

Title Case Study 1: The De Havilland Comet Air Disasters

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Case Overview

In 1954, two De Havilland Comet jets, the world's first commercial jetliners, broke apart in mid-air within months of each other. The cause was a mystery that launched one of the most famous engineering investigations in history, fundamentally changing how aircraft are designed. Your task is to be the materials science detective.

Key Questions to Investigate:

- What was the specific mechanism of failure?
- Why did the cracks start at the corners of the square windows?
- How did the pressurization and depressurization of the cabin with each flight contribute to the failure?
- What changes were made to aircraft design and materials testing as a result of this investigation?

Relevant Course Concepts:

- Stress-Strain Curves: Understanding the stress the fuselage was under.
- Elastic Properties: The behavior of the aluminum skin under pressure.
- Concept of Dislocations: How cracks propagate at a microscopic level through dislocation motion.
- Surfaces & Interfaces: The aircraft's skin as an external surface where failure initiated.

My Analysis

Introduction

The De Havilland Comet, introduced in 1952, represented a leap in aviation as the world's first commercial jetliner. Its speed and pressurized cabin, which allowed it to fly higher and faster than its contemporaries, promised to revolutionize air travel. However, this promising debut was cut short by a series of catastrophic mid-air failures in 1954, where two aircraft disintegrated without warning. The incidents grounded the entire Comet fleet and launched one of the most exhaustive and influential engineering investigations in history. This investigation would uncover a then-poorly understood failure mechanism, metal fatigue, and fundamentally reshape the principles of aircraft design, materials science, and structural testing for all future aerospace journeys.

Problem Analysis

The primary cause of the Comet failures was determined to be catastrophic structural failure originating from metal fatigue in the aluminum alloy fuselage. Fatigue is a process of progressive structural damage that occurs when a material is subjected to repeated or fluctuating loads, even when those loads are well below the material's tensile strength. For the Comet, the cyclic loading was provided by the pressurization and depressurization of the cabin during each flight's ascent and descent.

The failure was consistently initiated at the corners of the aircraft's large, square windows. From a materials science perspective, these sharp corners acted as significant stress concentrators. Although the fuselage skin was designed to handle the general stress from pressurization, the geometry of a sharp corner prevents stress from flowing smoothly through the material. Instead, stress lines are forced to bunch together, creating a localized area where the stress is amplified to a level several times greater than the average stress across the fuselage skin.

This high, localized stress exceeded the fatigue endurance limit of the aluminum alloy. Consequently, with each flight cycle, microscopic cracks began to form at the corners of the windows, specifically around rivet holes used for the window frames, which acted as further microscopic stress raisers. These cracks, though initially imperceptible, propagated incrementally with every subsequent pressurization cycle, weakening the structure until it could no longer support the cabin pressure, resulting in explosive decompression and total structural collapse.

Calculation

The discrepancy between the designed strength of the fuselage and its catastrophic failure can be explained quantitatively through stress analysis. The general stress experienced by the skin of a thin-walled cylindrical pressure

vessel is known as hoop stress. This stress can be calculated using a standard engineering formula. The known parameters for the De Havilland Comet were:

- Internal cabin pressure differential (P): 8.25 pounds per square inch (psi)
- Fuselage radius (r): approximately 60 inches
- Aluminum skin thickness (t): approximately 0.072 inches

The formula for hoop stress (σ) is:

$$\sigma = (P * r) / t$$

Substituting the values for the Comet:

$$\sigma = (8.25 \text{ psi} * 60 \text{ in}) / 0.072 \text{ in}$$

$$\sigma = 6875 \text{ psi}$$

This calculated average stress of 6,875 psi was well within the safe operational limits for the DTD 546 aluminum alloy used, which had an ultimate tensile strength exceeding 60,000 psi. However, this calculation does not account for the geometric effect of the square windows. The sharp corners introduced a stress concentration factor (K_t) estimated to be around 3. The actual maximum stress experienced at these corners was therefore:

$$\text{Maximum stress at corner } (\sigma_{\text{max}}) = K_t * \sigma$$

$$\sigma_{\text{max}} = 3 * 6875 \text{ psi}$$

$$\sigma_{\text{max}} = 20,625 \text{ psi}$$

This localized stress, although still less than half the material's ultimate strength, was sufficient to initiate and propagate fatigue cracks over a relatively small number of flight cycles, leading to premature failure.

Discussion

The findings of the Comet investigation had profound and immediate consequences for the aerospace industry. The most direct result was a fundamental change in aircraft design, mandating that all openings in pressurized fuselages, including windows and doors, must have rounded corners. By using a radius, the stress concentration factor is

dramatically reduced, allowing stress to be distributed more evenly and preventing the formation of localized fatigue cracks. This design principle remains a non-negotiable standard in all modern aircraft.

Thus, the investigation revolutionized the protocols for structural testing. Prior to the Comet disasters, airframes were typically subjected to static tests to prove they could withstand loads significantly higher than those expected in service. The Comet investigation demonstrated that this was insufficient. A new testing methodology was developed, involving the full-scale fatigue testing of an entire airframe. In a purpose-built water tank, a test fuselage was repeatedly filled with and drained of water to simulate thousands of pressurization and depressurization cycles. This hydrostatic testing allowed engineers to observe how fatigue cracks initiated and propagated over the simulated lifespan of an aircraft in a safe, controlled manner.

This practice of comprehensive, full-scale fatigue testing is now a mandatory part of the certification process for any new commercial aircraft. The investigation also spurred the development of the "fail-safe" and "damage tolerance" design philosophies, which assume that flaws will inevitably exist in a structure and aim to ensure that such flaws can be detected and repaired before they become critical.

Conclusion

The De Havilland Comet disasters stand as a crucial, albeit tragic, turning point in the history of engineering. The failures were not due to a single error but to a lack of understanding of metal fatigue under the new operational conditions of high-altitude jet flight. The subsequent investigation uncovered the chain of causation: a design feature (square windows) created stress concentrations, which, when subjected to the cyclic loading of cabin pressurization, led to fatigue cracking and finally catastrophic structural failure. The lessons learned from the Comet directly led to safer aircraft designs, more rigorous testing standards, and a deeper understanding of materials science. The legacy of the Comet is thus written in the design and operational safety of every commercial flight that takes to the skies today.