

Aviation Infrastructure Economics October 14-15, 2004

The Aerospace Center Building

901 D St. SW, Suite 850 Washington, DC 20024 Lecture BWI/Andrews Conference Rooms

Instructor: Jasenka Rakas University of California, Berkeley



EQUIPMENT FAILURE RATES AND PROBABILITITES MARKOV TRANSITION MATRICES DETERIORATION AND OBSOLESCENCE

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NEXTOR



Relevant NAS Measures of Performance and their Relations





EQUIPMENT FAILURE RATES AND PROBABILITITES

MARKOV TRANSITION MATRICES

DETERIORATION AND OBSOLESCENCE





Failure Rate (λ)

For a stated period in the life of a piece of equipment, the ratio of the total number of failures N (or k for observed) to the total cumulative observed time T is the observed failure rate λ :

$\lambda = k/T$

The probability of a piece of equipment failing in the interval between t and t + dt given that it has survived until time t:

$$\lambda(t) dt$$
 0 t $t + \Delta t$

where $\lambda(t)$ is the failure rate.

The probability of failure in the interval t to t + dt unconditionally:

where f(t) is the failure probability density function.





The failure rate $\lambda(t)$ is probability of failure in a period t to $t + \Delta t$ under the condition that no failure occurred before t, divided by Δt and Δt going to 0.

$$\lambda(t) = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{Prob\{ t \le T < t + \Delta t / T \ge t\}}{\Delta t}$$







Probability Density Function

Probability distributions are typically defined in terms of the probability density function. For a continuous function, the probability density function (pdf) is the probability that the variate has the value t.

Since for continuous distributions the probability at a single point is zero, this is often expressed in terms of an integral between two points.

$$\int_{t}^{t+dt} f(t)dt = \Pr[t < T < t+dt]$$

For a discrete distribution, the pdf is the probability that the variate takes the value t (commonly denoted by x).

$$f(t) = \Pr[T = t]$$

The following is the plot of the normal probability density function.







Reliability $\mathbf{R}(t)$

The probability of survival to time *t* is defined as the reliability R(t).

$$F(t) = \int_{t}^{t+dt} f(t)dt \qquad R(t) = 1 - F(t) \qquad R(t) = e^{-\int_{0}^{t} \lambda(t)dt}$$

If $\lambda(t)$ is constant then:
$$R(t) = e^{-\lambda t}$$
$$R(t) = e^{-\lambda t}$$
Reliability Function:
the most common shape
$$0 \qquad t$$



How Do We Predict



Equipment Failures?

The time between equipment failures can follow different probability distributions:



The Weibull Distribution

The Weibull distribution is widely used in reliability and life data analysis due to its versatility. Depending on the values of the parameters, the Weibull distribution can be used to model a variety of equipment life behaviors.

$$f(T) = \frac{\beta}{\eta} \left(\frac{T-\gamma}{\eta}\right)^{\beta-1} e^{-\left(\frac{T-\gamma}{\eta}\right)^{\beta}}$$

 $f(T) \ge 0, T \ge 0 \text{ or } \gamma, \beta > 0, \eta > 0, -\infty < \gamma < \infty$

The effect of the Weibull shape parameter β on the *pdf*

- 77 = scale parameter
- β = shape parameter (or slope)
- $\tilde{\gamma}$ = location parameter







Exponential Distribution

The exponential distribution is a very commonly used distribution in reliability engineering. Due to its simplicity, it has been widely employed. The exponential distribution is used to describe units that have a constant failure rate λ . The general formula for the probability density function (pdf) of the exponential distribution is:







Other probability distributions used in modeling time of equipment failure occurrences:

Normal Distribution
$$f(t) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(t-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Gama Distribution $f(t) = \frac{\lambda(\lambda t)^{\alpha - 1} e^{-\lambda t}}{\Gamma(\alpha)}, t > 0, \lambda > 0, \alpha > 0$

where
$$\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_{0}^{\infty} t^{\alpha-1} e^{-t} dt$$

Rayleigh Distribution
$$f(t) = \frac{t}{\sigma^2} e^{-\frac{t^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$





Numerical Example:

If a piece of equipment fails according to Rayleigh Distribution with parameter $\sigma = 1860$ hours, what is the Reliability of this piece of equipment after 1000 hours of work, i.e. R(1000)?

$$R(t) = 1 - F(t) = 1 - \int_{0}^{t} f(t)dt = 1 - \int_{0}^{t} \frac{t}{\sigma^{2}} e^{-\frac{t^{2}}{2\sigma^{2}}} dt$$

$$R(1000) = 1 - \int_{0}^{1000} \frac{t}{1860^2} e^{-\frac{t^2}{2(1860)^2}} dt = 0.87$$

The probability of this piece of equipment still working at the 1000th hour is 0.87





Numerical Example:

Assume a piece of equipment fails with a constant rate $\lambda = 0.82$ failures/hour. What is the probability that the equipment will still work after being utilized for 6 hours?

$$R(t) = 1 - \int_{0}^{t} f(t)dt = 1 - \int_{0}^{t} \lambda e^{-\lambda t} dt = e^{-\lambda t}$$

R(6)=0.995

The probability of this piece of equipment still working at the end of the 6th hour is 0.995.



