



Stair Pressurisation

'The Firefighters View'



Stair Pressurisation

Why did the fire turn right into the corridor?

Understanding pressure differentials in high-rise fires

Paul Grimwood PhD FFireE takes a look at smoke control design from over the years and how their effects are present today.

In 1980 the New York City Fire Department Chief, Edward Croker, informed the New York State Assembly that the fire department could not successfully combat a fire in a building greater than 7 stories tall. Three months later a fire in the Triangle Shirtwaist Company, which occupied the top three floors of a ten story building in New York City, resulted in the deaths of 146 people. As a result of that fire, many improvements were made to the life safety of buildings. Many of these early developments in fire safety design are now commonly seen throughout our own UK building guidance. However it could be considered that some of our early smoke control objectives may have been misconstrued, resulting in inappropriate and potentially hazardous designs that remain with us today.

Why did the fire turn right instead of left? (pressure differentials)

It is now well understood by our firefighters that both naturally occurring or forced pressure differentials, particularly in a tall building fire, may impact greatly on their safety as well as their ability to function effectively during firefighting and search operations. Natural buoyancy, stack effects, external winds and the configuration of natural or mechanical smoke

ventilation systems may all influence levels of fire intensity, firefighter's exposure to sudden temperature changes and smoke travel within common areas. Whilst smoke control systems are primarily intended to protect escaping occupants, it remains critical they are carefully configured and installed in order to also protect the lives of firefighters. Any potential for undesirable impacts on fire development will influence critical command decision making, particularly when prioritising the tactical protection of stairwells over an immediate firefighting intervention, or vice versa.

Using a graphic video of flames entering the corridor from a flat fire I posed the question in a series of command training seminars, 'why did the fire turn right into the corridor and not left?' The fire officers instantly became aware of the likely pressure differentials existing in the corridor, created by a corridor smoke ventilation shaft located immediately adjacent to the firefighting stair from which they would be advancing. This demonstrated clearly how a negative pressure existing behind their advance could increase temperatures in their approach path to the fire as the fire turned right out of the flat doorway and headed towards the open smoke shaft. It is a known fact in the fire

It is now well understood by fire engineers in the fire and rescue service, that both naturally occurring or forced pressure differentials, particularly in a tall building fire, may impact greatly on firefighter safety as well as compromising their ability to function effectively during firefighting and search operations.

Whilst smoke control systems are primarily intended to protect escaping occupants, it remains critical they are carefully configured and installed in order to also protect the lives of firefighters.



In the 1940s, the UK regulatory guidance for fire safety designs in tall buildings was going through some detailed major post-war development. There was much collaboration at this time, between UK and US fire safety code development and the experience gained within the high-rise canyons of New York City seemed a logical route to follow.

We can see in UK Post War Building Studies (PWBS) Parts 1-4 (1946-1952) several references to naturally ventilated **'Fire Towers'** also known in the USA as **'Smokeproof Towers'**.



POST-WAR BUILDING STUDIES
NO. 29

FIRE GRADING OF BUILDINGS

PART II
FIRE FIGHTING EQUIPMENT

PART III
PERSONAL SAFETY

PART IV
CHIMNEYS AND FLUES

BY A JOINT COMMITTEE
OF THE BUILDING RESEARCH BOARD
OF THE DEPARTMENT
OF SCIENTIFIC & INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH
AND OF THE FIRE OFFICES' COMMITTEE



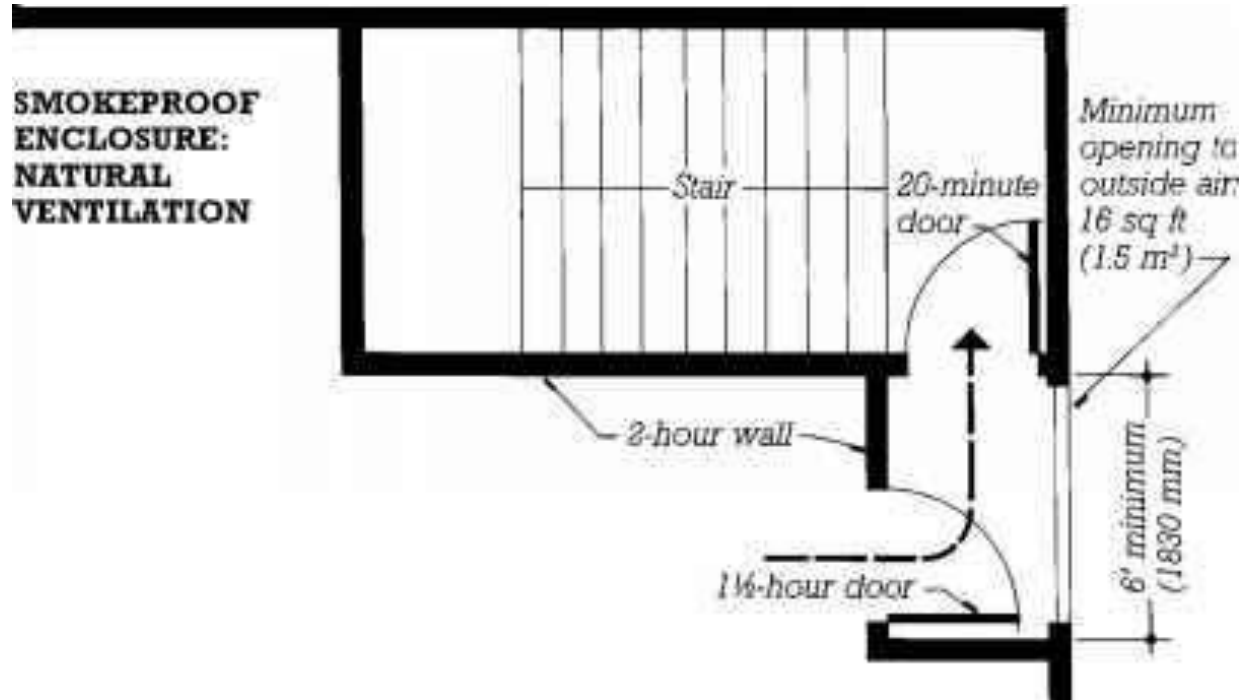
LONDON: 1952
PUBLISHED FOR THE MINISTRY OF WORKS
BY HER MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE

Access and Facilities for Firefighting (Fire Towers)

“The installation of **fire towers** in buildings has also to be considered from this standpoint. They form a valuable means of **access for firemen**. Although **fire towers** should strictly be considered in this Part of the Report as they are **designed essentially for access by firemen**, it is more convenient to treat them at the same time as staircases for means of escape”

“The question of the provision of **access for firemen by means of fire towers**, however, becomes important when buildings appreciably **over 100 ft (30m)** high are considered. Very few buildings of such heights have been built in this country although they are common in the **United States**”.

Fire Towers
in New York City
(Smokeproof Towers
Elsewhere in USA)



Exterior window or
naturally vented
SMOKE SHAFT



Fire Research Note
No. 958

PRESSURISATION OF ESCAPE
ROUTES IN BUILDINGS

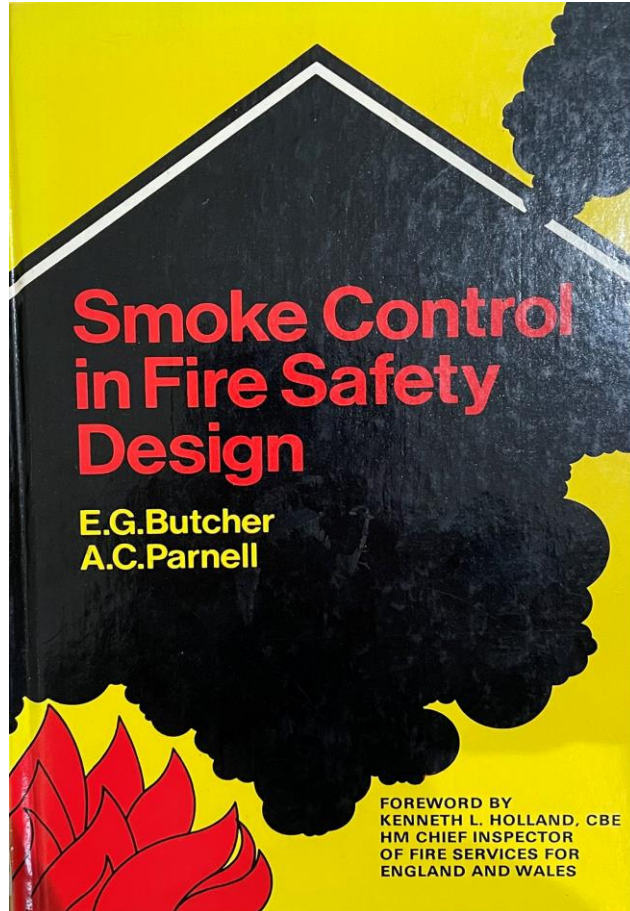
P J Hobson and L J Stewart

FIRE
RESEARCH
STATION

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1972 – FRN 958 “Against a background of economic pressure for internal staircases, various ideas for mechanical or natural ventilation as an alternative were tried. This led to natural vent shafts or mechanical extraction from staircases, but these **posed the problem of encouraging smoke movement towards the staircases.**

Consequently, the idea of pressurisation of escape routes was **further evolved**”.

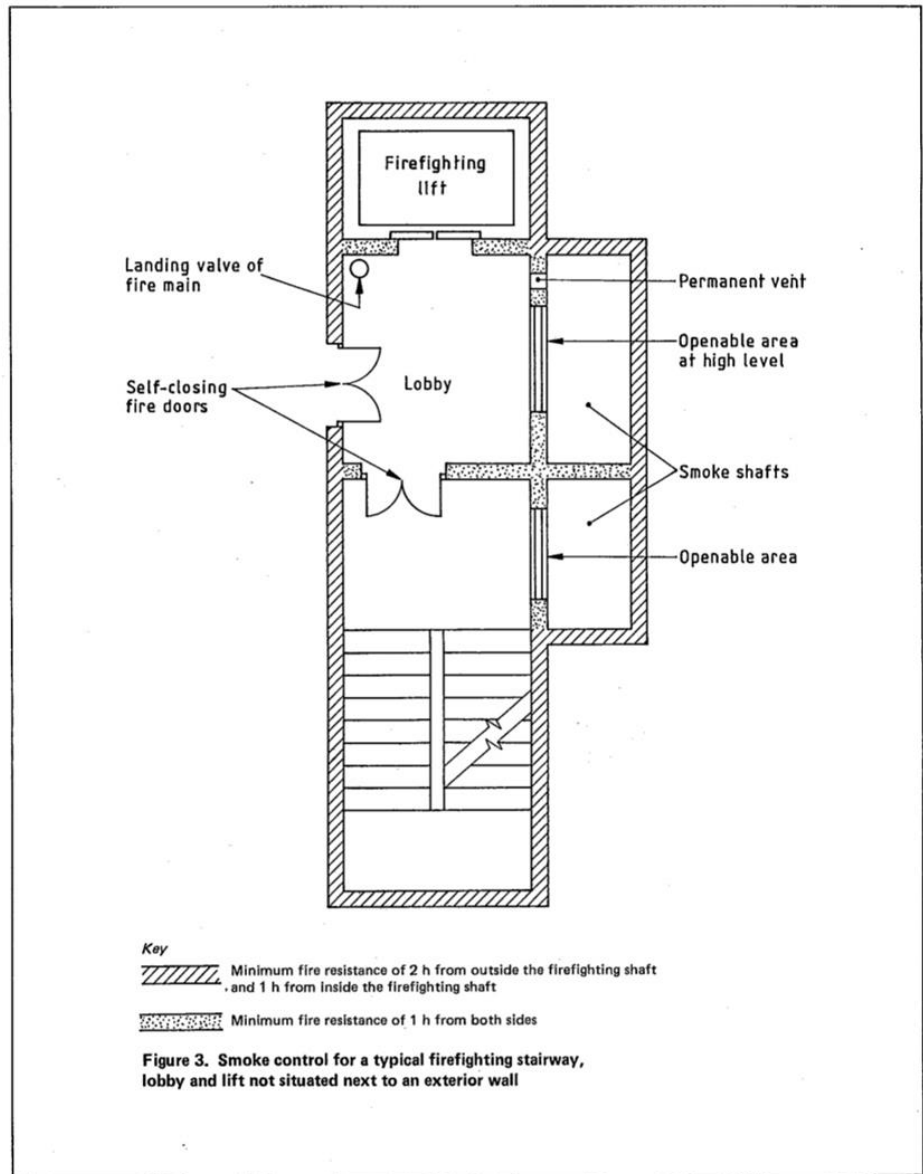


1979 – Brought together the (1964 – 1972) UK live fire test research, and other international research in Australia, Canada, USA, Germany and other parts of Europe.

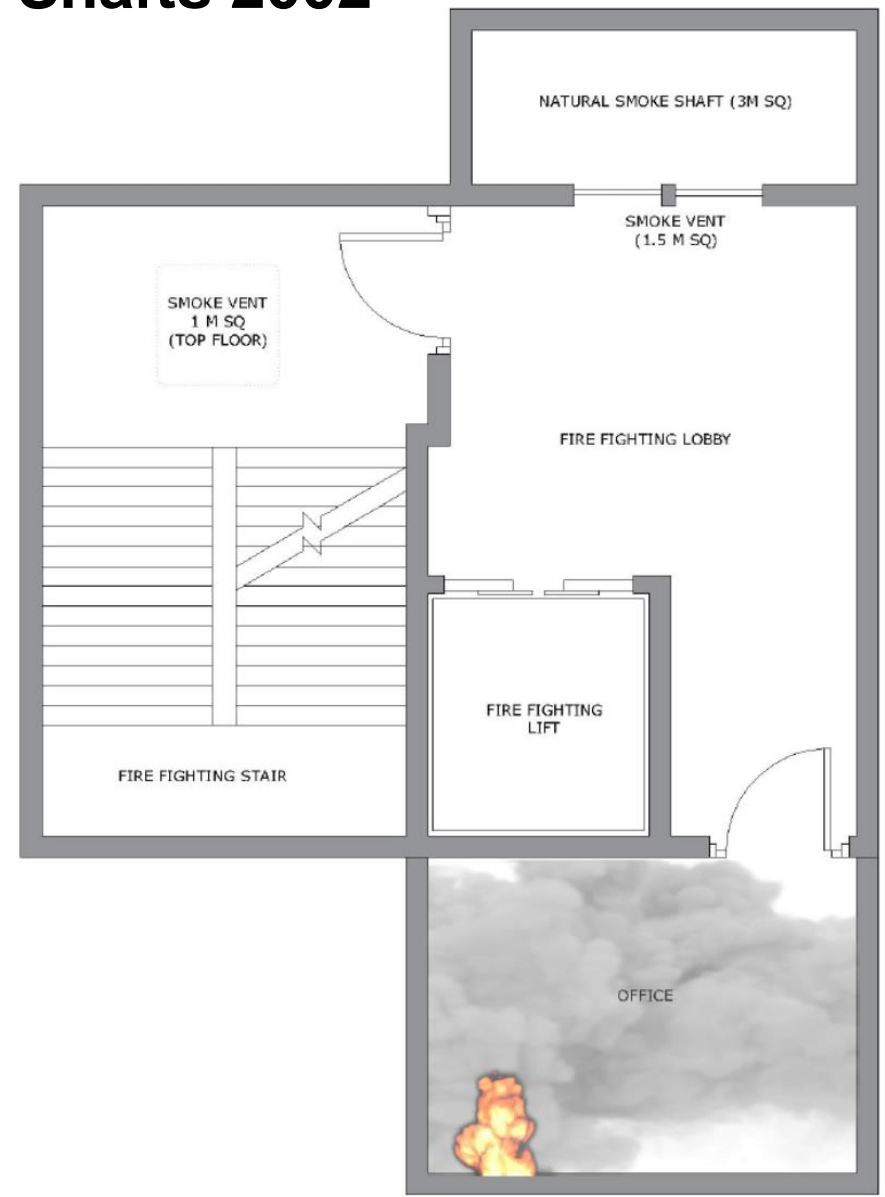
The general consensus of all the tests were extremely positive, resulting in code development and system design optimisations (BS 5588-4:1978 and BS 5588-5:1986).

Several buildings in London and around the UK followed his approach, until the naturally vented Smoke Shaft designs later became more common in design from 1986 onwards.

Natural U-W Tube Smoke Shafts 1986



BRE Natural Smoke Shafts 2002



BRE 79204 – 2002 – **Smoke Shafts protecting Firefighting Shafts**

*‘The performance of naturally ventilated smoke shafts is assessed in terms of how the shafts perform compared to the accepted method of external wall mounted ventilation. **This alternative design of smoke shaft [BRE 3m²] is not a replacement for pressure differential systems.***

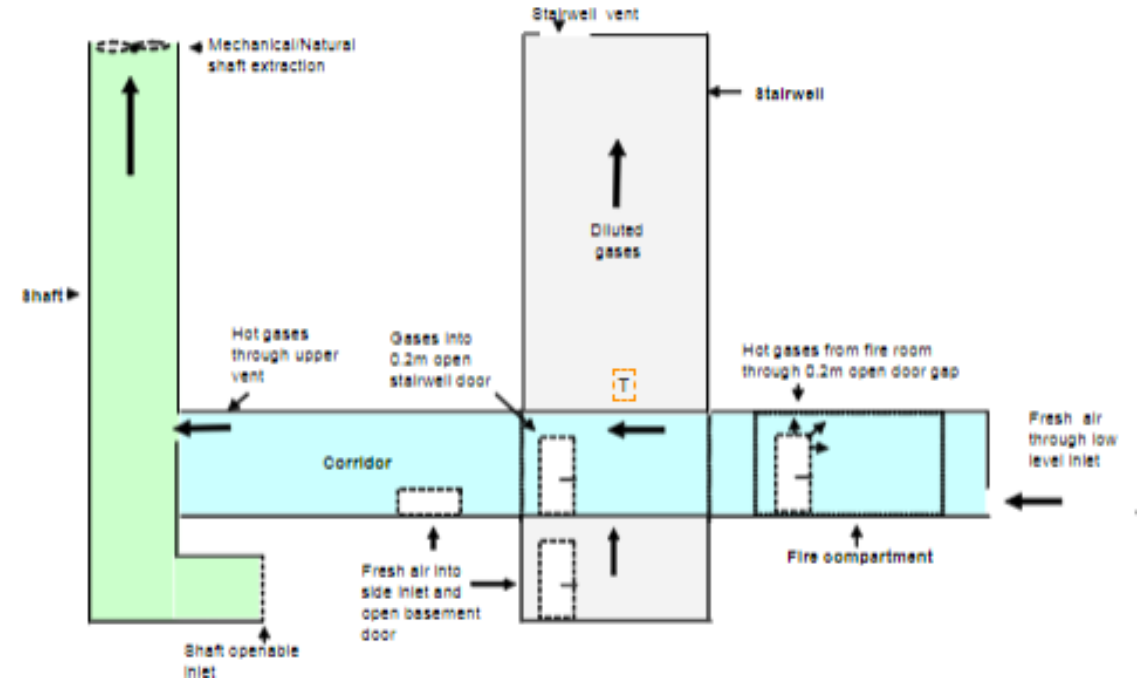
***Pressure differential systems** have specific advantages in providing a **higher standard of protection** in specific buildings, particularly those operating a means of escape strategy based on phased evacuation.*

*They can also provide a **greater level of protection to the fire-fighting lobby** itself than any of the natural ventilation systems discussed herein’.*



