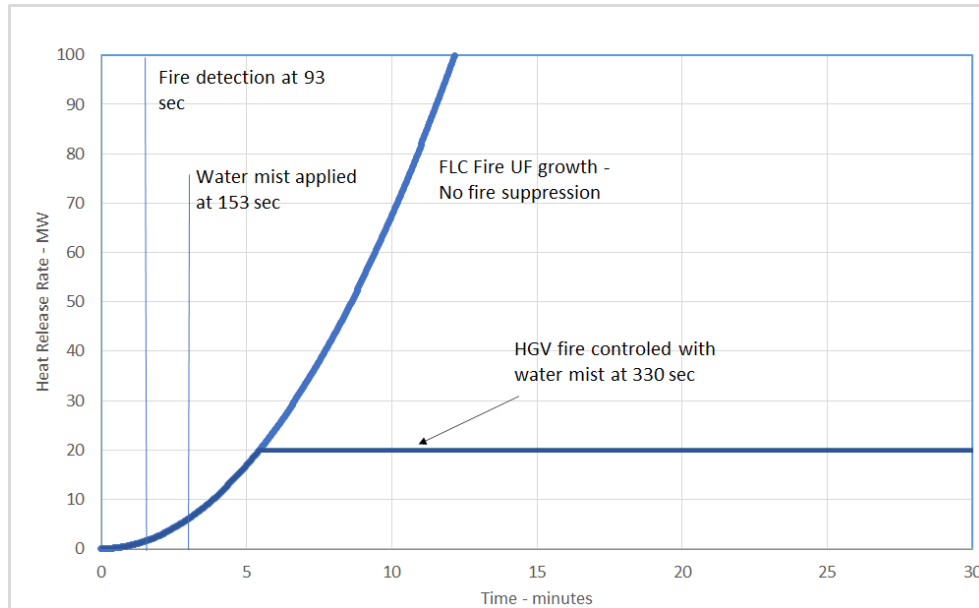


Figure 8 Fire growth curve of large HGV fire

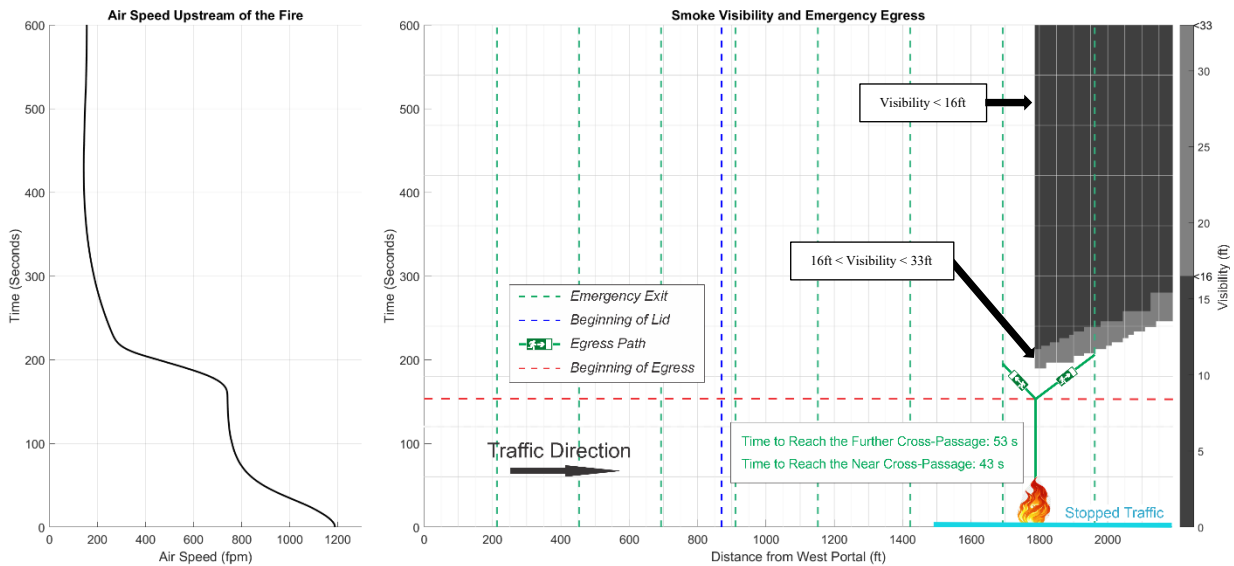
Egress

A simplified egress model as developed for the BAST methodology (Lit. 14, 15) is applied:

- No evacuation prior to alarming and PA/VA initiation (*this is a pessimistic assumption*)
- People who evacuate after PA/VA initiation and reach an emergency exit before being overtaken by smoke (visibility limit of 16.4 ft / 5 meters) survive. Walking speed is 236 fpm/ 1.2 m/s (*this is an optimistic assumption*).
- People who cannot reach an emergency exit before being overtaken by smoke (visibility limit of 16.4 ft / 5 meters) are assumed to perish (*this is a pessimistic assumption*).

Modeling of smoke spread and egress

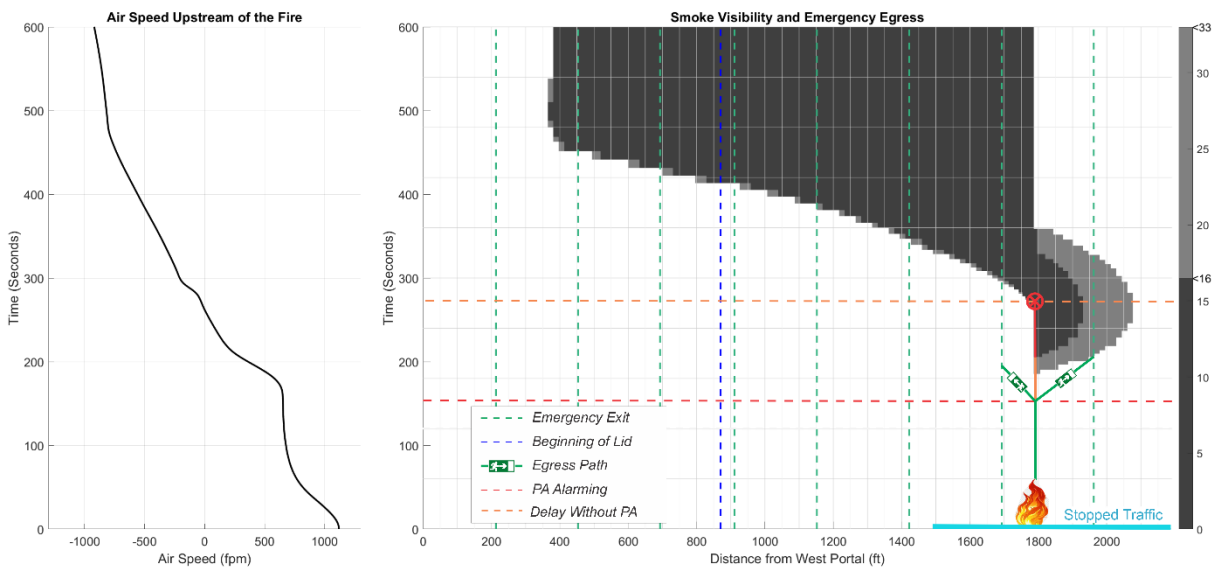
For a particular US highway lid project, 556 different fire scenarios have been modeled with 1D simulations using the simulation software EQUA IDA Tunnel. Results were displayed on graphs, where smoke spread, and egress were compared. The air speed in cold air upstream of the fire is also displayed for comparison. It can be assumed that smoke stratification is likely for air speed below approx. 400 fpm / 2 m/s (Lit. 30), which may be expected as soon as the traffic slows down or has left the tunnel.



1
2 **Figure 9 Graph of air speed (left) and smoke spread and egress (right) for one scenario**

3
4 At four scenarios with vehicles and motorists blocked downstream of a fire according to
5 Figure 6, motorists would be exposed to untenable conditions. However, since the flow velocity
6 drops below 400 fpm, in practice conditions might be still tenable under a smoke layer.

7
8 The main benefit of a mechanical ventilation system would be to prevent flow reversal.
9 However, scenarios with flow reversal due to natural forces such as wind or fire buoyancy
10 against traffic direction, have been evaluated to not be critical when emergency exits in short
11 distances are available. Rather, fast detection and alarming by the PA/VA system are essential to
12 initiate self evacuation.