Mean Time Between Failures (MTBF):



For a stated period in the life of a piece of equipment the mean value of the length of time between consecutive failures, computed as the ratio of the total cumulative observed time to the total number of failures N (or k for observed).

MTBF = T/k

MTBF is the mean Up time between failures. It is the average of values of (*t*). When failure rate λ is constant, MTBF = 1/ λ .



How Do We Predict

Equipment Failures?





Mean Time To Fail (MTTF):



For a stated period in the life of a piece of equipment computed as the ratio of the total cumulative observed time to the total number of failures N (or k for observed).

MTTF = T/k

The only difference between MTBF and MTTF is in their usage. MTTF is applied to equipment that are not repaired (transistors, bearings), and MTBF is applied to items which are repaired.



$\sqrt{}$ EQUIPMENT FAILURE RATES AND PROBABILITITES

MARKOV TRANSITION MATRICES

DETERIORATION AND OBSOLESCENCE





A Markov chain is a sequence of random (stochastic) values whose probabilities at a time interval depend upon the value of the number at the **previous** time. A simple example is the non-returning random walk, where the walkers are restricted to not go back to the location just previously visited.

Markovian property: the conditional probability of any future "event" given any past "event" and the present state $X_t=i$, is independent of the past event and depends upon only the present state of the process.

$$P\{X_{t+1} = j \mid X_0 = k_0, X_1 = k_1, \dots, X_{t-1} = k_{t-1}, X_t = i\} = P\{X_{t+1} = j \mid X_t = i\}$$

for t = 0, 1, 2, ... and every sequence $i, j, k_0, k_1, k_2, ..., k_{t-1}$.





Transition Probabilities

The controlling factor in a Markov chain is the **transition probability**. It is a conditional probability for the system to go to a particular new state, given the current state of the system. For many problems, the Markov chain obtains the much desired importance sampling. This means that we get fairly efficient estimates if we can determine the proper transition probabilities.

The conditional probabilities $P\{X_{t+1} = j \mid X_t = i\}$ are called transition probabilities. If, for each *i* and *j*,

$$P\{X_{t+1} = j \mid X_t = i\} = P\{X_1 = j \mid X_0 = i\}, \text{ for all } t = 0,1,...$$

then the (one step) transition probabilities are said to be *stationary* and are denoted by p_{ij} .





Defining a Markov Chain

A stochastic process $\{X_t\}$ (t = 0,1, ...) is a finite-state Markov chain if it has the following:

- 1. A finite number of states,
- 2. The Markovian property,
- 3. Stationary transition probabilities,
- 4. A set of initial probabilities $P\{X_0 = i\}$ for all *i*.





Defining a Markov Chain

A convenient notation for representing the transition probabilities is the matrix form:

State		0	1	М
	0	$p_{00}^{(n)}$	$p_{01}^{(n)}$	$p_{\scriptscriptstyle 0M}^{\scriptscriptstyle (n)}$
$P^{(n)} =$	1	$p_{10}^{(n)}$	$p_{11}^{(n)}$	
		:	:	
	М	$p^{\scriptscriptstyle(n)}_{\scriptscriptstyle M0}$	$p_{M1}^{(n)}$	$p_{MM}^{(n)}$

for n = 1, 2, ...where *n* denotes the number of steps or time units

 $p_{ij}^{(n)} \ge 0$, for all *i* and *j*, and n = 0,1,2...

 $\sum_{j=0}^{M} p_{ij}^{(n)} = 1 \text{ for all } i \text{ and } n = 0, 1, 2....$





Defining a Markov Chain

 $p_{ij}^{(n)}$ is just the conditional probability that the random variable *X*, starting in state *i*, will be in state *j* after *n* steps







Chapman-Kolmogorov Equations

The n-step transition probability $P_{ij}^{(n)}$ is useful when the process is in state *i* and we want to calculate the probability that the process will be in in state *j* after *n* periods.

Chapman-Kolmogorov equations provide a method for computing these *n*-step transition probabilities:

$$p_{ij}^{(n)} = \sum_{k=0}^{M} p_{ik}^{(v)} p_{kj}^{(n-v)}$$
, for all i, j, n and $0 \le v \le n$

Explanation:

In going from state i to state j in n steps the process will be in some state k after exactly v steps.

 $p_{ik}^{(v)} p_{kj}^{(n-v)}$ is just the conditional probability that, starting from state *i*, the process goes to state *k* after *v* steps and then to state *j* in *n* – *v* steps. Summing these conditional probabilities over all possible *k* must yield $p_{ij}^{(n)}$.