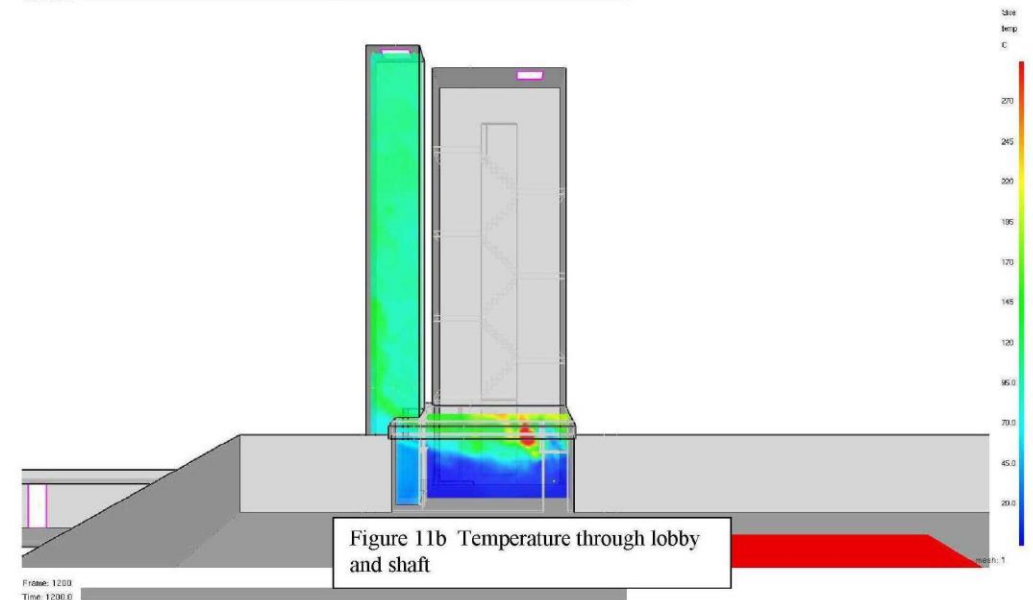
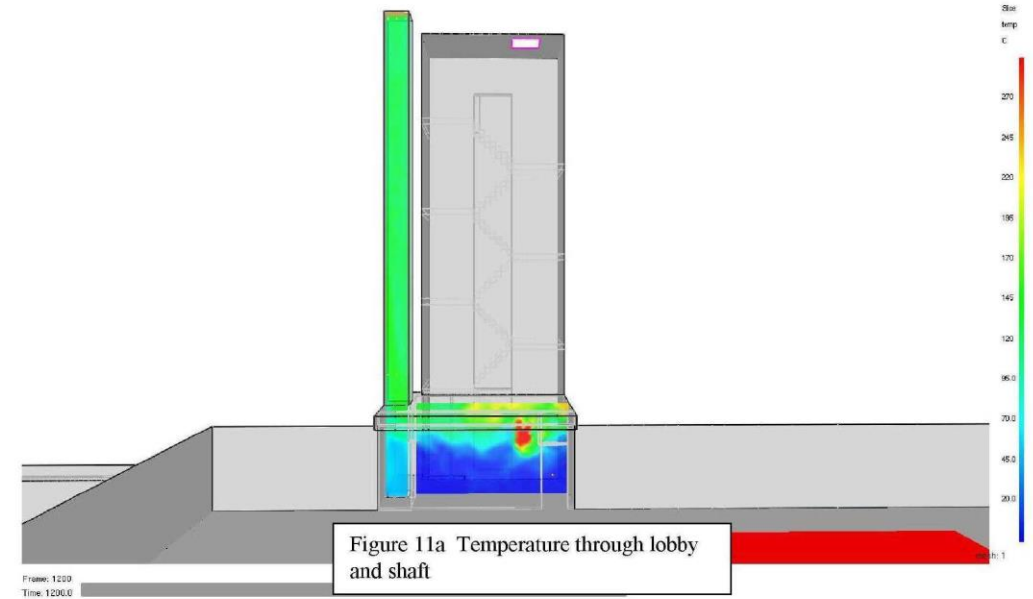
BRE BD 2410 – 2005 – Smoke Ventilation of Common Access areas to Flats & Marionettes

- The **pressurizing of stairs** and/or the **depressurizing of lobby corridors** for means of escape purpose – **2.5 MW Fires**
- The provision of smoke-rated doors, and two escape stairs with limited travel distances, as a **preferred option**, were seen as important



The introduction of Mechanical Smoke Ventilation Systems (MSVS) in 2006 came in the form of the **0.6m²** 'COLT SHAFT' (*top right*) using CFD to demonstrate equivalence to the BRE shaft (*bottom right*).

The pressures in the lobby/corridor were negative, directing smoke and occasionally high heat levels towards the extract shafts.



Control risks



Paul Grimwood raises concerns over the use of mechanical extract smoke control systems for common corridors in residential buildings

IN DESIGNING a building, the incorporation of a smoke control system may serve to enhance life safety or assist firefighting access, while also protecting structural components and building contents. However, where there is potential for such systems to actually serve to create hazards for firefighters and escaping occupants, there may be clear commercial benefits to be gained in utilising smoke control measures that are used as compensatory features in residential buildings. However, Kent Fire and Rescue Service has recently established a policy that serves to rigorously challenge the introduction of such fire engineered stairways without clear proof of concept, where firefighters and possibly relevant persons may be at an increased level of risk. Building control officers as well as approved inspectors may wish to become aware of this stance as it is likely to be some as controversial and some reasoned debate is likely to follow. Nevertheless, this should be encouraged and welcomed.

Smoke control objectives

- The primary objectives of smoke control systems are to:
- maintain smoke-free and tenable conditions within protected escape routes
 - assist firefighting operations by maintaining tenable conditions for firefighters
 - delay or prevent the onset of flashover and further fire development
 - reduce thermal damage to structural components
 - reduce smoke damage to the building and its contents

52 JUNE 2010 www.frmjournal.com

The various smoke control concepts rely upon natural or forced air movements, as follows:

- natural cross-flow ventilation
- natural buoyancy of hot smoke
- natural pressure differentials created by the difference in temperatures existing between the inside and outside of buildings
- mechanically created pressure differentials using powerful air movement fans to pressurise protected escape routes or depressurise fire-involved areas adjacent to escape routes
- mechanical smoke flushing systems that use fans to force air into protected routes, in order to dilute smoke before flushing it out via smoke shafts or exterior wall outlets
- mechanical smoke shafts or exterior wall outlets

A report from BRE in 2002 proposed a design of smoke shaft used to naturally ventilate stair lobbies with the primary objective of protecting escape stairs. The design concepts were limited to research that used real fire tests on small-scale models, validated by computational fluid dynamics (CFD) simulation based on a 2.5MW ventilated compartment fire. Later adaptations of this useful fire ventilational smoke extract systems using smaller-dimensioned smoke shafts to save on expensive floor space. However, this adaptation may cause many problems for firefighters and, at this time, there has been no research as to how such systems may function where under-ventilated fire conditions occur within a flat or compartment. Furthermore, the evacuation time for occupants may be compromised in several ways, depending on specific design features.

In order to ensure engineered smoke control systems are fit for purpose, the system designers must first demonstrate that

Access design



A recent modelling study has highlighted the risk of fire gases in a corridor igniting as firefighters access a residential apartment. **Paul Grimwood** looks at the implications for smoke ventilation design and fire service tactics

WHEN DESIGNING for automatic fan-assisted ventilation to common areas of multi-storey residential buildings, the fire engineer commonly utilise a worst-credible compartment design fire of 2MW producing well-ventilated conditions.

Remote ignitions

According to data from the Government post-flashover room fires ($4MW$) are confined to the compartment of origin in around 10% of all building

scenarios upon which to base a design may not be a well-ventilated scenario. A computer zone modelling study undertaken by Kent Fire and Rescue Service has explored this further by analysing data from 14 design scenarios involving different natural and fan-assisted smoke ventilation systems. fires, whereas post-flashover multi-compartment fires (>5MW) are noted in a further 10% of such incidents. It has also been observed that, in a smaller number of fires (0.5%), there is some form of abnormal behaviour beyond or outside the compartment of origin – often referred to by firefighters as 'remote ignitions'. These ignitions of smoke are sometimes related to 'auto-ignition' of combustion products and in other instances may be termed 'backdraughts', 'flash fires' or 'smoke explosions'.