13
14 **Figure 10 Scenario with flow reversal**

1
2 In the 1D model, the effects of different safety systems, namely faster incident detection
3 (by ADS) and alarming (by PA/VA), emergency exit distances, mechanical ventilation, and
4 FFFS, can be directly simulated and displayed.

6 **Fire Durability Assessment**

7 Multiple fire durability simulations were conducted to evaluate the potential effects of a
8 fire on the surrounding tunnel structures. These simulations focus on calculating the maximum
9 air temperatures at the ceiling and on supporting structures, such as beams and walls. As a
10 conservative assumption, the simulations were conducted with a 3D tool (FDS) with no airflow
11 induced by traffic or wind which could provide a cooling effect.

12 The benefits of the water mist FFFS are evident when comparing the maximum
13 temperature of gases on the tunnel ceiling. In the simulation without water mist, the maximum
14 ceiling gas temperature above the fire was 2,525°F / 1,385°C, while in the simulation with water
15 mist, it was only 530°F / 277°C, which is below the limit of 716°F / 380°C as determined by
16 NFPA 502 (Lit. 2). In practice, most tunnels have no FFFS, and rely on the Fire Department to
17 control and extinguish fires.

19 **Fire Risk**

20 According to US NHTSA and NFPA data (Lit. 16, 17), it is assumed that 0.3% of
21 accidents result in a fire, and 3 fires per Billion veh-km, are expected from technical defects.
22 That refers to significant fires with at least 5 MW HRR. Smaller vehicle fires may occur more
23 often but are not risk relevant (Lit. 11). As defined by the BAST model (Lit. 14, 15), an event tree
24 was developed with the following assumptions on probabilities for a specific US highway lid:

- 25
26 1. Fire locations: FL1 = 25%; FL2 = 17%; FL3 = 25%; FL4 = 17%; FL5 = 17%
27
28 2. Wind Conditions: East to West = 20%; No Wind = 70%; West to East = 10%
29
30 3. Traffic Conditions: flowing 80%; congested or vehicles blocked downstream 20%
31
32 4. Fire size:
33 • 5 MW fires: 85%, resulting in 0.93 fires per year, or a 5 MW fire every year
34 • 30 MW fires: 14.1%, resulting in 0.15 fires per year, or a 30 MW fire every 6.5 years
35 • 100 MW fires: 0.9%, resulting in 0.01 fires per year, or a 100 MW fire every 102.5 years
36
37 5. Fire growth
38 19.2% immediate growth / 80.8% delayed fire growth.
39
40 6. Fire suppression (and ventilation)
41 FFFS reliability 95%, Ventilation system reliability 95% (in variants with ventilation),
42 System reliabilities are based on an assumption of a failure on demand rate of 5%, which
43 includes different possible failure causes such as power outage, failure of electrical or
44 mechanical components, detection failure. That is a conservative assumptions; in practice, for
45 instance for FFFS, a reliability of 99% is contractually required, to be demonstrated by a RAMS
46 analysis.