Markov Chains



Steady-State Probability

Steady state probability means that the probability of finding the process in certain state, say *j*, after a large number of transitions tends to the value π_{j} , *independent* of the initial probability distribution defined over states. It is important to note that steady-state probability does *not* imply that the process settles down into one state. On the contrary, the process continues to make transitions from state to state, and at any step *n* the transition probability from state *i* to state *j* is still *p*_{ij}.







Steady-State Probability

Why is it useful? Why is it important?

		0.080	0.184	0.368	0.368	
מ		0.632	0.368	0	0	
Γ	=	0.264	0.368	0.368	0	
		0.080	0.184	0.368	0.368	

the one-step transition matrix

$$P^{(2)} = P^{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.080 & 0.184 & 0.368 & 0.368 \\ 0.632 & 0.368 & 0 & 0 \\ 0.264 & 0.368 & 0.368 & 0 \\ 0.080 & 0.184 & 0.368 & 0.368 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 0.080 & 0.184 & 0.368 & 0.368 \\ 0.632 & 0.368 & 0 & 0 \\ 0.264 & 0.368 & 0.368 & 0 \\ 0.080 & 0.184 & 0.368 & 0.368 \end{bmatrix}$$

the two-step transition matrix

$$P^{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.249 & 0.286 & 0.300 & 0.168 \\ 0.283 & 0.252 & 0.233 & 0.233 \\ 0.351 & 0.319 & 0.233 & 0.097 \\ 0.249 & 0.286 & 0.300 & 0.165 \end{bmatrix}$$





Steady-State Probability

Why is it useful? Why is it important?

$P^{(4)} = $	$P^{(2)} \times P$	(2) =	0.249 0.283 0.351 0.249	0.286 0.252 0.319 0.286	0.300 0.233 0.233 0.300	0.168 0.233 0.097 0.165	×	0.249 0.283 0.351 0.249	0.286 0.252 0.319 0.286	0.300 0.233 0.233 0.300	0.168 0.233 0.097 0.165			
$P^{(4)} =$	0.289 0.282 0.284 0.289	0.28 0.28 0.28 0.28	- 0.2 5 0.2 3 0.2 6 0.2	61 0.16 68 0.16 63 0.17 61 0.16	54 56 71 54	he fou	ır-	step ti	ransiti	on ma	ıtrix			
$P^{(8)} = $	$P^8 = P^{(4)}$	$^{(4)} \times P$	⁽⁴⁾ =	0.289 (0.289 (0.289 (0.289 (0.289 ().285 ().285 ().285 ().285 ().285 (0.264 0.264 0.264 0.264	0.1 0.1 0.1 0.1	66 66 66 66	the e	eight-s	step tra	insition	matr	ix





Steady-State Probability

Why is it useful? Why is it important?

 $P^{(8)} = P^{8} = P^{(4)} \times P^{(4)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.289 & 0.285 & 0.264 & 0.166 \\ 0.289 & 0.285 & 0.264 & 0.166 \\ 0.289 & 0.285 & 0.264 & 0.166 \\ 0.289 & 0.285 & 0.264 & 0.166 \end{bmatrix}$ the eight-step

the eight-step transition matrix

The probability of being in state *j* after 8 steps (weeks, days...-any time units) appears to be independent of the initial state.

In other words, there is a limiting probability that the system will be in state j after a large number of transitions, and this probability is independent of the initial state i.

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} p_{ij}^{(n)} = \pi_j \quad \text{and} \, \pi_j \, \text{'s satisfy the following conditions:} \quad \pi_j = \sum_{i=0}^M \pi_i p_{ij}, \text{ for } j = 0, 1, \dots M$$
$$\sum_{j=0}^M \pi_j = 1$$





Expected Average Cost per Unit Time Why is it useful? Why is it important?

The long-run average cost associated with a Markov chain:

If a cost $C(X_t)$ is incurred when the process is in state X_t at time t, then the expected average cost incurred over the first n periods is:

$$E\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{t=1}^{n}C(X_{t})\right]$$

If $\lim_{n \to \infty} \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} p_{ij}^{(k)} \right\} = \pi_j$ then the long run expected average cost per unit time is: $\lim_{n \to n} \left\{ E\left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{n} C(X_t)\right] \right\} = \sum_{j=0}^{M} C(j)\pi_j$





Expected Average Cost per Unit Time Numerical Example:

Before the end of one inspection period (*t*) we are concerned about our maintenance budget and want to know if we can perform maintenance of (for example) a radar system. Assume that the following costs for each type of radar maintenance are incurred: For j=0, i.e., regular maintenance, C(j=0)= \$2 units

$$j=1$$
, i.e., minor repair, $C(j=1) =$ \$3 units

$$i=2$$
, i.e., major repair, $C(j=2) =$ \$5 units

$$i=3$$
, i.e., replacement, $C(j=3) =$ \$20 units

If the long-run transition probabilities are $P^{(8)} = P^8 = P^{(4)} \times P^{(4)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.289 & 0.285 & 0.264 & 0.166 \\ 0.289 & 0.285 & 0.264 & 0.166 \\ 0.289 & 0.285 & 0.264 & 0.166 \\ 0.289 & 0.285 & 0.264 & 0.166 \end{bmatrix}$