www.frmjournal.com JULY / AUGUST 2011 29



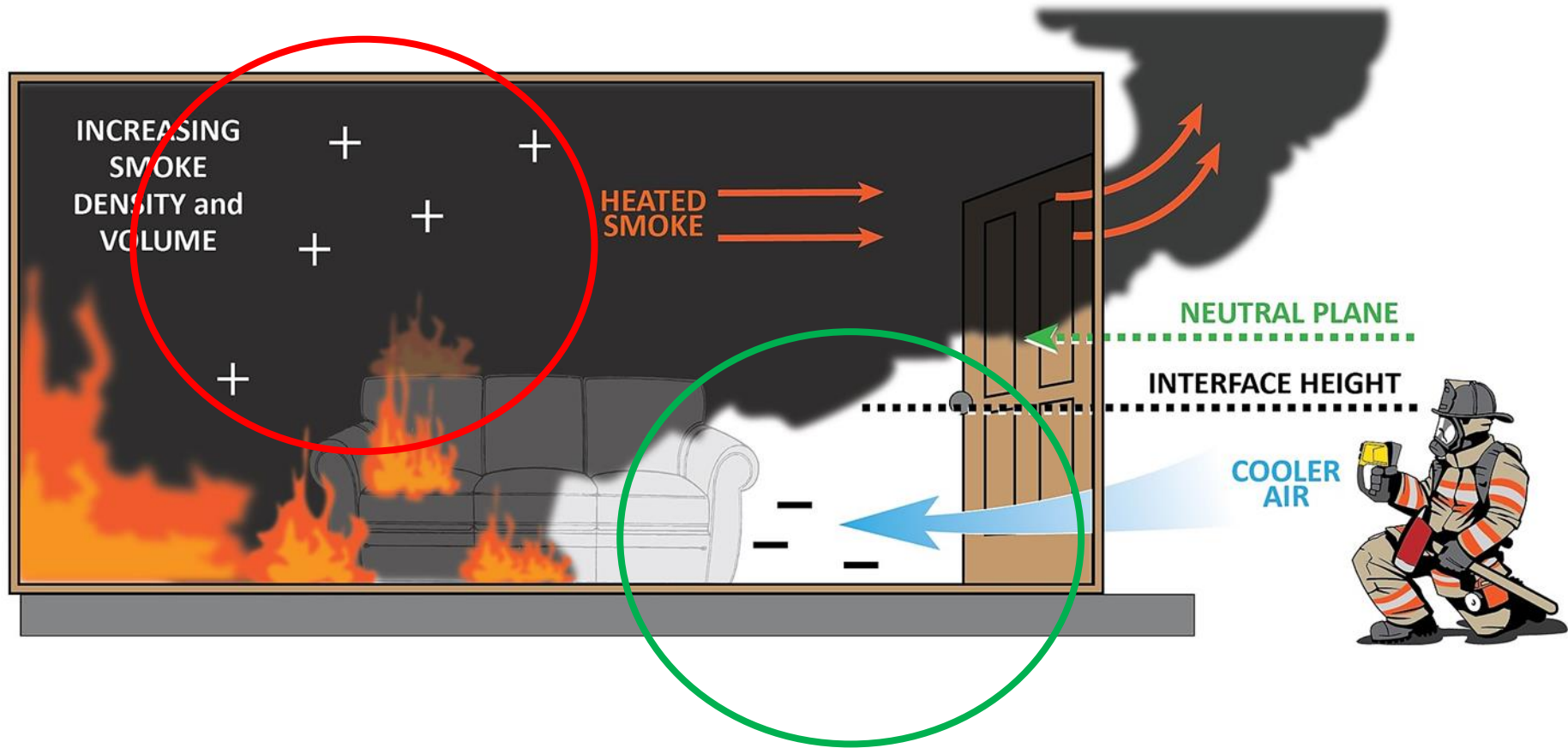


Closed Flat Fire - >10000 Pa



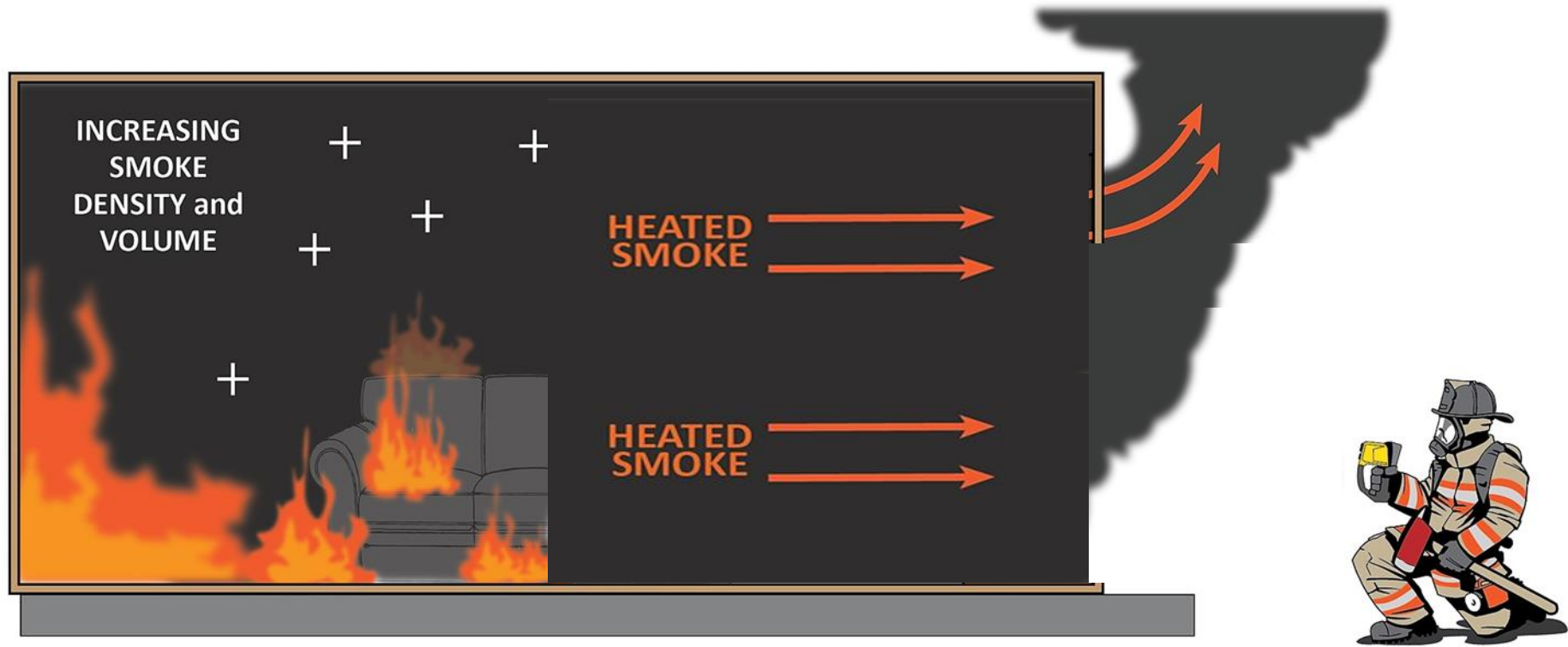


Normal Firefighting Pressures & Air Flows



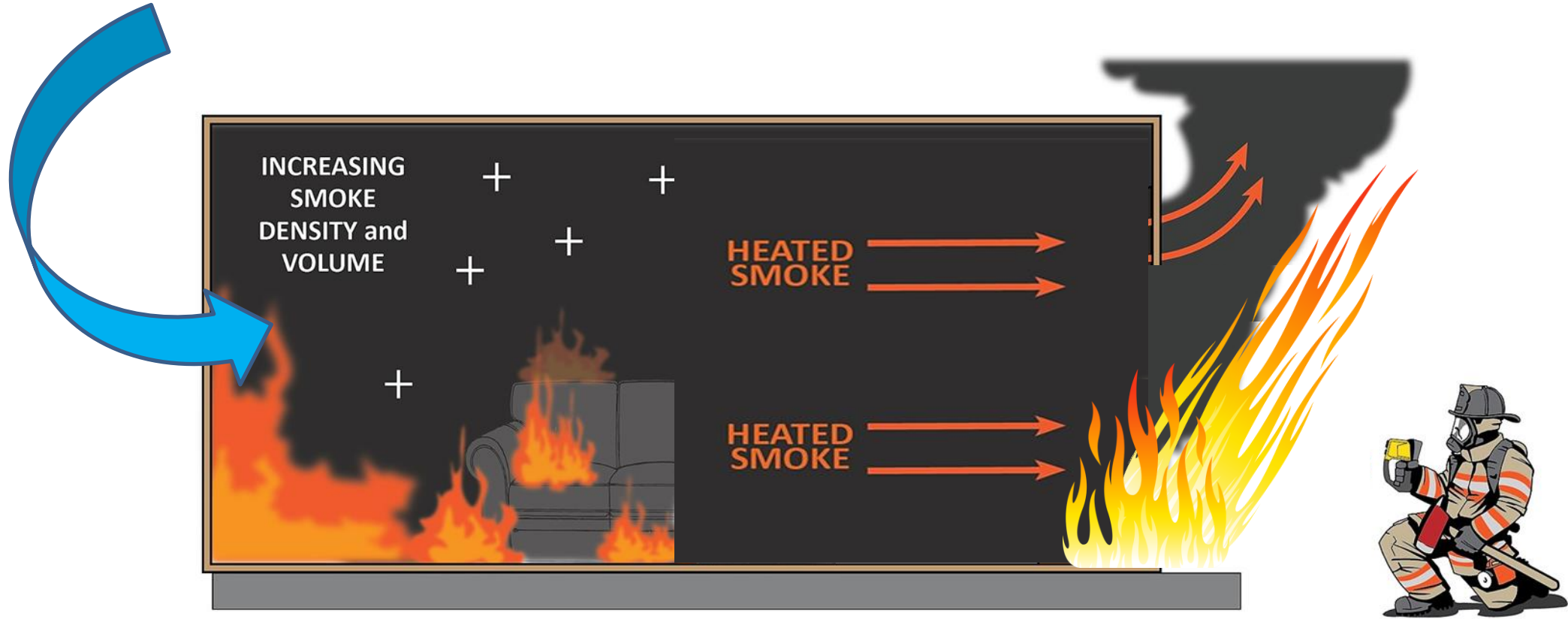


Corridor Extract System





Corridor Extract System with Window Vent





Pressurisation System with Window Vent

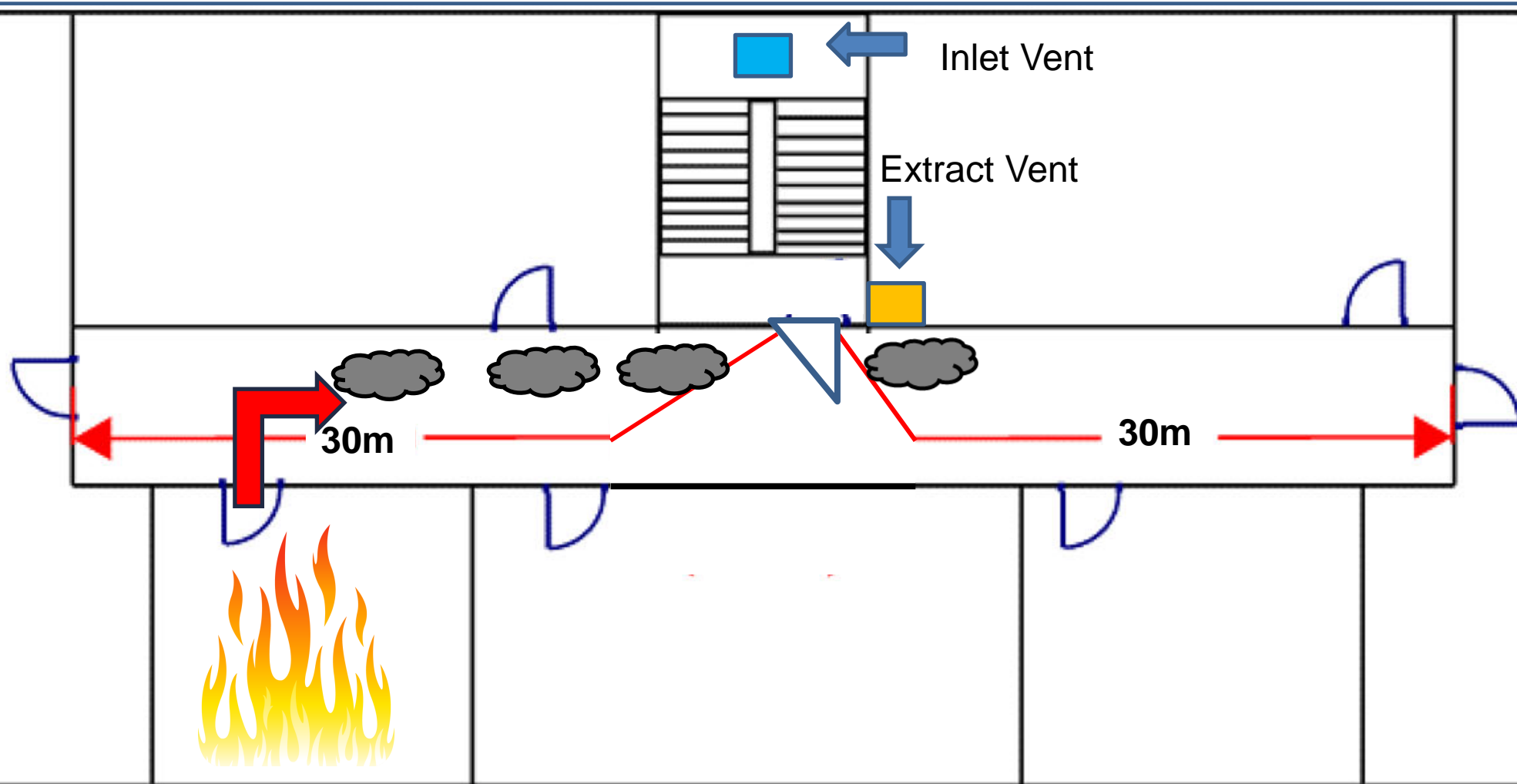


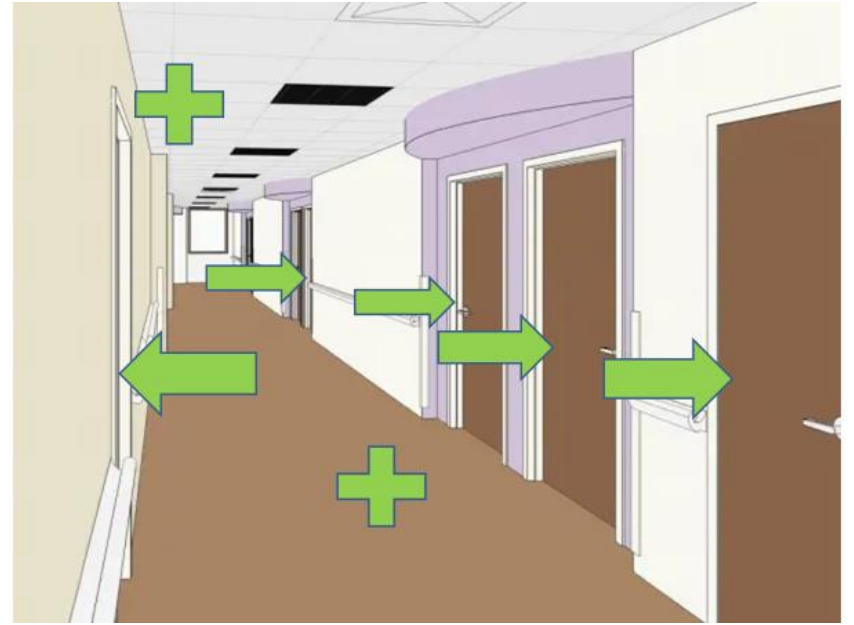
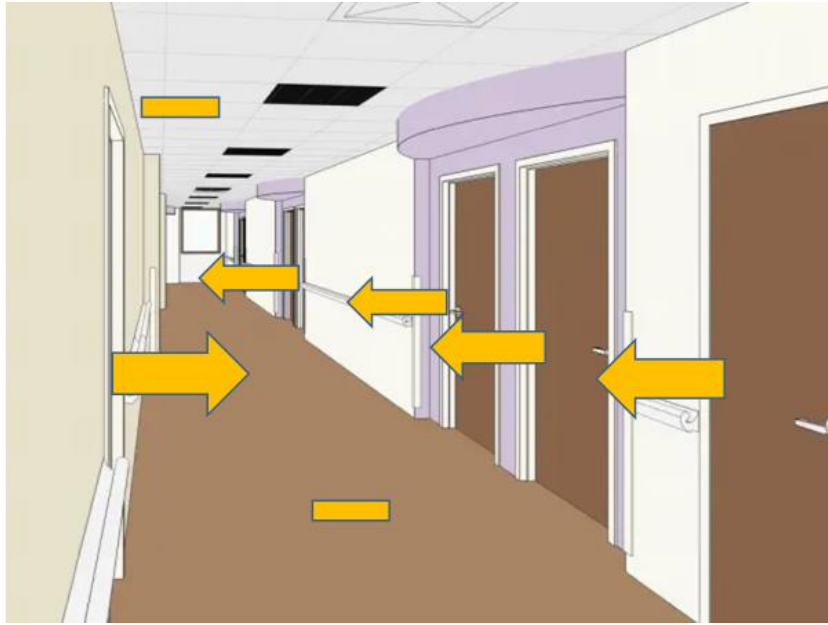
**Why did the fire turn
right into the corridor?**



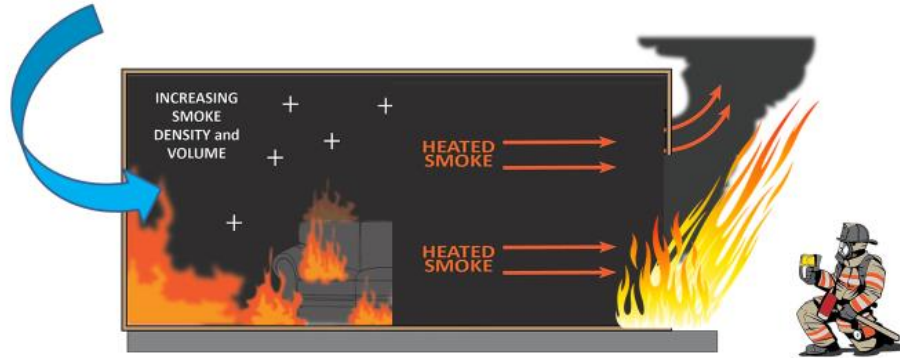


Extended Floor-plate (Flats) to **2006-2015**





Corridor Extract System with window vent



Pressurisation System with Window Vent

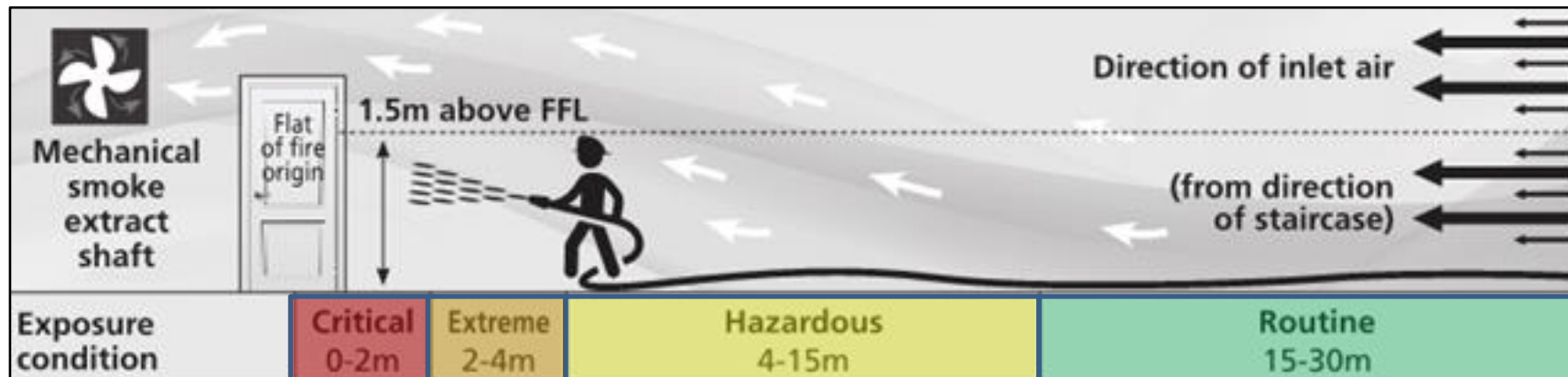




Mechanical Smoke Ventilation Systems (MSVS) (SCA Guidance 2015)

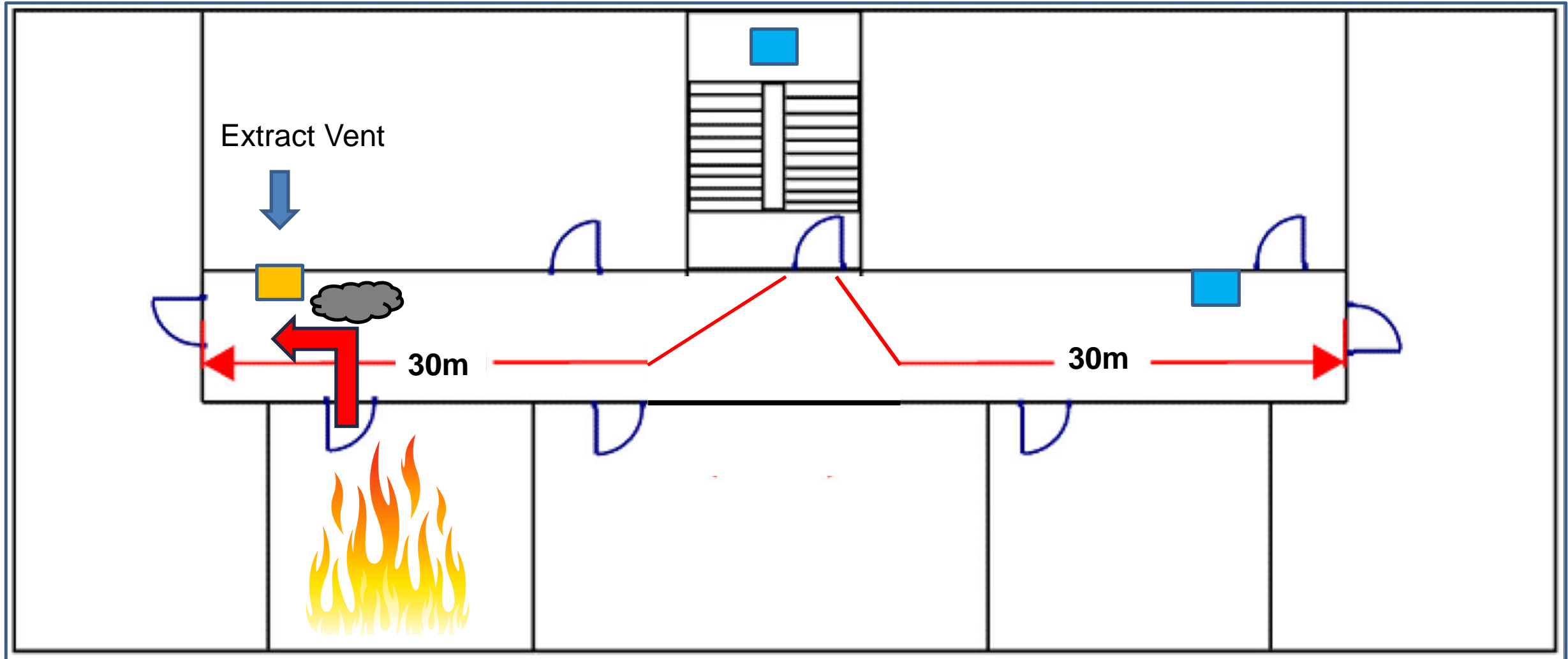
The design guidance produced by the Smoke Control Association in 2015 for extended corridor MSVS took into account the 2011 research and demonstrated how placing the extracting shaft away from the stairs will improve firefighter safety and reduce exposure to unnecessary heat and smoke during firefighting.

| Exposure Condition | Maximum exposure time (minutes) | Maximum air temperature (°C)** | Maximum radiated heat flux (kW/m ²) | Remarks | Recommended distance from apartment door* |
|--------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|---|---------------------------------------|---|
| Routine | 25 | 100 | 1 | General fire-fighting | 15-30m |
| Hazardous | 10 | 120 | 3 | Short exposure with thermal radiation | 4-15m |
| Extreme | 1 | 160 | 4 – 4.5 | For example, snatch rescue scenario | 2-4m |
| Critical | <1 | >235 | >10 | Considered life threatening | 0-2m |

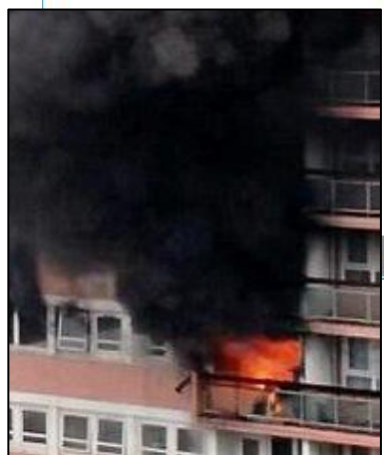
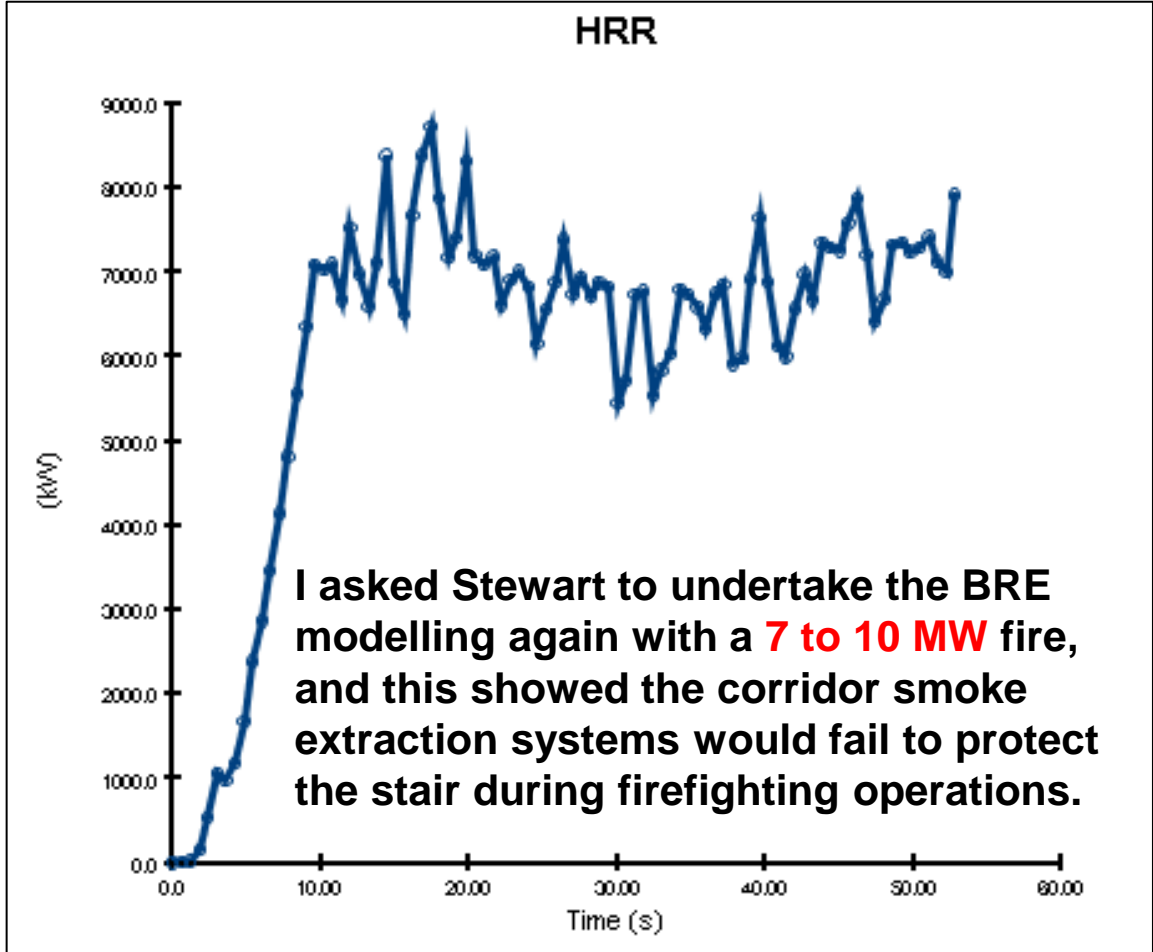
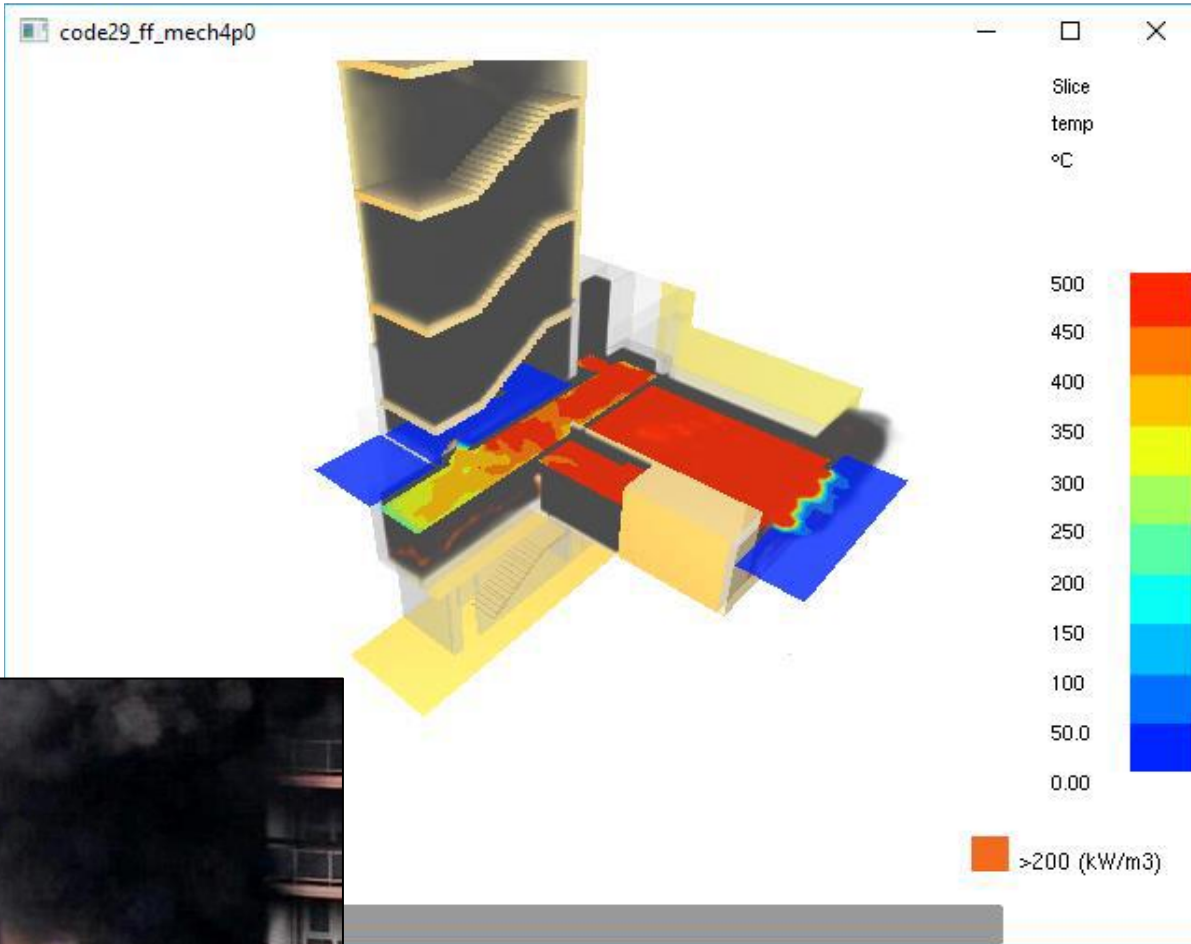