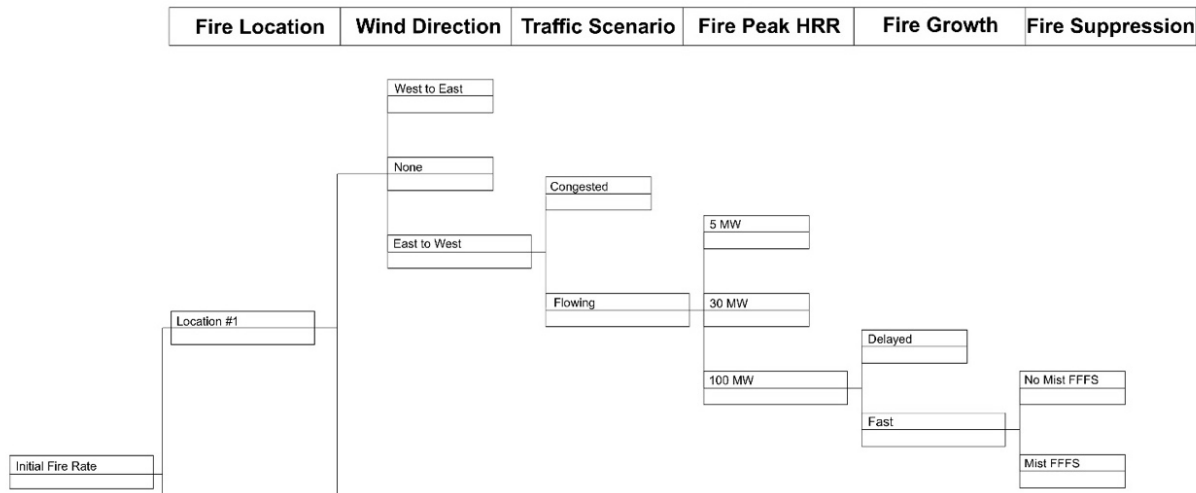


Figure 11 Fire risk event tree

By multiplying the probabilities of each factor along a branch with the initial fire rate, the frequency of each specific scenario is determined. For most scenarios, zero fatalities can be assumed based on simple analysis. Some critical scenarios are simulated in the 1D model as explained above. The frequency of each scenario is multiplied by the expected number of fatalities, providing the level of risk for that scenario. Finally, the risks across all scenarios are summed to calculate the collective risk.

Based on the data and the described assumptions, the calculated collective risk is 0.0039 fatalities per year due to fires, which corresponds to a fire-related fatality mean frequency approximately every 255 years for a specific US highway lid. That is longer than the design lifetime of the lid, which is 100 years.

Total Risk

The total risk was calculated to be approx. 0.125 fatalities per year, which corresponds to a fatality approximately every 8 years. The results are displayed in an F-N curve. The x-axis represents the number of fatalities, while the y-axis shows the frequency of having N or more fatalities each year for each data point. For comparison, the acceptance curve from the PIARC Quantitative Risk Assessment Model for Dangerous Goods Transport through Road Tunnels (Lit. 4) is displayed.