Then the long-run expected cost of maintaining radar at the end of the inspection period t is:

$$E(C) = \sum_{j=0}^{M} C(j)\pi_j = (2)(0.289) + (3)(0.285) + (5)(0.264) + (20)(0.166) = \$6.073 \text{ units}$$





\checkmark EQUIPMENT FAILURE RATES AND PROBABILITITES

$\sqrt{MARKOV TRANSITION MATRICES}$

DETERIORATION AND OBSOLESCENCE









Obsolescence Analysis



Bathtab Curve

Time





Traditional Elements of Obsolescence

An "obsolescence" event occurs if:

• There is a lack of technician training ("basic obsolescence")

The equipment could be in either the useful life phase or the wearout phase. The absence of appropriately trained technicians increases MTTRs making it economically unjustifiable to keep such assets in the system.

- There is a lack of spare parts ("basic obsolescence").
 Inability to obtain spare parts increases MTTRs and reduces assets' AVAILABILITY (A = MTBO / (MTBO + MTTR). If spare parts are not attainable, an asset will become obsolete even if its failure rate is in the useful life phase.
- functionality of a piece of equipment cannot be changed ("functional obsolescence").

Automation tools (Host computer or ARTS) have aged and are no longer able to "absorb" additional functions required to modernize these tool.





Traditional Elements of Obsolescence

Cost Issues:

- operation and maintenance costs exceed the FAA's designated budget
- maintenance cost exceeds replacement cost

How do we predict the time at which a piece of equipment becomes obsolete?





Background

How does the Obsolescence Model fit into our overall NAS Model for Infrastructure Performance and Analysis?

What distinguishes the Obsolescence Model from the overall NAS Model for Infrastructure Performance and Analysis?

What is so specific about the Obsolescence Model?

NEXTOR NAS Model for Infrastructure Management

Equipment States and Maintenance Decisions Where does the Obsolescence model fit within the overall NAS Model for

Infrastructure Management?

Decision	Cost	Expected cost due to caused traffic delays	Maintenance Cost	Total Cost
	(probability)	Cd	Cm	Ct = Cd + Cm
1. Leave ASR as it is	0 = good as new 1 = operable – minor deterioration 2 = operable – major deterioration 3 = inoperable	\$ 0 \$ 1 000,000 (for example) \$ 6 000,000 \$ 20,000,000	\$ 0 \$ 0 \$ 0 \$ 0	\$ 0 \$ 1 000,000 \$ 6 000,000 \$ 20,000,000
2. Maintenance	0 = good as new 1 = operable – minor deterioration 2 = operable – major deterioration 3 = inoperable	If scheduled, \$0; otherwise \$X2 If scheduled, \$0; otherwise \$Y2 If scheduled, \$0; otherwise \$Z1 If scheduled, \$M2; otherwise \$N2	If scheduled \$A2, otherwise \$B2 If scheduled \$C2, otherwise \$D2 If scheduled \$E2, otherwise \$F2 If scheduled \$G2, otherwise \$ H2	Cd + Cm
3. Replace	0 = good as new 1 = operable – minor deterioration 2 = operable – major deterioration 3 = inoperable	If scheduled, \$0; otherwise \$X3 If scheduled, \$0; otherwise \$Y3 If scheduled, \$0; otherwise \$Z3 If scheduled, \$M3; otherwise \$N3	If scheduled \$A3, otherwise \$B3 If scheduled \$C3, otherwise \$D3 If scheduled \$E3, otherwise \$F3 If scheduled \$G3, otherwise \$ H3	Cd + Cm
4. Upgrade	0 = good as new 1 = operable – minor deterioration 2 = operable – major deterioration 3 = inoperable	If scheduled, \$0; otherwise \$X4 If scheduled, \$0; otherwise \$Y4 If scheduled, \$0; otherwise \$Z4 If scheduled, \$M4; otherwise \$N4	If scheduled \$A4, otherwise \$B4 If scheduled \$C4, otherwise \$D4 If scheduled \$E4, otherwise \$F4 If scheduled \$G4, otherwise \$ H4	Cd + Cm




Obsolescence

Binary Decision Variable *S* (keep=0, upgrade=1)

 $S = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if equipment age, performance and/or market competition are$ *not* $issues} \\ 1, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

Computers, software or electronics are more market driven than (for example) radars.





New Thinking

Classification of different methodologies as a function of:

- obsolescence definitions
- types of equipment analyzed

Obsolescence Model should be applicable to equipment:

- whose upgrades are age-dependent but also include market consideration
- whose upgrades are primarily market driven





New Thinking

Technology is improving: old systems are phased out and eventually replaced by newer models.

When making decisions on whether to keep a piece of equipment or replace it with a new-technology (currently available on the market), we take into consideration that it might be better to keep the old equipment and wait until it is replaced with an even newer and more advanced technology.