Extended Floor-plate (Flats) to **2015-2023**



Smoke ventilation in common areas of single stair residential buildings



Stewart Miles – BRE 79204 and BD 2410

Conflicts in Choice of Stair for Firefighting

- Taking hose-lines through stair doors
- Choosing the nearest stair to the fire when a conflict arose between accessing a pre-designed '**evacuation**' stair or a pre-designed '**firefighting**' stair

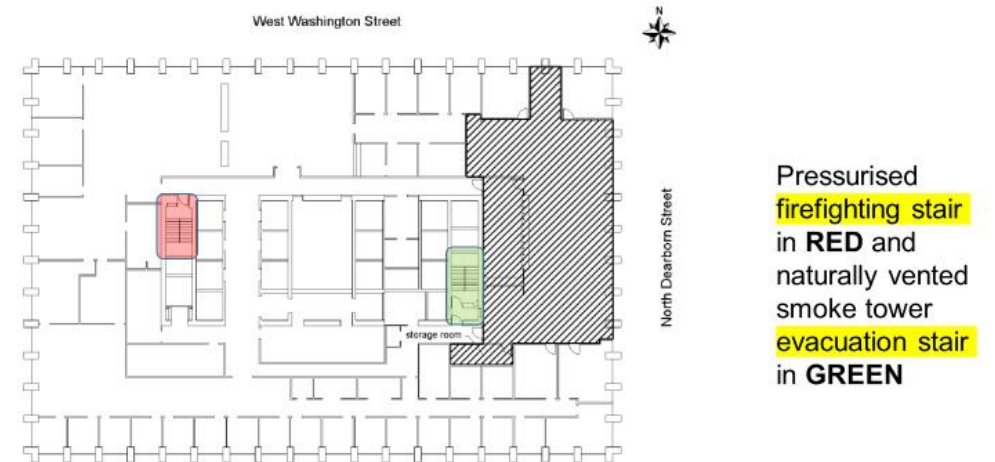
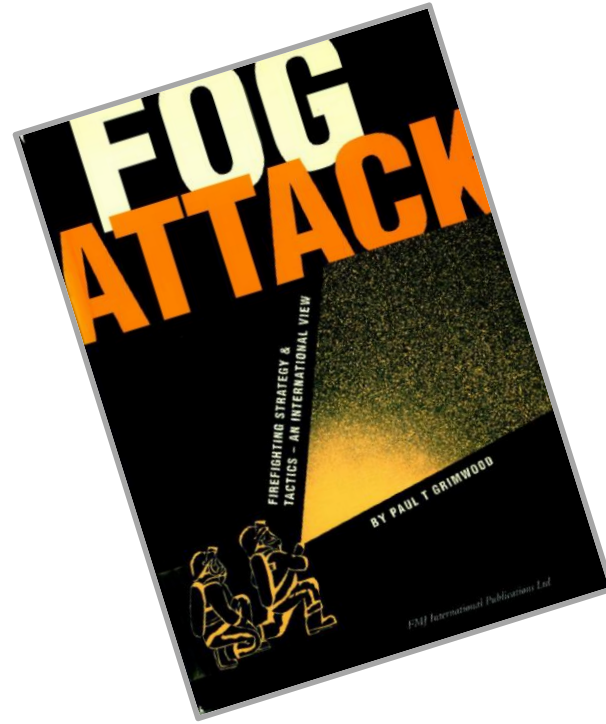
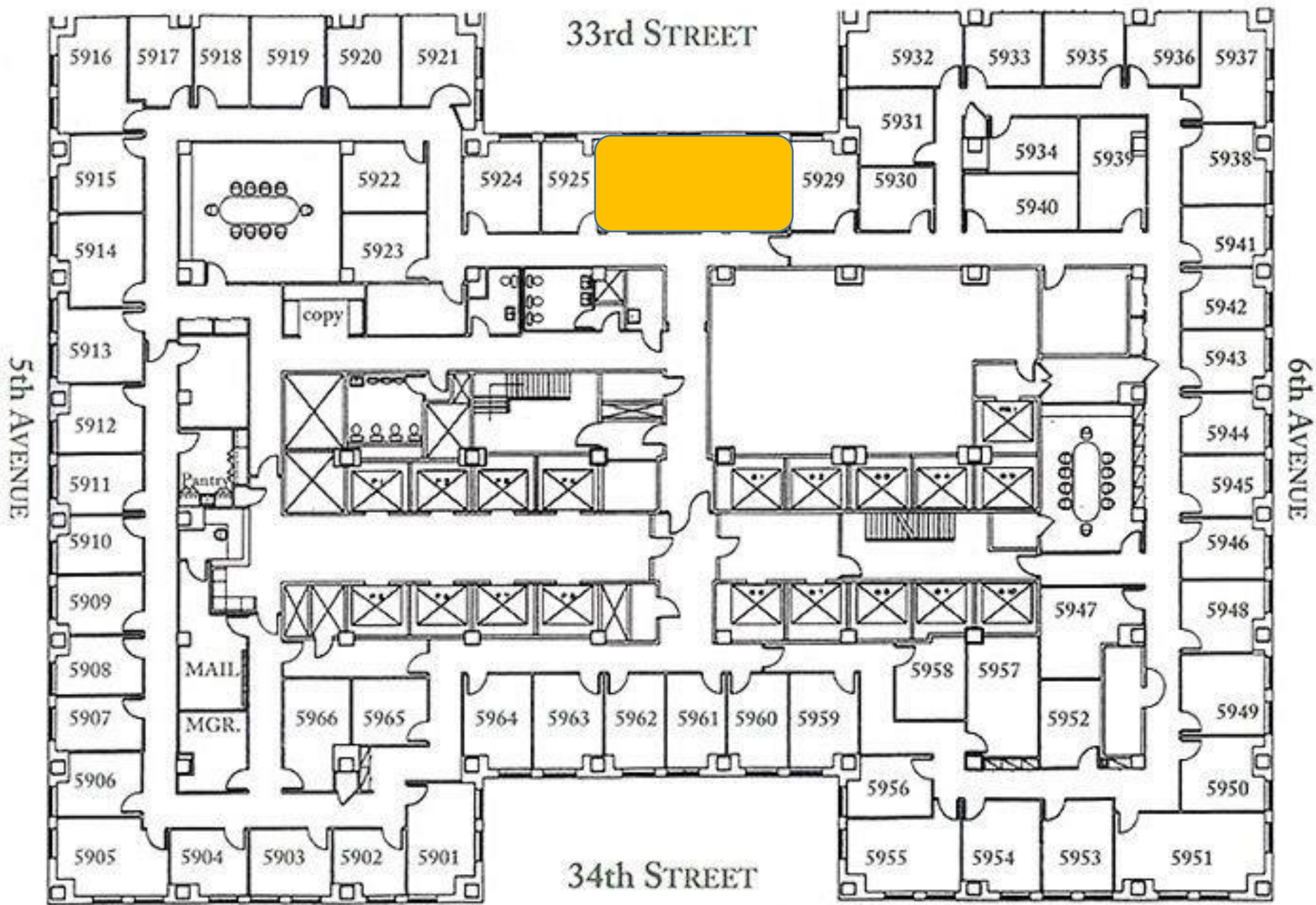
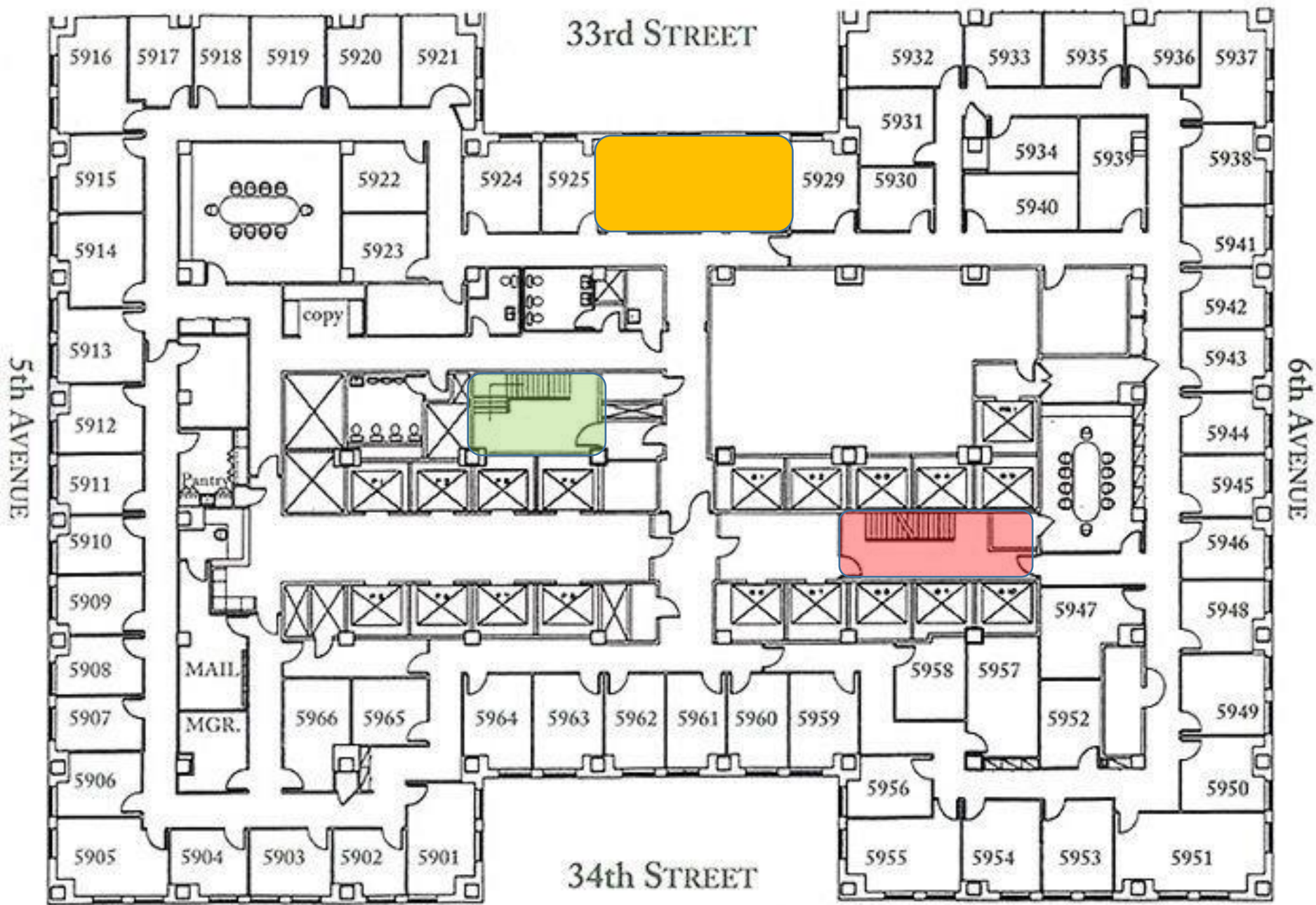


Figure 2. Plan view of 12th floor, showing area of significant fire damage

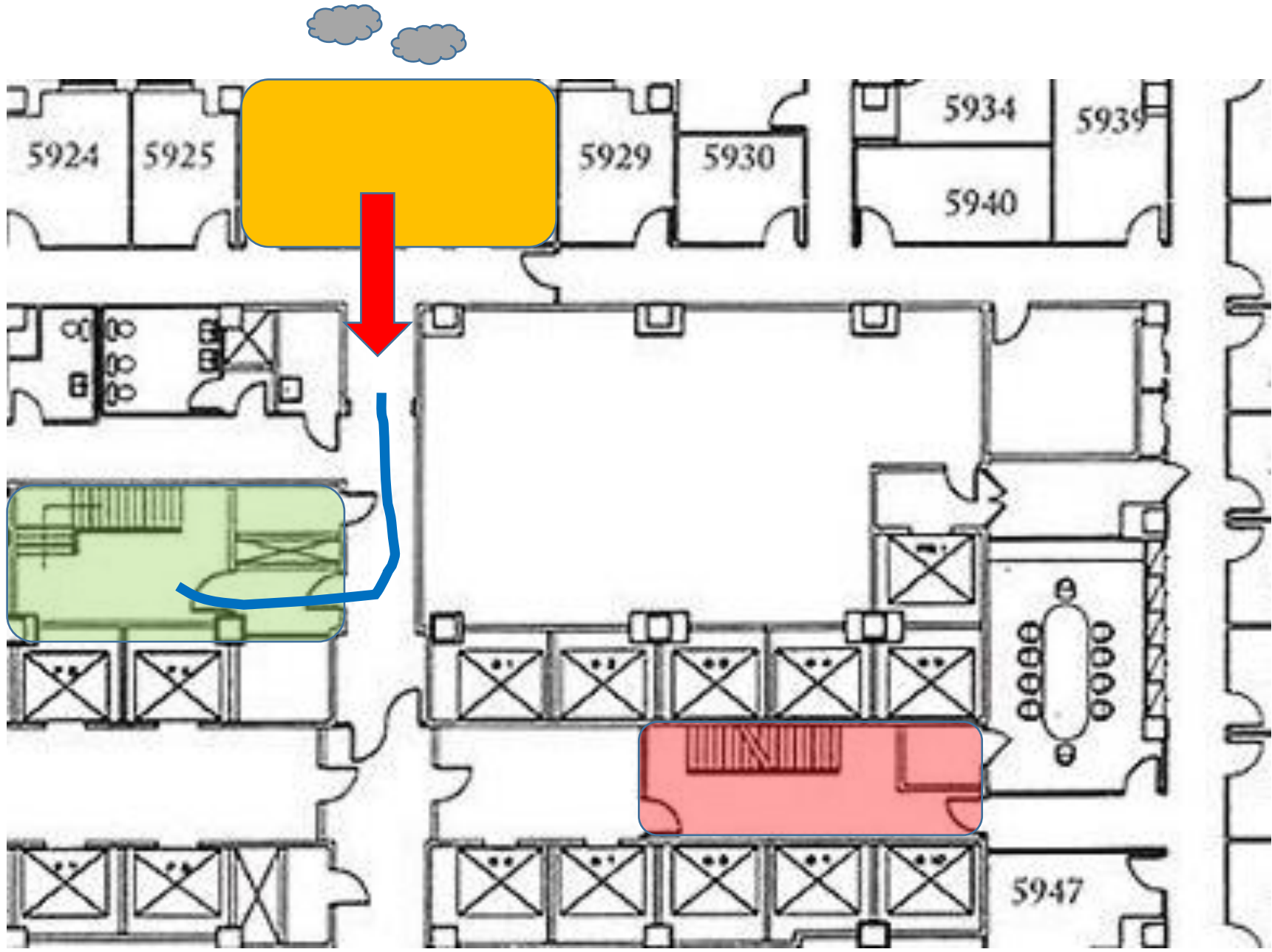


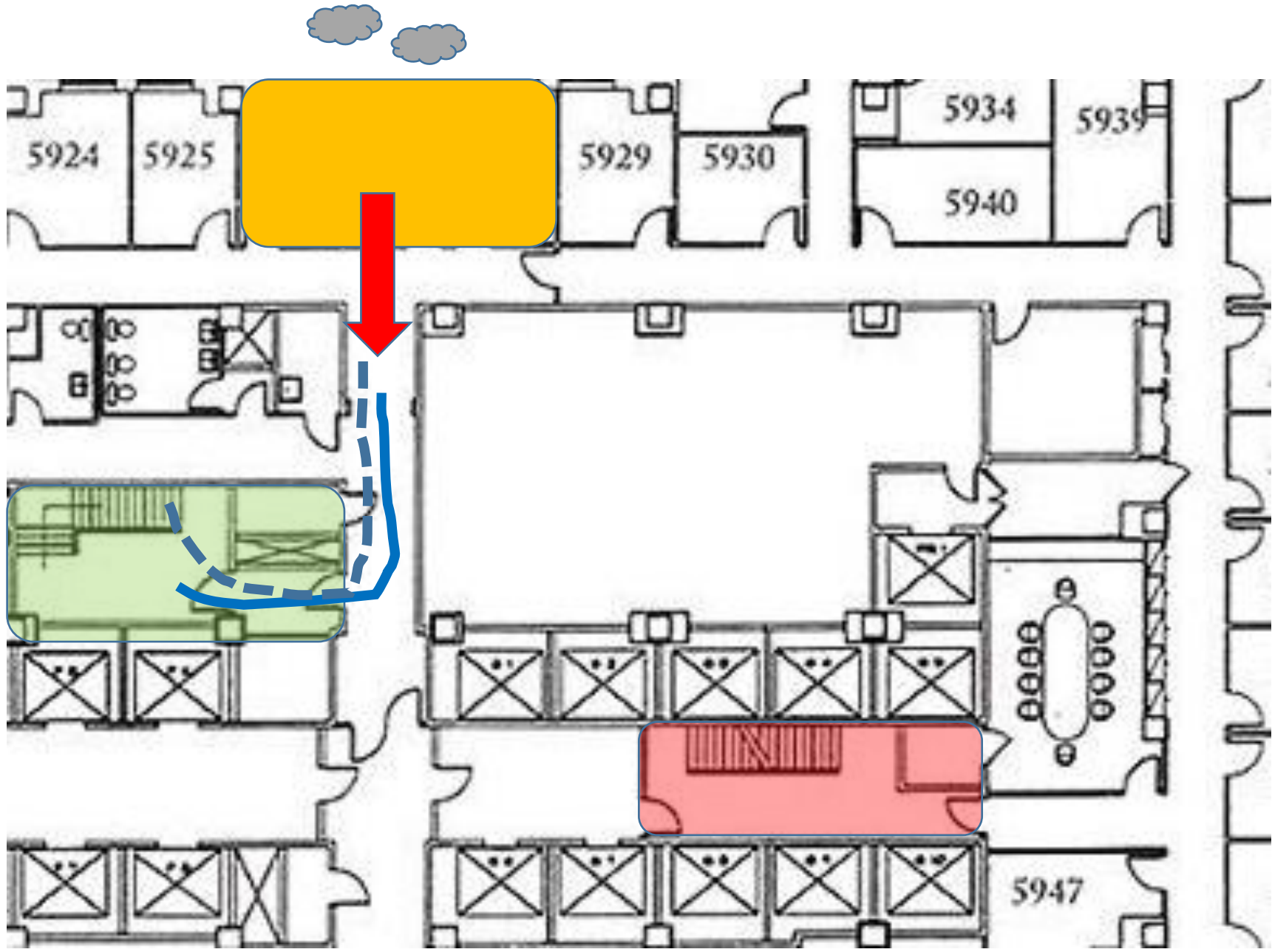
1. Trapped large numbers above the fire floor as taking hose through the evacuation stair door caused the stair to fill with smoke
2. Caused a negative pressure to 'draw' fire and heat in the direction of firefighters