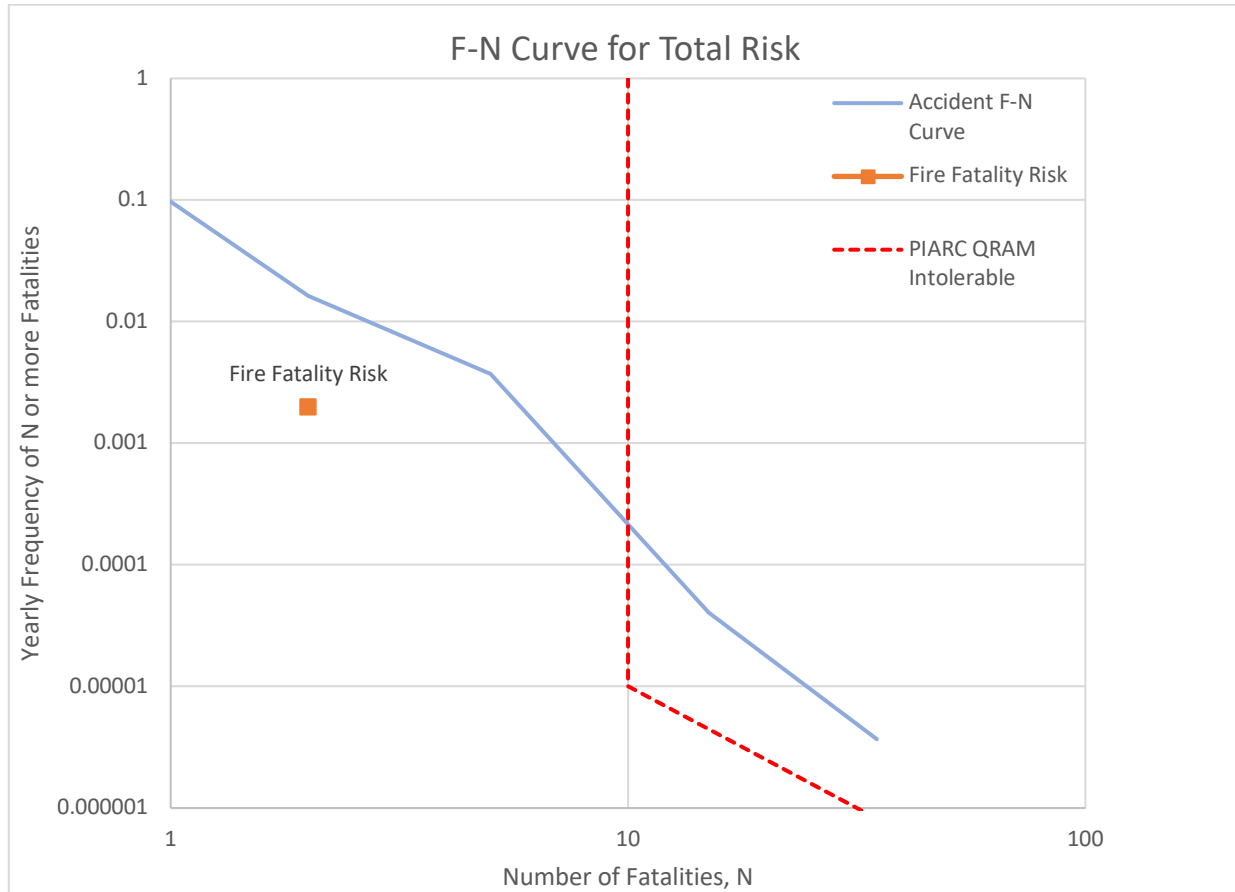


Figure 12 F-N curve for fatalities from accidents and fires – total risk

It can be seen that for this specific US highway lid the accident risk would partially exceed the tolerable threshold according to the PIARC QRAM methodology (Lit. 4), while the fire risk is tolerable. The ASET/RSET analysis shows that motorists have a good chance to evacuate in practically all evaluated scenarios. Critical cases are where vehicles are blocked downstream of a fire. In such cases, a mechanical ventilation without flow control would even make conditions worse.

CONCLUSIONS

With a systematic safety concept approach, improved tunnel safety and cost savings are possible by focusing on measures with best effectiveness, in particular prevention. Safety measures with little or even negative benefit may be omitted. An important aspect of a safety assessment is to consider unwanted side effects and evaluate ‘what can go wrong’, considering practical experience.

An example is tunnel ventilation. Mechanical ventilation in unidirectional tunnels is typically used to prevent smoke from spreading against traffic flow, but inappropriate operation without flow control could also accelerate smoke spread and cause destratification, making conditions worse for motorists downstream of the fire. For facilitating egress even for situations when motorists are trapped in the smoke downstream of a fire, emergency exits on short distances are more effective. Another example is a high-pressure water mist FFES, instead of

1 structural fire protection, when large fires and delayed Fire Department access might otherwise
2 lead to unacceptable damage.

3 ASET/RSET analysis with simulations of smoke spread and egress are a useful tool to
4 assess the fire risk, however the approach is different than in buildings. Smoke spread in tunnels
5 depends on many different factors, especially the longitudinal flow induced by moving traffic in
6 the initial fire phase, and meteorological forces. Therefore, many simulations have to be
7 conducted for different fire scenarios under different boundary and initial conditions.

8 With a Quantitative Risk Analysis, the risks can be brought in the right perspective. As
9 on open roads, accident prevention measures are most effective. The fire risk is usually very low
10 in short tunnels, and any Fire Life Safety measures may be questioned from the perspective of
11 useful allocation of funds.

12 All safety systems must be suitable for tunnel conditions, diligently tested, and regularly
13 inspected, tested and maintained during operation, to ensure reliable functionality. There is
14 proven European tunnel equipment, which must be adapted to comply with US specific
15 requirements such as UL or FM listing, and Buy America (BABA).

16 It is proposed to develop the applied QRA methodology into a US standard approach for
17 the safety assessment of new tunnel projects, as well as refurbishments of existing tunnels.

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24 The authors confirm contribution to the paper as follows: Safety Concept and QRA lead:
25 P. Pospisil, Simulations: C. Santangelo, Event tree development: M. Mora, QC: B. Hagenah. All
26 authors reviewed the results and approved the final version of the manuscript.

27 28 **DECLARATION OF CONFLICTING INTERESTS**

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