Technology changes stochastically: costs associated with technology can vary with time; introduction of technology has a probabilistic nature.





New Thinking

Consider the following variables as uncertain:

- the time at which the new technology becomes available
- the cost of the new technology

These are important issues when making maintenance decisions.





Proposed Methodology

Optimization Technique:

Methodology to obtain optimal solutions by working backward from the end of a problem to the beginning, by breaking up a larger problem into a series of smaller, more tractable problems.

Dynamic Programming (DP) is often used to solve network, inventory, and resource allocation problems.

DP is used as a central methodology to find optimal replacing.



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SERVICE AVAILABILITY

FAULT TREE ANALYSIS

AIRPORT PERFORMANCE ASSESSMENTS

October 14, 2004

Second Part of the Afternoon Session





What is availability?

What is service availability?

What factors affect airport and terminal area availability?

How do we determine airport/airspace availability?



Availability: probability (or fraction of time) the system is operating.



Traditional availability estimates consider weather and equipment availability separately.

Equipment Availability: A = MTBF / (MTBF + MTTR)

$$A_{\rm op} = (t_{\rm s} - t_{\rm down}) / t_{\rm s}$$

Weather Availability: $A_w = \frac{MTBC}{MTBC + MTTC}$





However, during bad weather conditions airport availability for arrivals is different from the availability for departures due to different ceiling and visibility requirements.

Airport equipage influences weather availability: if an airport is not CAT III equipped, weather related availability is lower.



Relation between Weather Availability for Arrivals and Equipment Availability for CAT III Approaches

NEXTOR

Airport Service Availability



Airport arrival service availability and departure service availability: includes weather and equipment availability for each primary wind direction and noise constraint.

It is a percentage of time (or probability) that a service for arrivals and departures is being provided.



Arrival Service Availability



Airport Service Availability



Arrival/Runway Service Availability





Conceptual approach for airport service availability:

- 1) arrival and departure equipment availability estimated separately for each weather condition
 - (VFR, IFR CAT I, CAT II and CAT III) using

Fault Tree Analysis (FTA)

- 2) single runway availability is combined with that of other runways used within a particular runway configuration.
- 3) arrival and departure availability for each runway configuration used for service availability





$\sqrt{SERVICE AVAILABILITY}$

FAULT TREE ANALYSIS

AIRPORT PERFORMANCE ASSESSMENTS



Fault Tree Analysis (FTA)



A Fault Tree is a graphical method of describing the combination of events leading to a defined system failure. In fault tree terminology the system failure mode is known as the top event. The fault tree involves three logical possibilities and two main symbols.









The OR gate: any input causes the output to occur. The AND gate: all inputs need to occur for the output to occur. The voted gate: two or more inputs are needed for the output to occur.



Boolean algebraic equations: C = L + G + D + R + L $D = N \times (E + V)$ Unavailability C: $C = L + G + (N \times E) + (N \times V) + D + R + L$



The runway availability for arrivals *a* on runway *r* in configuration *f* (for a primary wind direction *w* and noise constraint *n*) A_{wnfr}^{a} is:



: arrival availability for weather category c, for runway r

c : perc

: percentage of time weather category c is use

C : weather category



2) single runway availability is combined with that of other runways used within a particular runway configuration.

$$A_{wnf}^{\alpha} = 1 - (1 - A_{wnfr}^{\alpha})$$
 single runway availability

 $A_{wnf}^{\alpha} = 1 - (1 - A_{wnfr_1}^{\alpha})(1 - A_{wnfr_2}^{\alpha})....(1 - A_{wnfr_n}^{\alpha}), \text{ for } r_i = r_1....r_n$

where *n* is the number of runways





TT7

3) arrival availability for each runway configuration used for service availability

The total airport arrival service availability A^{α} is weighted by the percentage of use of each previously calculated availability.

$$A^{\alpha} = \sum_{w=1}^{W} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{f=1}^{F} y_{wnf} A^{\alpha}_{wnf}$$

$$W : number of primary wind directions$$

$$N : number of noise constraints$$

$$F : number of runway configurations$$

$$y_{wnf} : percentage of time each runway configuration f was in use in primary wind direction w and noise constraint n$$





Airport Availability Estimates Case Study: Newark International Airport (EWR)



EWR Runway Geometry





Required Data

EWR Runway IFR Capability

Runway Configuration Information

Outages by NAPRS Cause Code

Total Downtime by NAPRS Cause Code

Runway Configuration Information

Percent Occurrence of Weather Categories by Month, Daytime Hours



QRAS Software



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QRAS Software



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Parameter	Description	Availability
A _A	Airport Arrival Availability	0.9950
A _D	Airport Departure Availability	0.9946
A _{AC1}	Arrival Availability for Configuration 1	0.9982
A _{DC1}	Departure Availability for Configuration 1	0.9931
A _{AC2}	Arrival Availability for Configuration 2	0.9573
A _{DC2}	Departure Availability for Configuration 2	0.9931
A _{AC3}	Arrival Availability for Configuration 3	1.0000
A _{DC3}	Departure Availability for Configuration 3	0.9965
A _{AC4}	Arrival Availability for Configuration 4	0.9989
A _{DC4}	Departure Availability for Configuration 4	0.9965