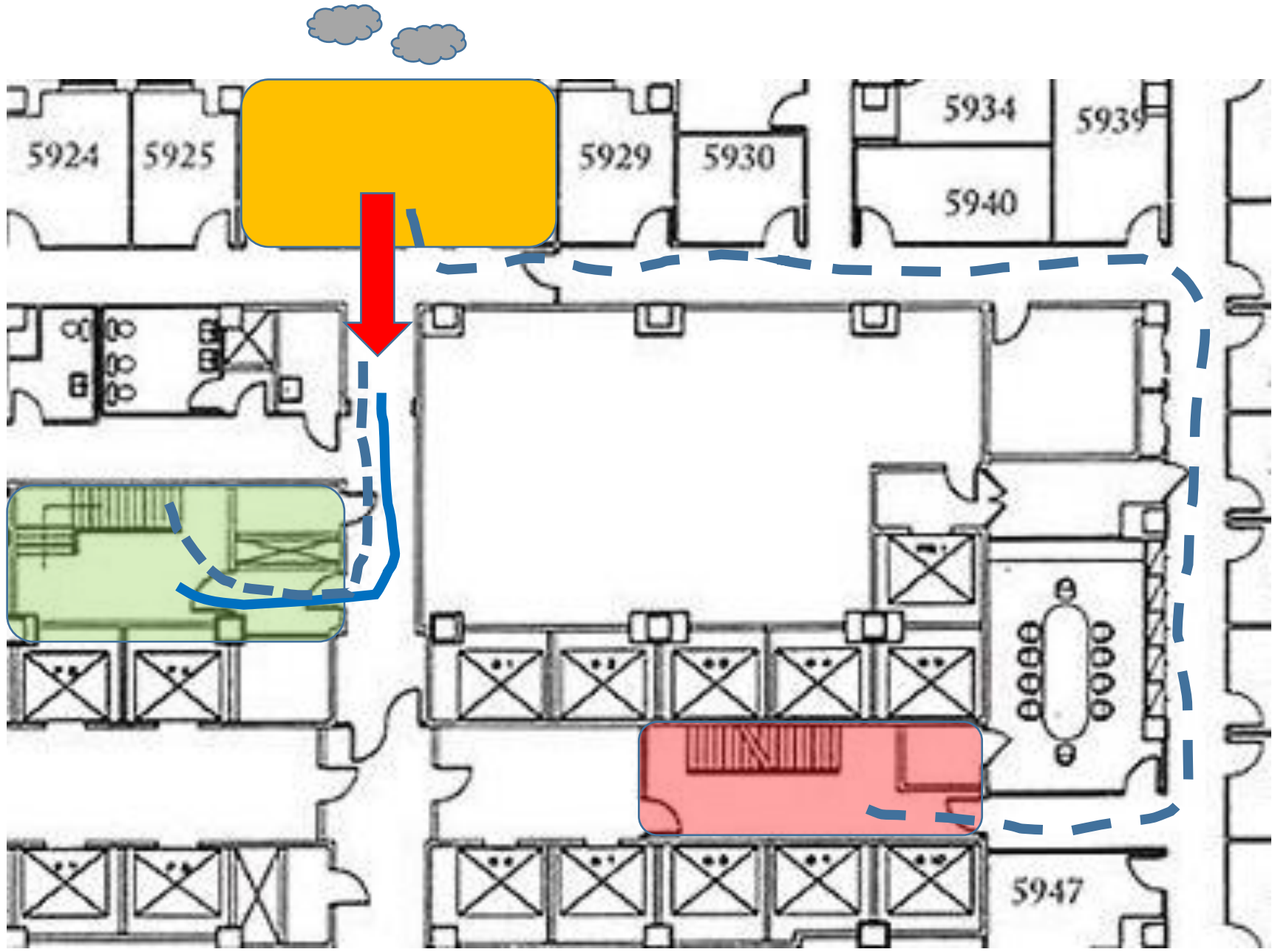












FDNY Firefighting Procedures Vol.1 (Book 5)

Following the Empire State Building fire in 1990, the hazard created by negative pressure differentials existing in a naturally vented smoke shaft (Fire Tower) was made clear in subsequent revisions of the FDNY High-rise Firefighting procedures.

CAUTION: When using a stairway for smoke removal, an adverse condition could occur on the fire floor, causing heat and flames to be drawn toward the stairway being used. The drawing of heat and smoke toward stairways is especially evident whenever fire towers have been utilized. Due to this experience, fire towers are not recommended for use as fire attack stairs.

NIST Special Publication SP-1021

**Cook County Administration Building Fire,
69 West Washington, Chicago, Illinois,
October 17, 2003:
Heat Release Rate Experiments and
FDS Simulations**

D. Madrzykowski
W.D. Walton

NIST National Institute of Standards and Technology • Technology Administration • U.S. Department of Commerce

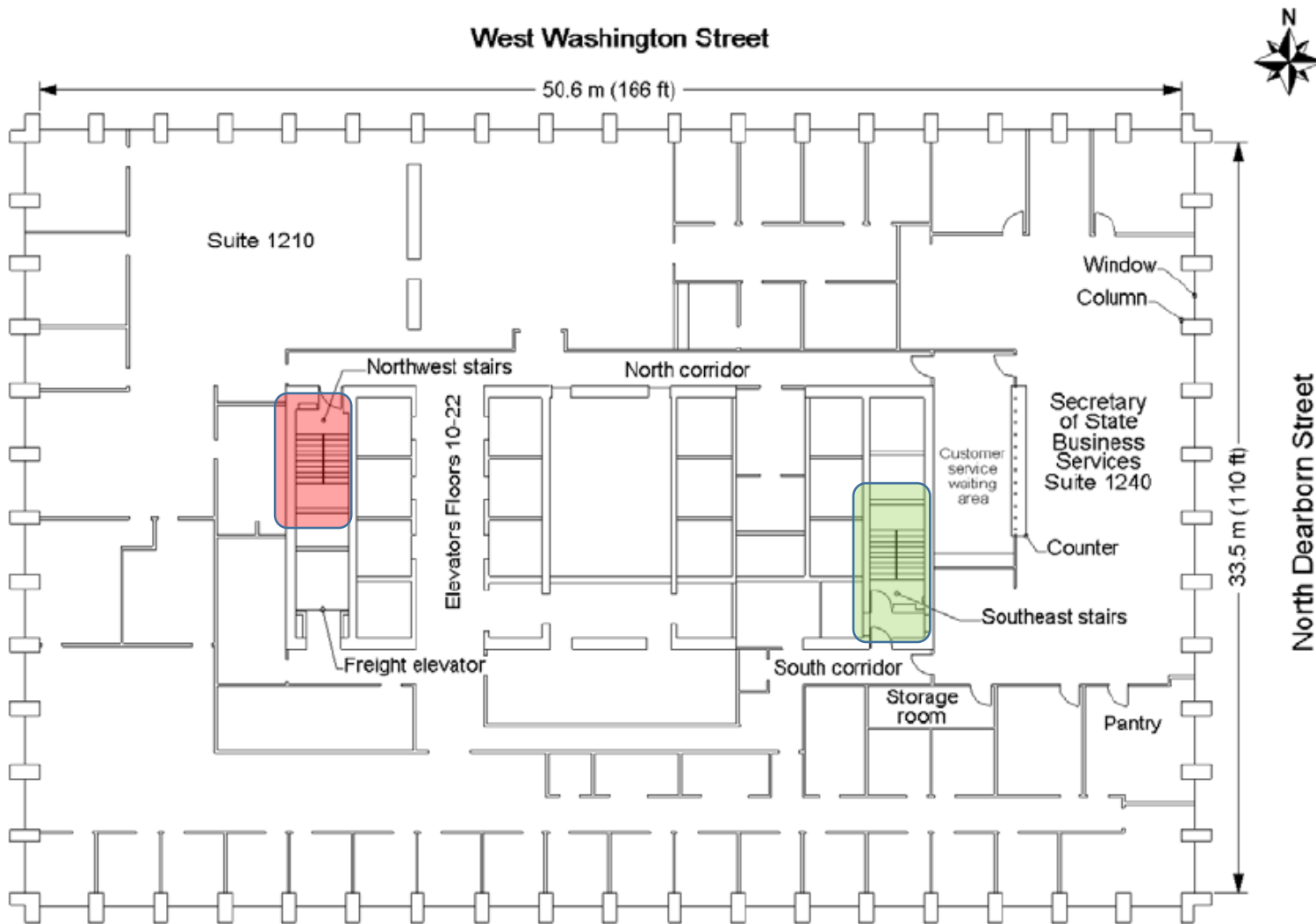


Cook County Building high-rise Fire Chicago 2003



Kent Fire &
Rescue Service

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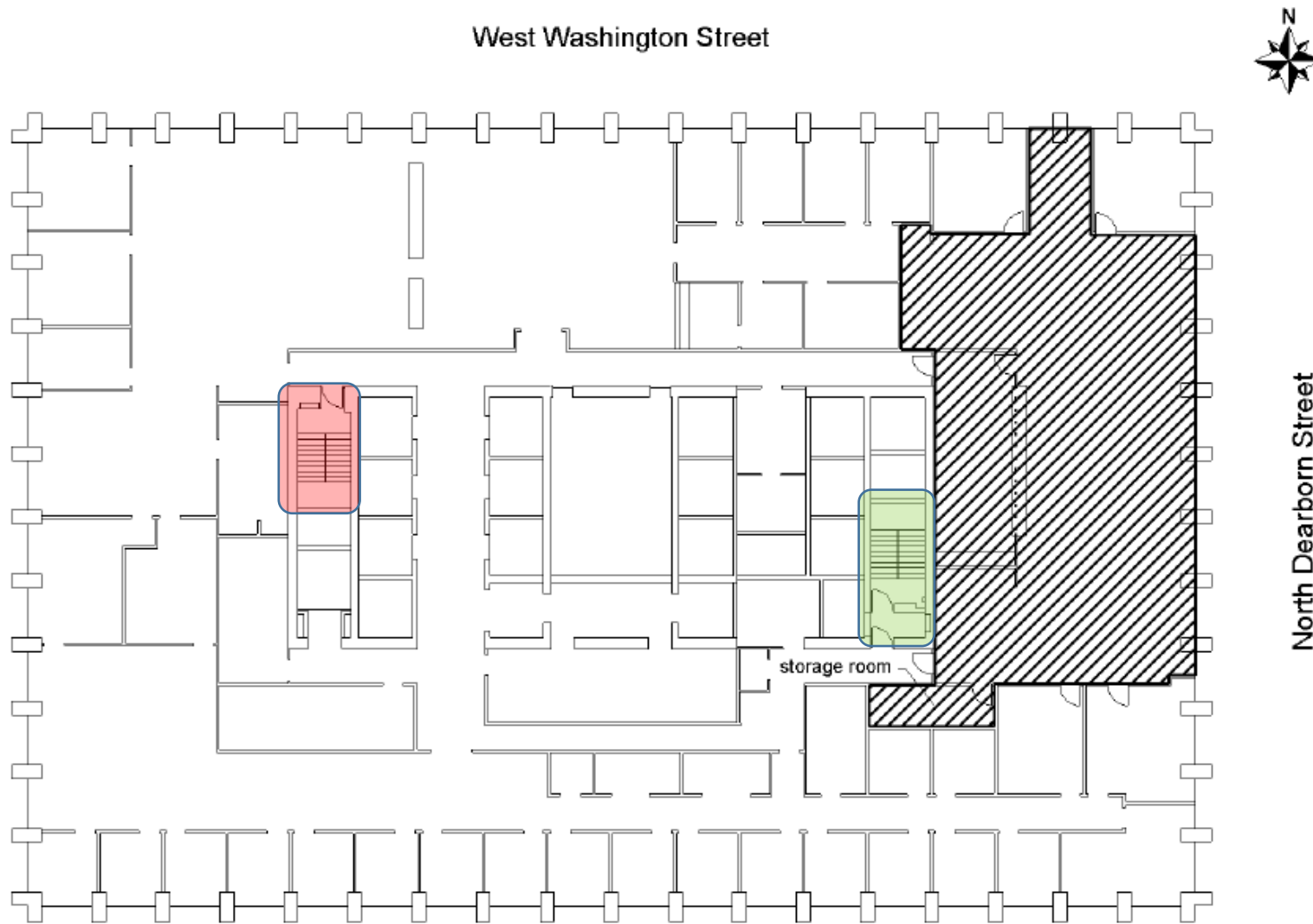


Pressurised
 firefighting stair
 in **RED** and
 naturally vented
 smoke tower
 evacuation stair
 in **GREEN**



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Pressurised
firefighting stair
in **RED** and
naturally vented
smoke tower
evacuation stair
in **GREEN**

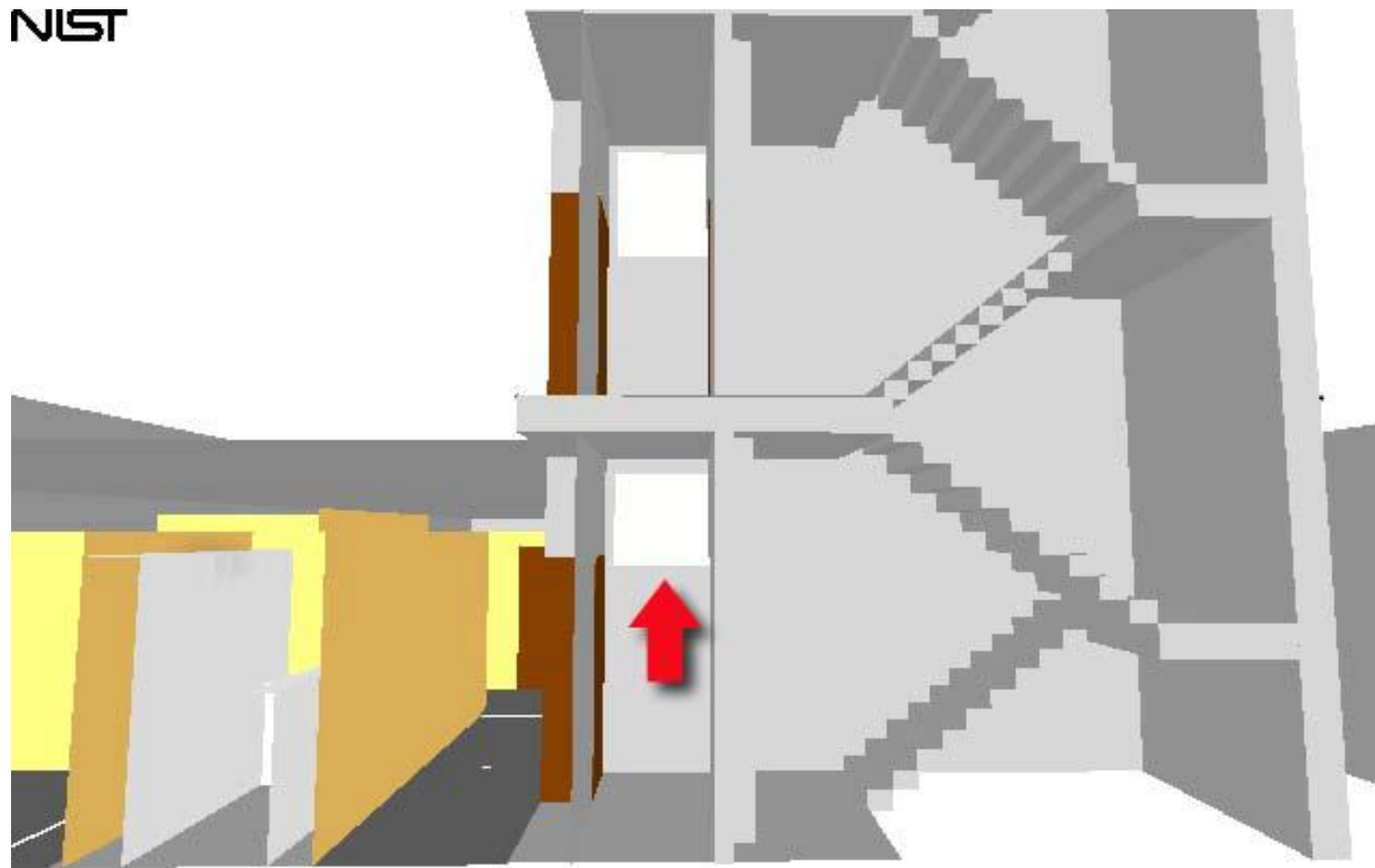
Figure 2. Plan view of 12th floor, showing area of significant fire damage



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NIST



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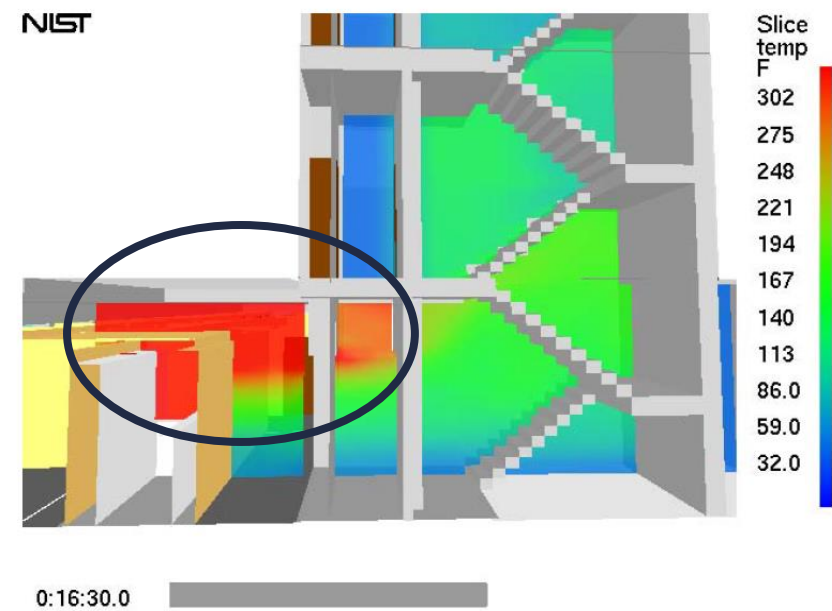
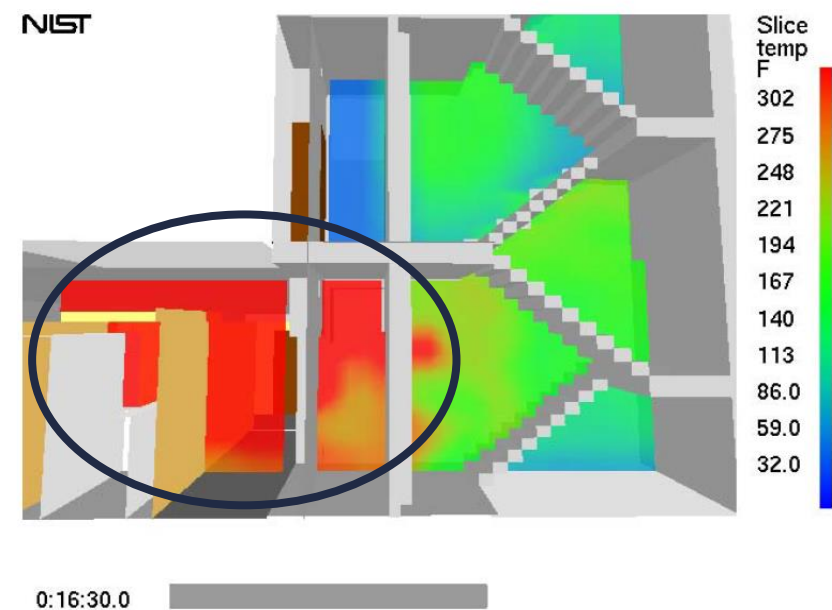


Figure 154 shows a temperature slice through the southeast stairs at 990s **without** a functioning smoke shaft

Figure 155 a temperature slice through the southeast stairs at 990 s **with** a functioning smoke shaft.