Arrival and Departure Configuration Availabilities





Arrival and Departure Configuration Availabilities





$\sqrt{SERVICE AVAILABILITY}$ $\sqrt{FAULT TREE ANALYSIS}$

AIRPORT PERFORMANCE ASSESSMENTS: Censored Regression – Tobit Model

Deterministic Queuing Model





Factors Affecting Airport Performance

- Equipment outages (scheduled/unscheduled)
- Weather (wind/visibility...)
- Air traffic control procedures



Censored Regression Tobit Model

Objective:

To make a clear distinction between demand and capacity impacts on airport throughput.

To remove the impact of increased demand on airport throughput and to determine if unscheduled outages had any effect on airport performance

A special regression is used that included censored data. The censored data is defined as the smaller value between capacity and demand.





Runway Service Alternatives







Data

- FAA MMS: Maintenance Management System data base (equipment outages)
- ASPM: Aviation System Performance Metrics data base (airport quarter-hour throughput, weather conditions, flight rules)
- San Francisco International Airport
- Phoenix Sky Harbor International Airport



Censored Regression Tobit Model

Dependent variable: Max throughput (capacity) in 15 minutes

Explanatory variables:

- Equipment outage: dummy variable
- Flight rule (IFR/VFR): dummy variable
- Wind direction/speed: by runway direction
- Visibility

etc



Censored Regression Tobit Model



If demand is less than capacity, a runway could accommodate all demand.

On the other hand, if demand exceeds capacity, throughput would reach the capacity limit, resulting in unserved demand (i.e., delays), and a portion of demand would not be served.

NEXTOR Censored Regression - Tobit Model

$$Arr_{t} = \begin{cases}
Capacity_{t} = \beta_{0t} + \sum_{n=1}^{N} \beta_{nt} x_{nt} + \varepsilon_{t}, & \text{if } \beta_{0t} + \sum_{n=1}^{N} \beta_{nt} x_{nt} + \varepsilon_{t} < Demand_{t}, \\
Demand_{t}, & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}$$

$$Arr_{t} \quad \text{arrival throughput in time interval , which is usually 15 minutes;}$$

$$\beta_{0t} \quad \text{constant to be estimated in the model in time interval ;}$$

$$\beta_{nt} \quad n_{th} \text{ coefficients to be estimated in time interval ;}$$

$$x_{nt} \quad n_{th} \text{ independent variable in time interval ;}$$

$$\varepsilon_{t} \quad \text{error term of the model in time interval ;}$$

$$Demand_{t} \quad \text{demand in time interval ;}$$

Methodology for Aircraft Throughput during Outages



Tobit Model





Methodology for Aircraft Throughput during Outages




Analysis - VOR

Very High Frequency Omni-directional Range: determines aircraft position/distance





List of VOR Short Unscheduled Outages at SFO

List of VOR Outages at SFO								
Facility Type	Code Category	Interrupt Condition Coutage Local Start Date and Time		Outage Local End Date and Time				
VOR	80	FL	5/8/01 16:25	5/8/01 18:50				
VOR	80	FL	7/24/01 16:50	7/24/01 19:55				
VOR	80	FL	8/23/01 14:25	8/23/01 15:25				
VOR	80	FL	9/30/01 18:40	9/30/01 19:25				
VOR	80	FL	10/14/01 16:12	10/14/01 17:40				
VOR	80	FL	10/14/01 16:30	10/14/01 17:40				
VOR	80	FL	4/12/02 16:30	4/12/02 18:50				
VOR	80	FL	6/5/02 15:19	6/5/02 20:30				
VOR	80	FL	7/9/02 14:55	7/9/02 16:44				





Analysis Results - VOR

Runway Configuration	Weather Condition	Time Interval (local)	Estimated Affect of Throughput	t-value	P-value (Significance level 0.05)	Observations
					0.0855	2667
					(not significant)	
28L, 28R	VFR	14:00 pm-21:00 pm	0.7859	1.72		
					0.712	2667
					(not significant)	
1L, 1R	VFR	14:00pm-21:00 pm	0.2202	0.37		
					0.2356	1232
					(not significant)	
28L, 28R	VFR	14:00 pm-21:00 pm	-1.161	-1.19		
					0.5505	1232
					(not significant)	
28L,28R	VFR	14:00 pm-21:00 pm	-0.4502	-0.6		





Reconstruction - VOR







Reconstruction - VOR

Airport Adaptability: ability to shift to different air traffic procedures or a set of equipment facilities in order to accommodate new circumstances related to equipment outages.