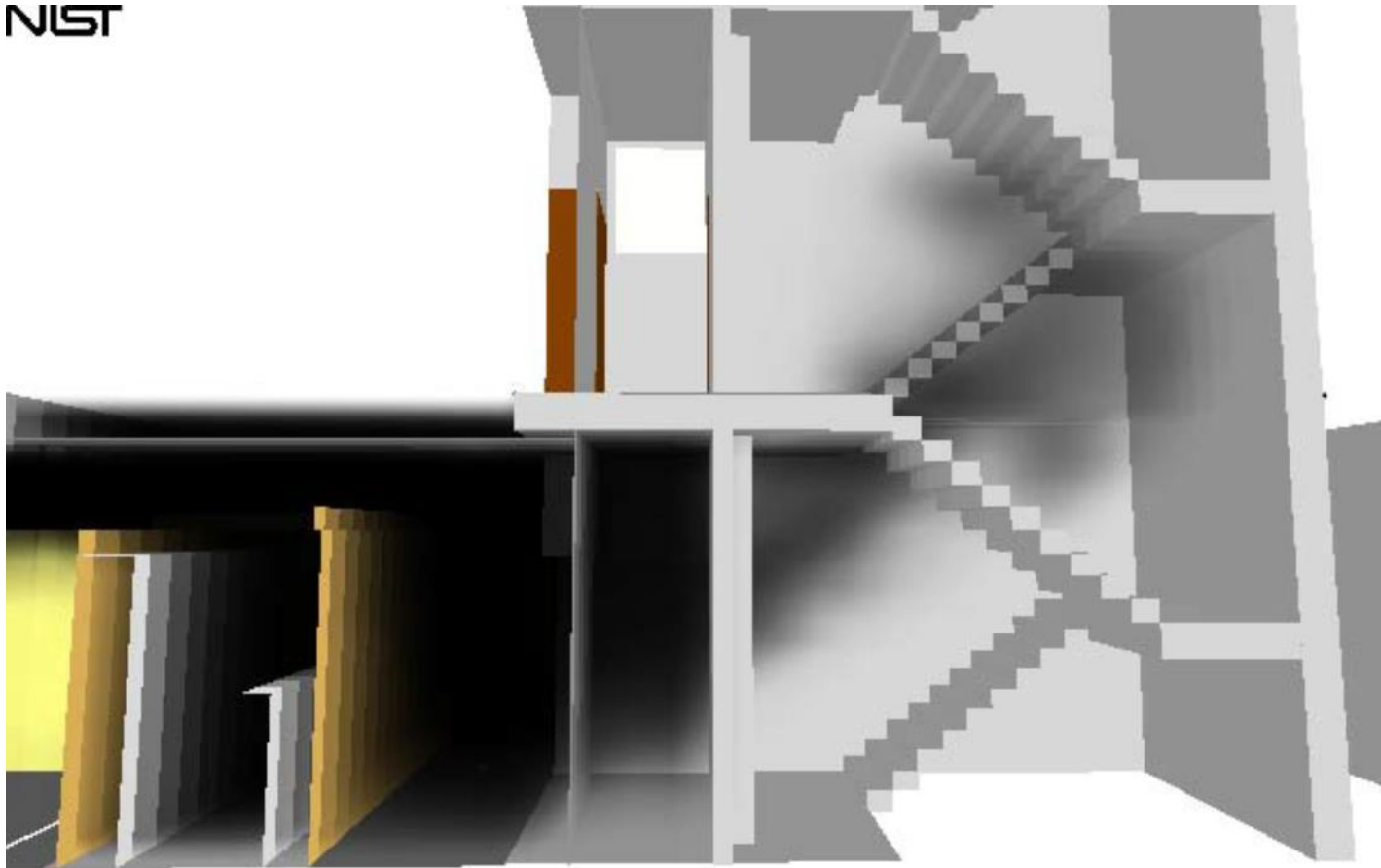
The temperature in the vestibule (lobby) and corridor is higher (**floor to ceiling**) with the vent open than with it closed.

Figure 155. Temperature in southeast stairs at 990 s (16 min 30 s), with smoke shaft



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0:15:35.3



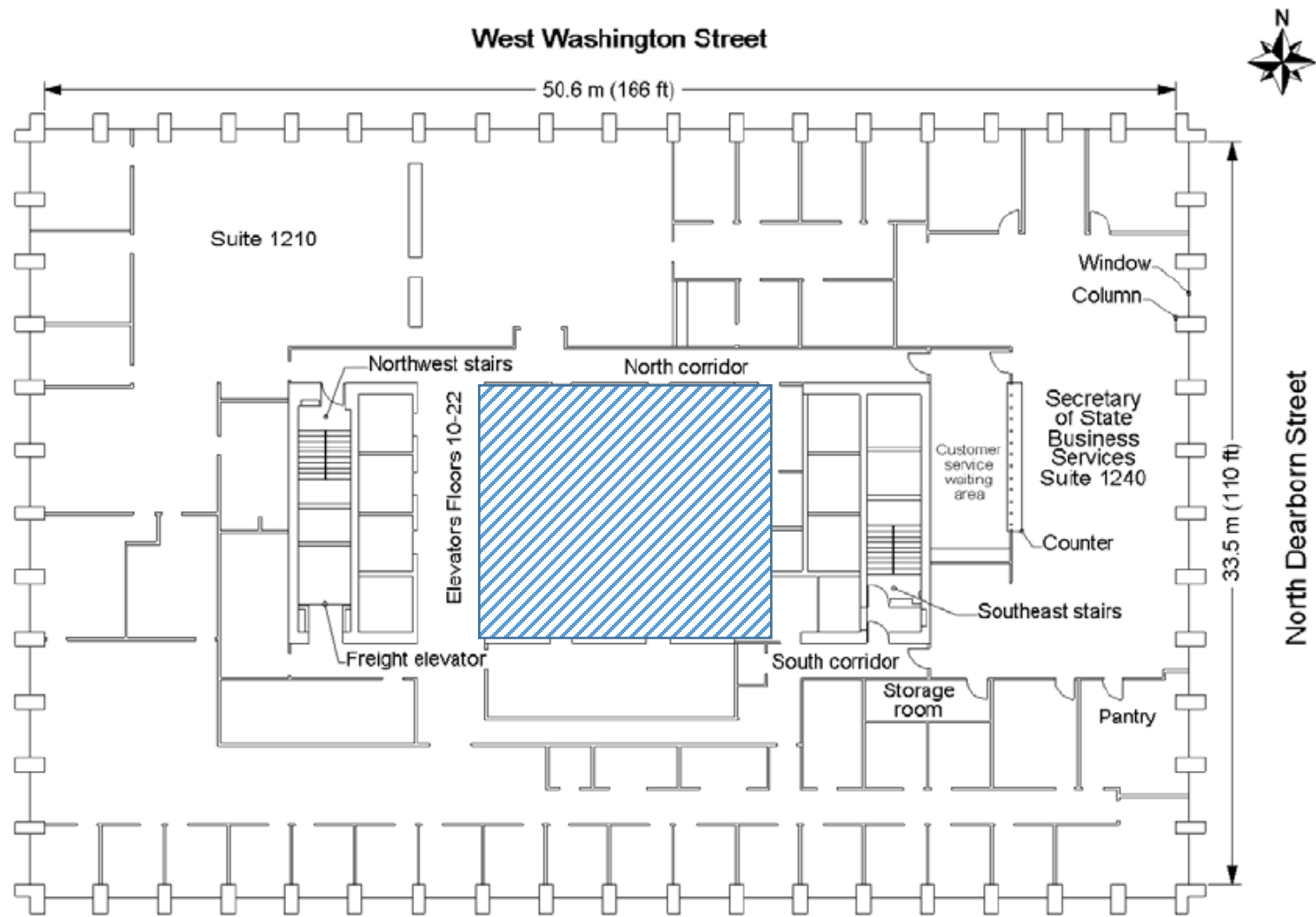
With the vestibule vent open the smoke would have flowed into the smoke shaft and out of the building (flow path), **whilst with an open stair door (for hose) the smoke shaft would have also drawn smoke and fire towards the stairs.**



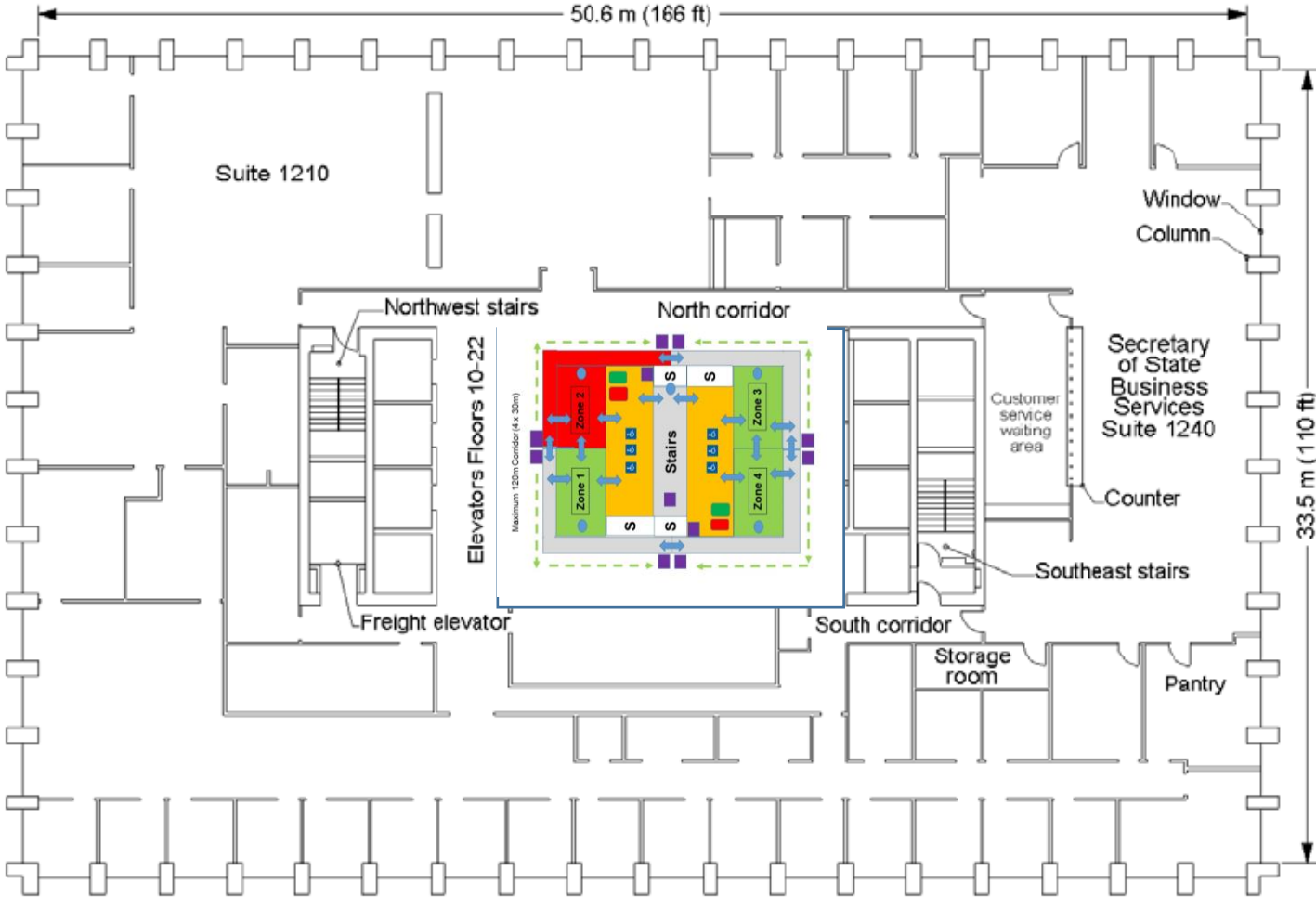
The Cook County Administration Building is 37 stories tall with one level below grade. The building is constructed with reinforced cast-in-place concrete and has concrete and glass panel exterior walls. More details of the building construction are provided in the modeling section of this report.

Compartmentalization contained the fire damage to a single office suite (Figure 2). Closed solid core doors and 16 mm (0.625 in) gypsum board partition walls limited the fire damage in rooms, on both the north end and south end of Suite 1240. However, the partition walls did not extend above the drop ceiling. The lack of partitions above the drop ceiling allowed for the rapid spread of smoke and fire gases throughout the 12th floor and then throughout the building, through penetrations, HVAC ducts, and open doors. The gross area of the 12th floor is approximately 1695 m² (18260 ft²), based on the overall dimensions of the floor that included the building core. The areas of Suite 1240 that were most heavily damaged by the fire were the open plan office area and the storage room. This area was approximately 243 m² (2620 ft²) or about 14 % of the total floor area.





West Washington Street



Kent Fire & Rescue Service

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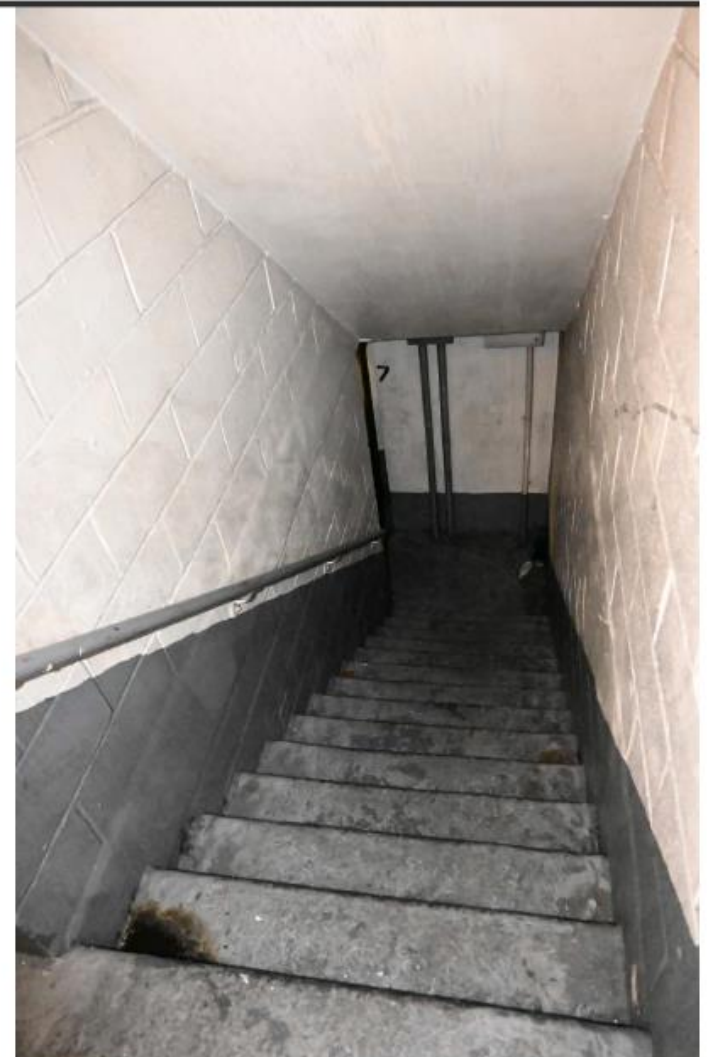
On the morning of Jan. 9, 2022, shortly before 1100 hours, the FDNY responded to what would become one of the worst fires in New York City's history.

- **17 fatalities including 8 children**
- **9 of the fatalities were located in stairwells**
- **All died of smoke inhalation**
- **60 Victims rescued**
- **30 persons removed in cardiac arrest**
- **Stairwell doors breached (or failed) on fire floor (3rd) and 15th levels.**



Kent Fire &
Rescue Service

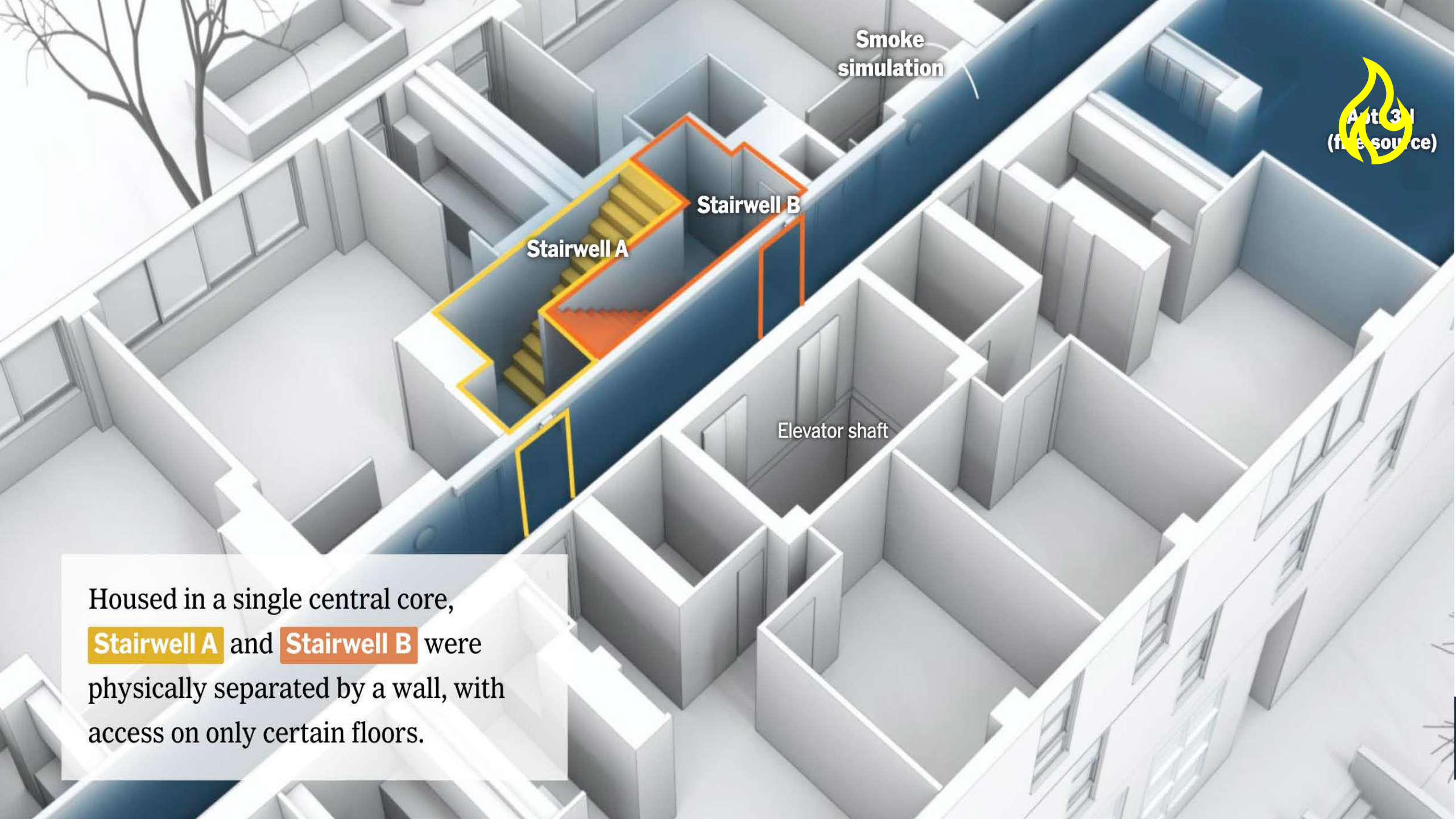
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Smoke simulation