Analysis – ALSF-2

Approach Lighting System with Sequenced Flashing Lights: impact depends on the visibility, located on runway 28R at SFO







Analysis – ALSF-2

List of ALSF-2 Outages at SFO								
Facility	Runway	Code	Interrupt	Outage	Outage			
Туре		Category	Condition	Local Start Date and Time	Local End Date and Time			
ALSF-2	28R	80	RS	7/28/2000 18:00	7/28/2000 20:00			
ALSF-2	28R	80	RS	8/9/2000 20:00	8/9/2000 22:00			
ALSF-2	28R	80	FL	9/2/2000 19:30	9/2/2000 20:30			
ALSF-2	28R	80	RS	11/15/2000 16:55	11/15/2000 17:30			
ALSF-2	28R	80	FL	12/9/2000 1:30	12/9/2000 2:30			
ALSF-2	28R	80	RS	3/19/2001 18:47	3/19/2001 20:20			
ALSF-2	28R	80	FL	3/19/2001 18:47	3/19/2001 20:20			





Reconstruction – ALSF-2



IFR: 2 arrival streams \rightarrow 1 stream on 28R

ALSF-2 outage & IFR: single arrival stream on 28R → 28L



Runway Configuration (arrivals departures)	Weather Condition (IFR of VFR)	Time Interval (local)	Dummy Variable	Estimated Affect on Throughput **	t-value	Significance at 0.05 Level	Number of Observations ***
28L, 28R	VFR	18:00 pm- 22:00 pm	Outage* (occurred)	0.2904	0.30	0.7628 (not significant)	1684
1L, 1R	VFR	18:00 pm- 22:00 pm	Outage	1.127	1.16	0.2452 (not significant)	1684
28L, 28R	IFR	18:00 pm- 22:00 pm	Outage	19.4989	0.00	0.9999 (not significant)	5759
1L, 1R	IFR	18:00 pm- 22:00 pm	Outage	-3.2371	-0.92	0.3590 (not significant)	5759

* Outage = 1 if there was an ALSF-2 outage during the period j; otherwise Outage = 0.
** Estimated change in quarter-hour throughput.
*** Each observation is 1 quarter-hour period.



Reconstruction – ALSF-2

Airport Re-configurability:

airport's ability to switch operations to a different runway in case of equipment outages, or utilize a set of equipment facilities with similar functions to maintain a desired level of performance.





Conclusions

VOR and ALSF-2 unscheduled outages do not have significant impact on arrival and departure throughputs at SFO

Airport is highly adaptable and re-configurable regarding VORs and runway lights.





Consequences of equipment outages are very much airport specific.

SFO is not sensitive to VOR unscheduled outages during IFR and VFR conditions.

ALSF-2 unscheduled outages during the IFR conditions do not cause capacity degradation.



Analysis of PHX Airport





Phoenix Sky Harbor International Airport



ATCRBS Results



Runway Configuration (arrivals departures)	Weather Condition (IFR of VFR)	Dummy Variable	Estimated Affect on Throughput**	t-value	Significance at 0.05 Level	Number of Observations***
25L, 26	VFR	Outage* (occurred)	-0.94	-7.51	<.0001 (significant)	34486
25R	VFR	Outage	-0.53	-1.72	0.0856 (not significant)	34486
7R, 8	VFR	Outage	-1.14	-4.64	<.0001 (significant)	29404
7L	VFR	Outage	-1.13	-3.86	0.0001 (significant)	29404

* Outage = 1 if there was a ATCRBS outage during the period j; otherwise Outage = 0.

** Estimated change in quarter-hour throughput.

*** Each observation is 1 quarter-hour period.

Analysis Results for ATCRBS at PHX





West flow (25L,26 | 25R):

• the arrival throughput decreased by 0.94 operation per quarter-hour,

East flow (7R, 8 | 7R):

- the arrival throughput decreased by 1.14 operations per quarter-hour
- departure throughput decreased 1.13 operations per quarterhour

We found the quantitative evidence of the reduction in arrival and departure throughputs due to the outages of the main ATCRBS system.



Mode S Results



Runway Configuration (arrivals departures)	Weather Condition (IFR of VFR)	Dummy Variable	Estimated Affect on Throughput**	t-value	Significance at 0.05 Level	Number of Observations***
25L, 26	VFR	Outage* (occurred)	-0.6	-4.88	<.0001 (significant)	34486
25R	VFR	Outage	-0.94	-5.08	<.0001 (significant)	34486
7R, 8	VFR	Outage	-0.81	-4.26	<.0001 (significant)	29404
7L	VFR	Outage	-0.96	-6.09	<.0001 (significant)	29404

* Outage = 1 if there was a Mode S outage during the period j; otherwise Outage = 0.

** Estimated change in quarter-hour throughput.

*** Each observation is 1 quarter-hour period.

Analysis Results for Mode S at PHX





When PHX airport operated in the West flow (25L, 26 | 25R) in the VFR conditions:

- the arrival throughput decreased by 0.6 operations per quarter-hour
- the departure throughput decreased by 0.94 operations per quarter-hour.

In the East flow, during the VFR conditions, with aircraft arriving on runways 7R and 8:

• the throughput decreased by 0.81 operations per quarter-hour.