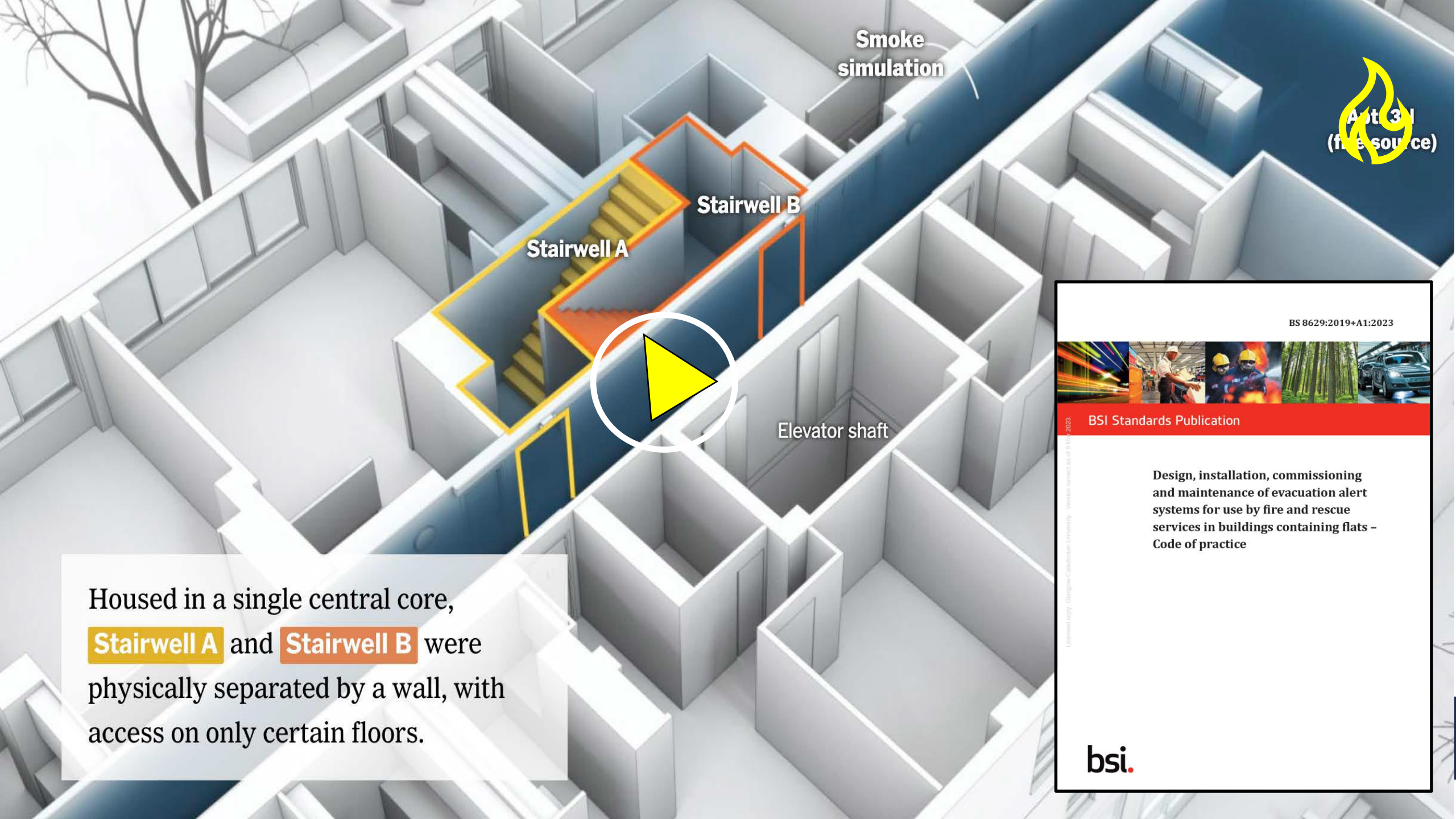
Apt 31
(fire source)

Stairwell A

Stairwell B

Elevator shaft

Housed in a single central core, **Stairwell A** and **Stairwell B** were physically separated by a wall, with access on only certain floors.



Smoke simulation

Flat 31
(fire source)

Stairwell A

Stairwell B

Elevator shaft



Housed in a single central core, **Stairwell A** and **Stairwell B** were physically separated by a wall, with access on only certain floors.

BS 8629:2019+A1:2023



BSI Standards Publication

Design, installation, commissioning and maintenance of evacuation alert systems for use by fire and rescue services in buildings containing flats – Code of practice

Licensed copy - Glasgow Caledonian University - Version correct as of 9 May 2023.

bsi.

BS EN 12101-13 2022

Part 13 – Pressure Differential Systems

National Foreword

“This standard is **not** intended for corridor/lobby extract or Mechanical Smoke Ventilation Systems (MSVS). These systems generally create a lower pressure in **protected spaces**, such as lobbies and corridors and are outside of the scope of this standard”.



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BS EN 12101-13 2022

Part 13 – Pressure Differential Systems

Table 1 — Design requirements of a PDS

| Parameter | Class 1 | Class 2 |
|-----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| Door opening force | $\leq 100 \text{ N}$ | |
| Pressure differential | $\geq 30 \text{ Pa}$ | |
| Airflow velocity | $\geq 1 \text{ m/s}$ | $\geq 2 \text{ m/s}$ |
| Initiation time | $\leq 60 \text{ s}$ | |
| Operation time | $\leq 120 \text{ s}$ | |
| Response time | $\leq 5 \text{ s}$ | |

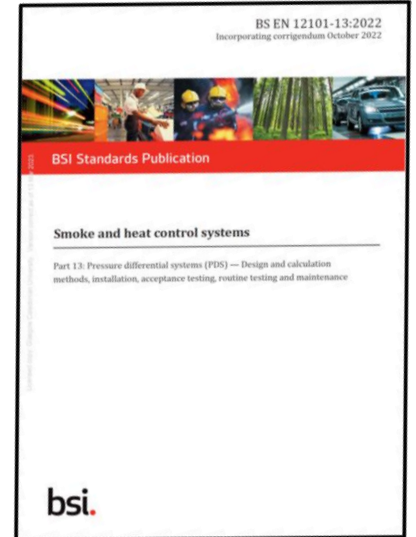
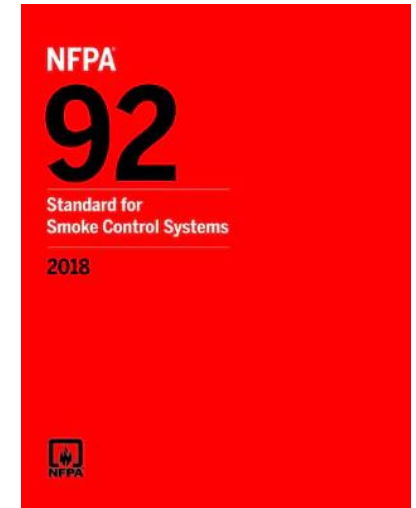
Class 2 systems additionally if required by AHJs



| Building Type | Ceiling Height | Design Pressure Difference |
|-----------------|----------------|----------------------------|
| Sprinklered | Any | 12.5 Pa |
| Non-sprinklered | 2.7 m | 25 Pa |
| Non-sprinklered | 4.6 m | 35 Pa |
| Non-sprinklered | 6.4 m | 45 Pa |

Table 1 — Design requirements of a PDS

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|-----------------------|--------------|--------------|
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- Protecting a stair, or adjoining corridor, from *typical* fire smoke infiltration requires positive airflows between **0.75 m/s and 2 m/s**.
- Protecting a stair, or adjoining corridor, from **pressurized smoke or flaming combustion** requires even greater pressures and airflows.
- A **12-14 MW** room fire (under research) required **5 m/s** to reverse smoke and flaming combustion back out of the corridor, into and through a window vented fire compartment.

***National Institute for Standards and Technology
(NIST) USA Report 7213***



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Dr Philip Thomas – Critical Velocity (m/s)

Fire Research Station 1970

| MW | m/s | m ³ /s |
|-----|------|-------------------|
| 2.4 | 4 | 8 |
| 3 | 4.3 | 8.7 |
| 4 | 4.8 | 9.6 |
| 5 | 5.1 | 10.2 |
| 10 | 5.5 | 11 |
| 12 | 6.9 | 13.8 |
| 14 | 7.25 | 14.5 |



1970 - The Thomas equation indicates that a velocity of about **4 m/s** is needed to prevent smoke backflow through a 0.9 m wide doorway from a 2.4 MW fire . For a doorway area of 2 m², this amounts to about **8 m³/s**

- **BS 5588-4:1978** (3 - 4 m/s)
- **BS 5588-4:1998** (5 m/s)
- **BS EN 12101-6:2005** (5 m/s)
- **BS EN 12101-13:2022** (Removed)

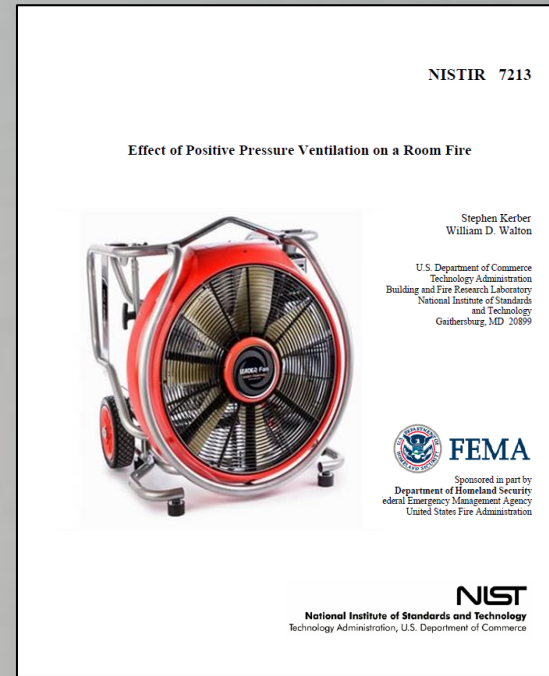


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Room Fire Pressures



NIST Report 7213

**36 m2 room fire
1.9 m2 Door
1.0 m2 Window**

With the door to the fire room open, fire pressure causes hot gases and flames to move out of the room, into the corridor, from the top two thirds of the doorway.

Air feeds in at low level.



36 m2 room fire
1.9 m2 Door
1.0 m2 Window

With the door to the fire room open, fire pressure causes hot gases and flames to move out of the room, into the corridor, from the top two thirds of the doorway.

Air feeds in at low level.



+ 6 m/s.



+ 4 m/s.



2 m/s.

**36 m² room fire
1.9 m² Door
1.0 m² Window**

As the window to the room is vented, the room pressure decreases and flaming into the corridor reduces slightly at first.

As air feeds in below, the fire will again grow without any intervention taking place.



+ 5 m/s.



+ 3 m/s.



6 m/s.

**36 m² room fire
1.9 m² Door
1.0 m² Window**

A 5 m/s flow from a PPV fan was able to slowly reverse the outwards flow of flaming from a 14 MW fire, into the corridor within three minutes.



+ 7 m/s.



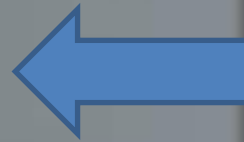
5 m/s.



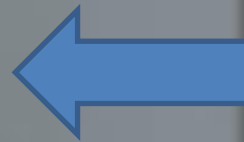
5 m/s.

**36 m² room fire
1.9 m² Door
1.0 m² Window**

Overall, airflow entering the room from PPV at 14.5 m³/s (52,200 m³/hr) reversed pressurised air flows within 3 minutes out of the vented window.



5 m/s



5 m/s



5 m/s



36 m² room fire
1.9 m² Door
1.0 m² Window

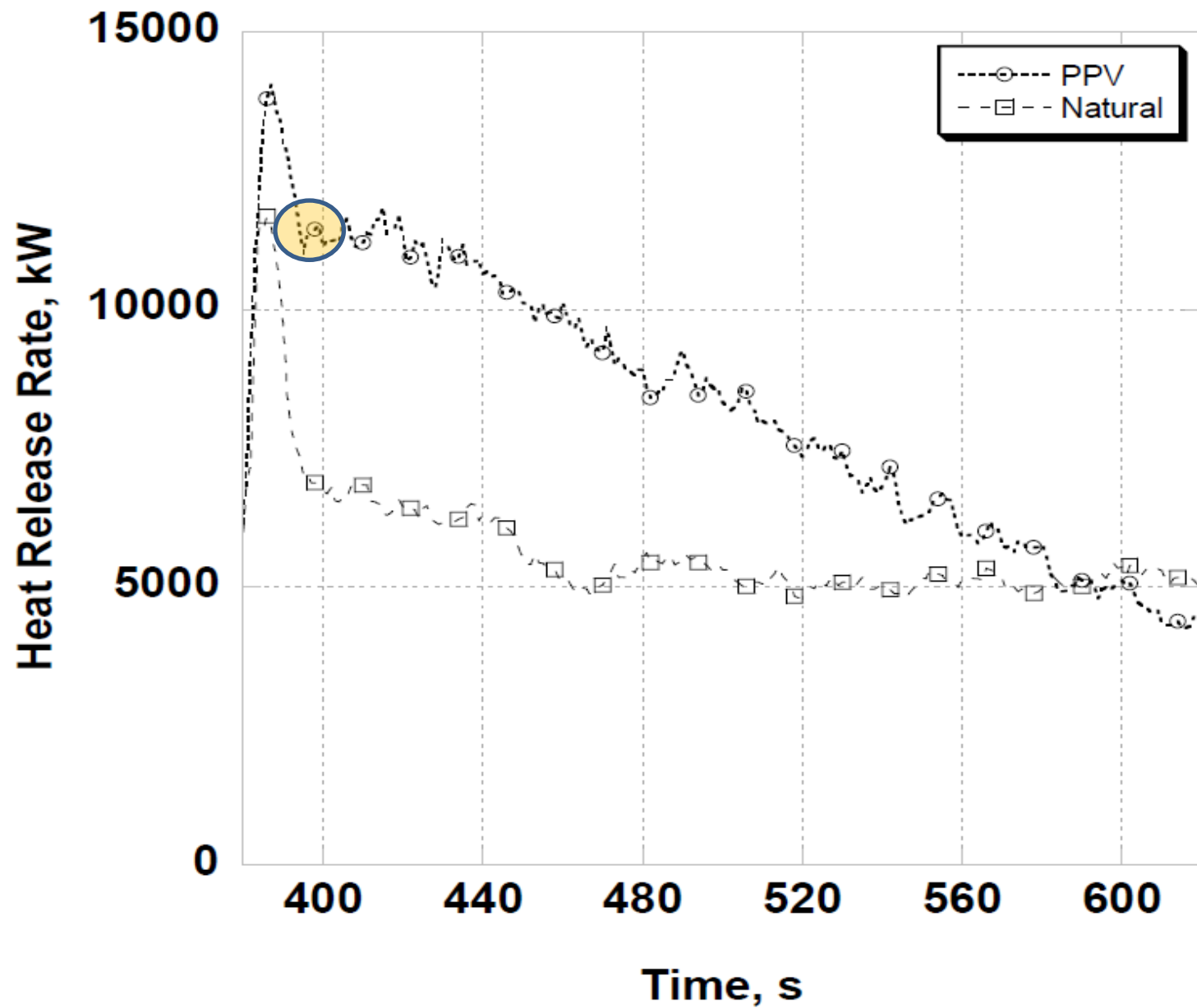


Figure 29 - Heat Release Rate Detail for 200 s Following Peak Output

This experiment (**7G**) served as a good baseline as to how the bedroom fires will behave **without the influence of wind**. Once the stair was opened and the bulkhead door was opened the bulk flow increased to a range of 1 m/s to 3 m/s (2 mph to 7 mph) out of the fire floor and a range of 2 m/s to 3 m/s (4 mph to 7 mph) out of the top of the stairwell. Once the PPV fan was activated these velocities converged at 0 m/s as the flow from the fan was equalizing the bulk flow from the fire. Once the MVU was activated there were large velocities through the structure and out through the fire apartment open windows. Flow in through the fire apartment door peaked at approximately 8 m/s (18 mph)

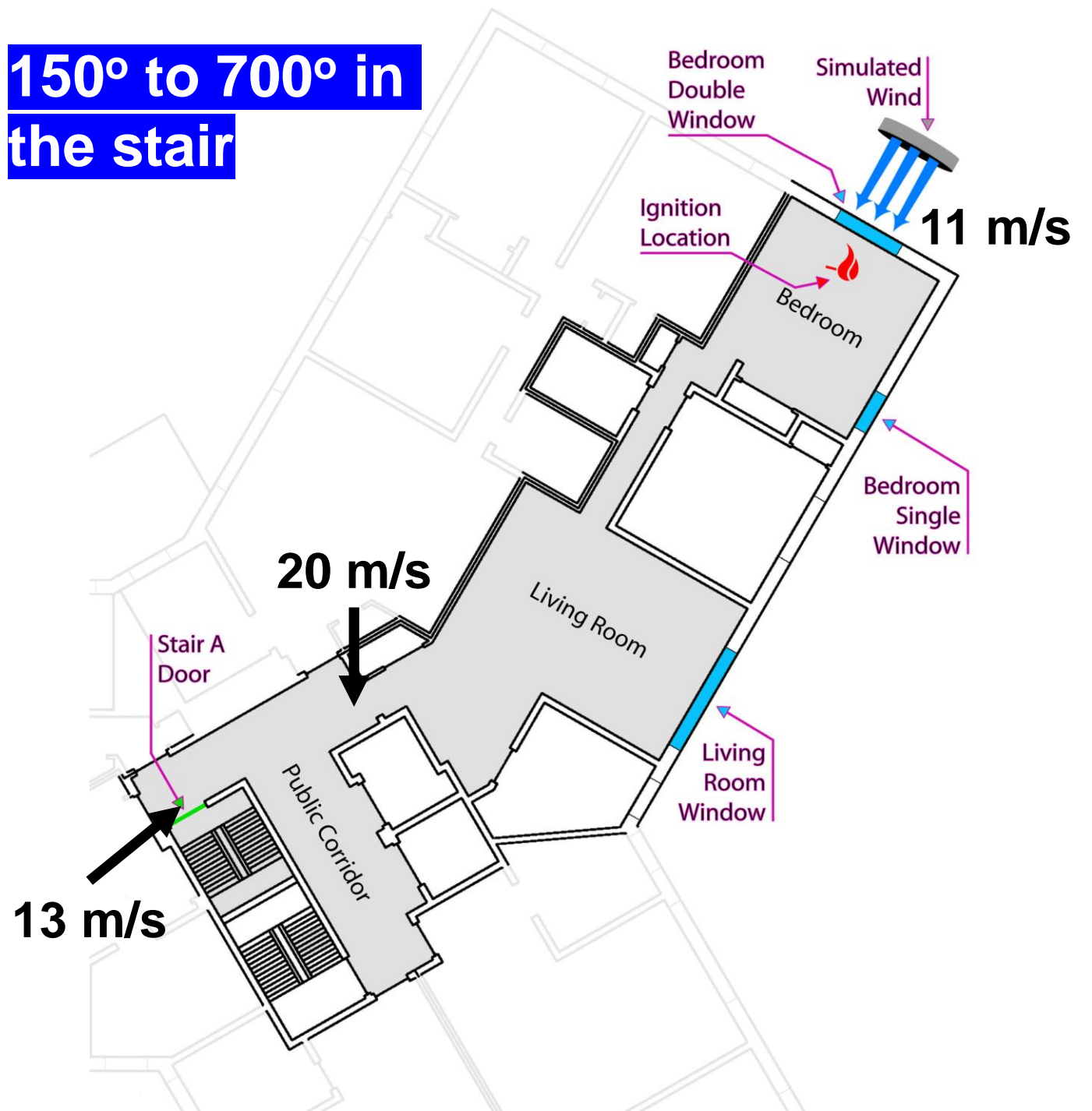
Experiment **7E** – **with the influence of an 11 m/s (25 mph) wind** - The flows out of the fire apartment were as high as 5 m/s with the stairwell door closed. When the bulkhead door was opened with the fan flow the bulk flow velocity out of the top of the stairwell peaked at 4 m/s. The flow out of the fire apartment with the stairwell opened was approximately 5 m/s and increased to 20 m/s with the bulkhead door opened. The flow into the stairwell was approximately 9 m/s and the flow out of the bulkhead door was 13 m/s with the wind driven flow combined with the PPV fan flow.