Under the same conditions, when aircraft departed from runway 7L:

• the throughput decreased 0.96 per quarter-hour.

The full outages of Mode S, due to the loss of the overlapping radar coverage, resulted in both arrival and departure throughput deteriorations.





$\sqrt{SERVICE AVAILABILITY}$ $\sqrt{FAULT TREE ANALYSIS}$

AIRPORT PERFORMANCE ASSESSMENTS: \[1] Censored Regression - Tobit Model Deterministic Queuing Model





Deterministic modeling

(1)

A deterministic aircraft separation model is used to estimate airport/runway capacity. This method is useful for quick estimates of the number of aircraft operations per facility under some predefined conditions (i.e., mile-in-trail separation and aircraft mix). However, these methods do not provide delay estimates.



(2)



A deterministic *queuing approach* is then used to estimate capacity and delays due to single outages for a hypothetical airport (i.e., to estimate the impact of outages on runway throughput) and terminal airspace area.

Deterministic queuing analysis is used for calculating aircraft *delays*, numbers of aircraft experiencing queuing, and queue duration. This method can handle traffic conditions where both the *arrival and service rates vary over time*.





Deterministic Aircraft Separation Model:

considers arrivals only, and assumes that the runway occupancy time is not the bottleneck in the system

 $T_{i}: \text{ time when lead aircraft } i \text{ passes over runway threshold}$ $T_{j}: \text{ time when following aircraft } j \text{ passes over runway threshold}$ $[T_{ij}] = T_{j} - T_{i}: \text{ matrix of actual time separations at runway threshold}$ for two successive arrivals, an aircraft of speed class i followed by an aircraft of speed class j $p_{ij} : \text{ probability that a lead aircraft of class } i \text{ will be}$ followed by a trail aircraft of class j $E[T_{ij}] = : \text{ expected value of } T_{ij}, \text{ i.e., mean service time}$



NEXTOR Deterministic Aircraft Separation Method







Case: $V_i > V_j$

Source: Horonjeff (1994)

Case: $V_i < V_j$

NEXTOR
 Image: Second structure

 Capacity is

$$C_r = \frac{1}{E[T_{ij}]}$$

 Degraded Capacity
 $c_r^d = \begin{cases} 0 & , \text{if ILS fails} \\ \frac{1}{E[affected matrix T_{ij}]}, \text{if other equipment fails} \end{cases}$

 Capacity Loss $c_r^l = \begin{cases} all(C_r) & , \text{if ILS fails} \\ C_r - \frac{1}{E[affected matrix T_{ij}]}, \text{if other equipment fails} \end{cases}$





Airport Capacity and Capacity Loss for Different Mile-in-Trail Separations and Aircraft Mixes



Varying Service Rate Case

Deterministic queuing analysis is applied at a macroscopic level, i.e. by modeling continuous aircraft flows rather than individual aircraft.





Pulsed Service Problem

The arrivals to the terminal area or an airport (i.e., runway) have a constant arrival rate (λ = aircraft/hour) but the service rate (μ = aircraft per hour) is "pulsed" (time-dependent) and may be defined as follows:

 $\mu = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{, if the ILS or any equipment that closes the server is out} \\ \mu_2 & \text{, if the equipment functions} \end{cases}$





Deterministic Queuing Diagram for ILS Outages



NEXTOR Localizer-sender Middle Marker Outer Marker [⊭] B Glide Path-sender [⊦] c E) С A

Instrument Landing System (ILS)







On-board ILS Gauge from a Boeing 747-400 Aircraft





1) Queue duration:
$$t_Q = \frac{\mu_2 \times r}{\mu_2 - \lambda}$$

2) Number of aircraft experiencing queue: $N_Q = (\lambda \times t_Q)/3600$

3) average aircraft delay:
$$d = \frac{r \times t_Q}{2L}$$

4) total delay: $T_d = \frac{r \times t_Q \times Z}{2}$





Aircraft Time in Queue for Various ILS Outage Durations





Number of Aircraft in Queue for Various ILS Outage Durations





Total Delay for Various ILS Outage Durations





This model is applicable to the precision approaches for CAT I, II and III.





Varying Service Rate

- the arrival rate is constant
- the service rate is varied (i.e., degraded) due to the equipment failures but the server (i.e., runway) is not completely closed





Deterministic Queuing Diagram for ASR Outages




The service rate is defined as:

 $\mu = \begin{cases} \mu_1 & \text{, if ASR or any other equipment that degrades server fails} \\ \mu_2 & \text{, if equipment functions properly} \end{cases}$

The same measures could be calculated:

- 1) Queue duration
- 2) Number of aircraft experiencing queue
- 3) Average aircraft delay
- 4) Total delay





Aircraft Time Spent in Queue for Various ASR Outage Durations and Degraded Service Rates and Arrival Rates





Total Aircraft Delay for Various ASR Outage Durations, Degraded Service Rates and Arrival Rates