The simulated wind velocity of **11 m/s** (25 mph) into the bedroom window and out of the open apartment door steadily increased as the fire grew.

Opening the 7th floor stair door initiated the wind driven condition which had a peak velocity of **20 m/s** (45 mph). The velocity into the stairwell and out of the top of the open stairwell door peaked at approximately **13 m/s** (29 mph).

Temperatures in the stairwell were untenable for firefighters.

150° to 700° in the stair



An exterior 25 mph wind reverses the flow-path and directs flame, heat and smoke out into the corridor with the high velocity and intensity of a wind-driven fire

20 m/s

20 m/s

20 m/s

14 MW

Overall, airflow entering the room from PPV at 14.5 m³/s (52,200 m³/hr) reversed pressurised air flows within 3 minutes out of the vented window.

5 m/s

5 m/s

5 m/s



14 MW



36 m² room fire
1.9 m² Door
1.0 m² Window

NIST Technical Note 1629

Fire Fighting Tactics Under Wind Driven Fire Conditions: 7-Story Building Experiments



Stephen Kerber
Daniel Maszykowski

U.S. Department of Commerce
Building and Fire Research Laboratory
National Institute of Standards
and Technology
Gaithersburg, MD 20899



NIST National Institute of Standards and Technology • U.S. Department of Commerce



NIST Report 1629 (600 pages) on Wind Driven Fire Tests

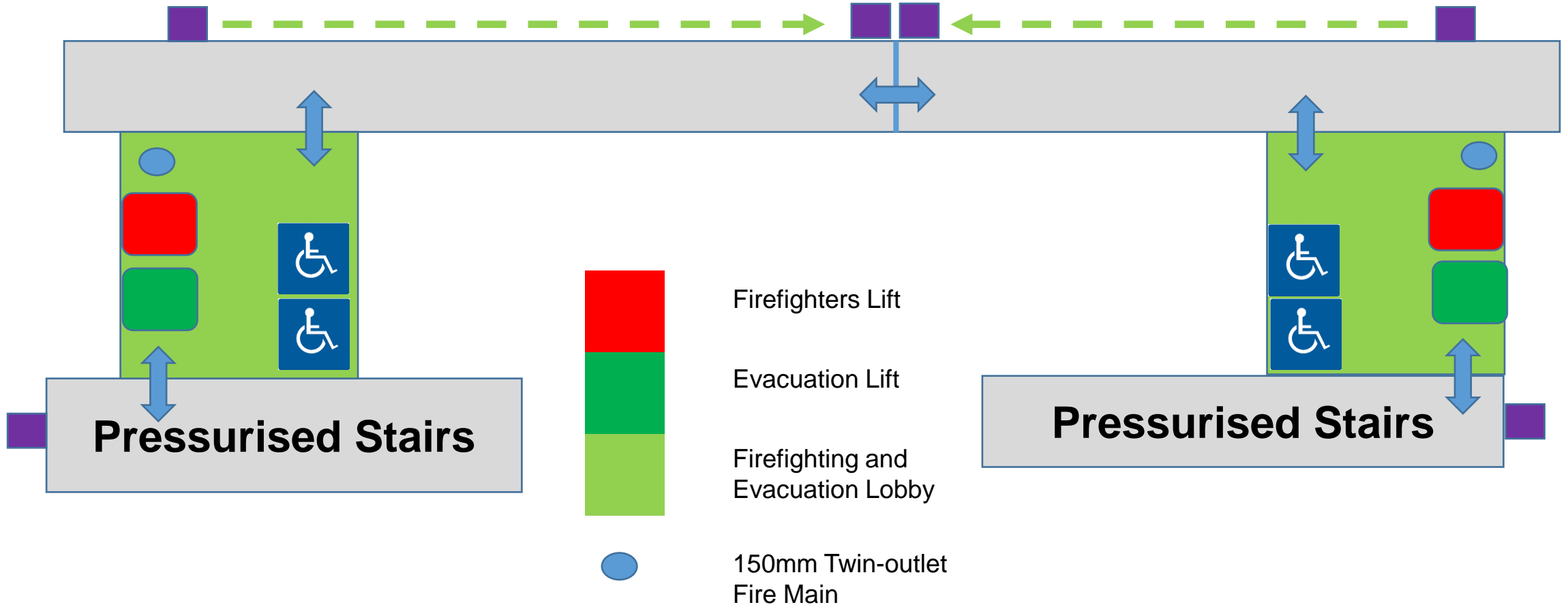
The End



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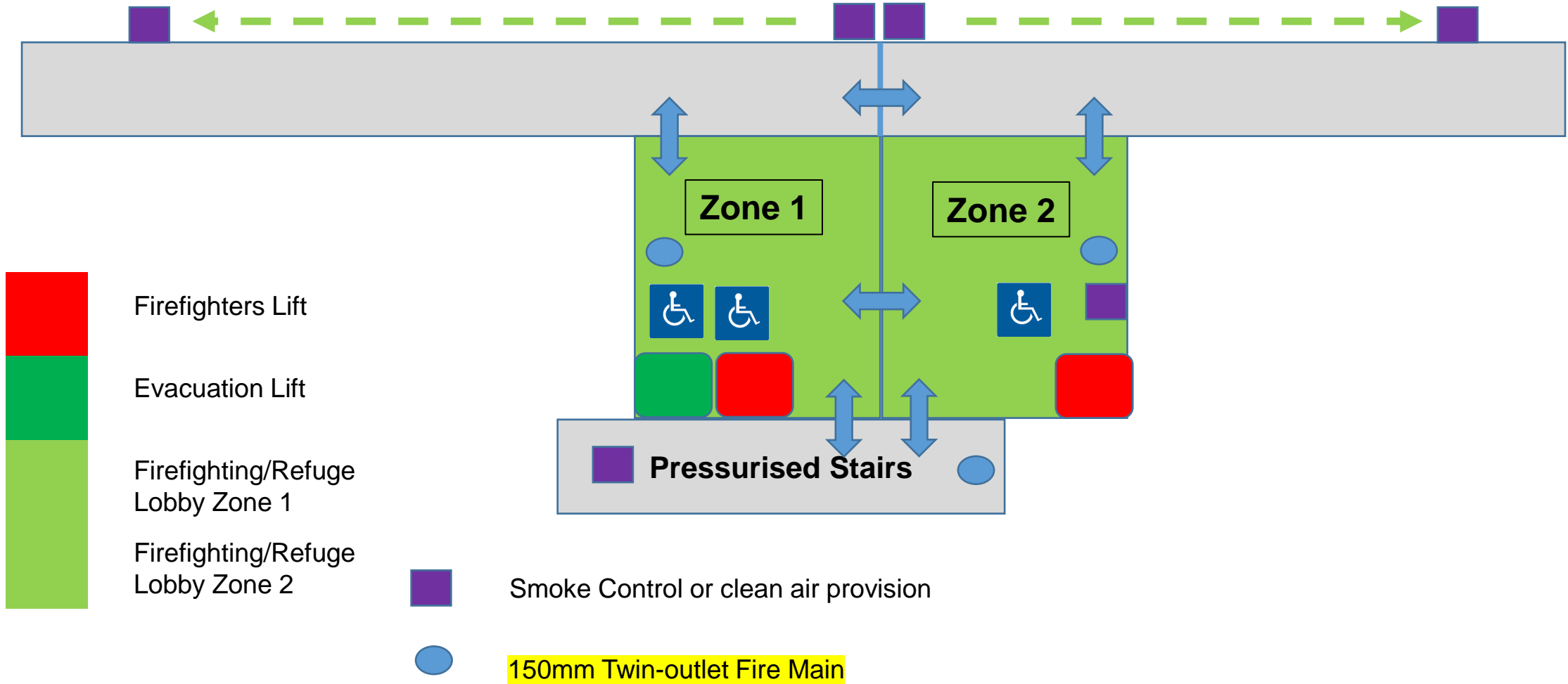
Maximum 120m Corridor (2 x 60m)



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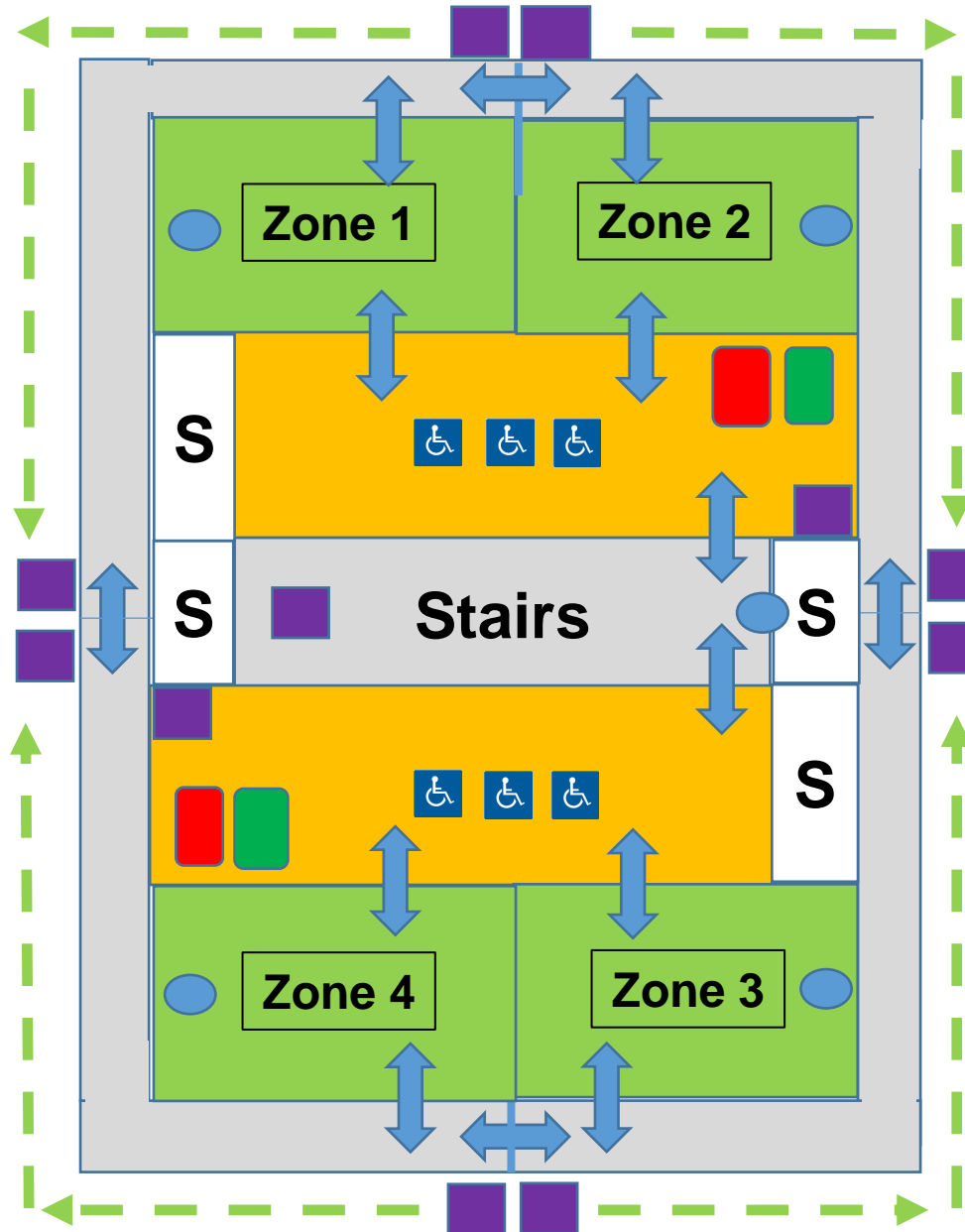
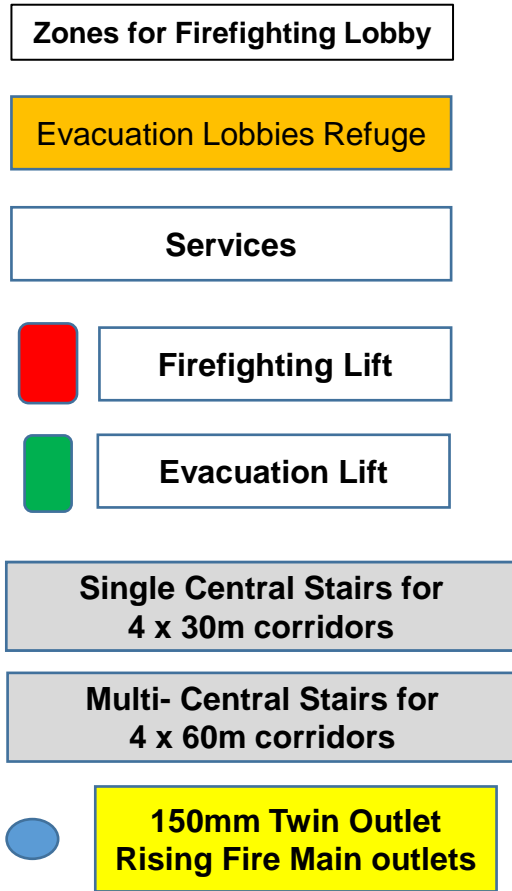
Maximum 60m Corridor (2 x 30-60m ?)



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Maximum 120m Corridor (4 x 30m)

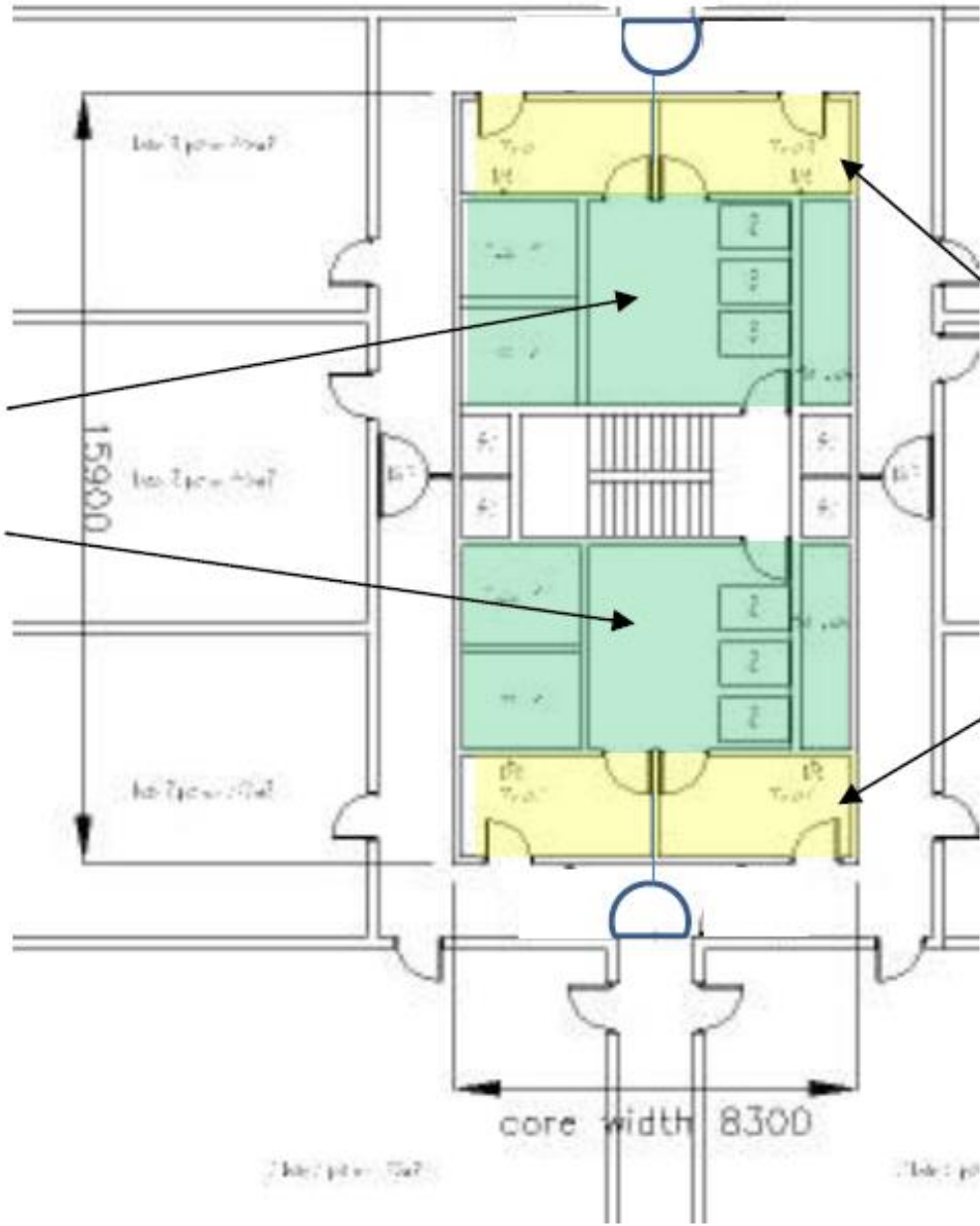


BS 9999:2017 –

Fire-fighting lobbies should have a clear floor area of not less than 5 m² (**6 m²**).

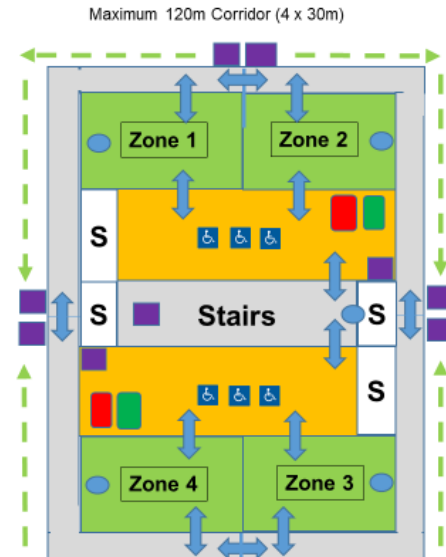
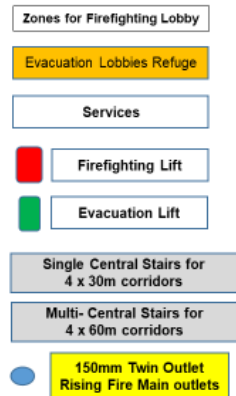
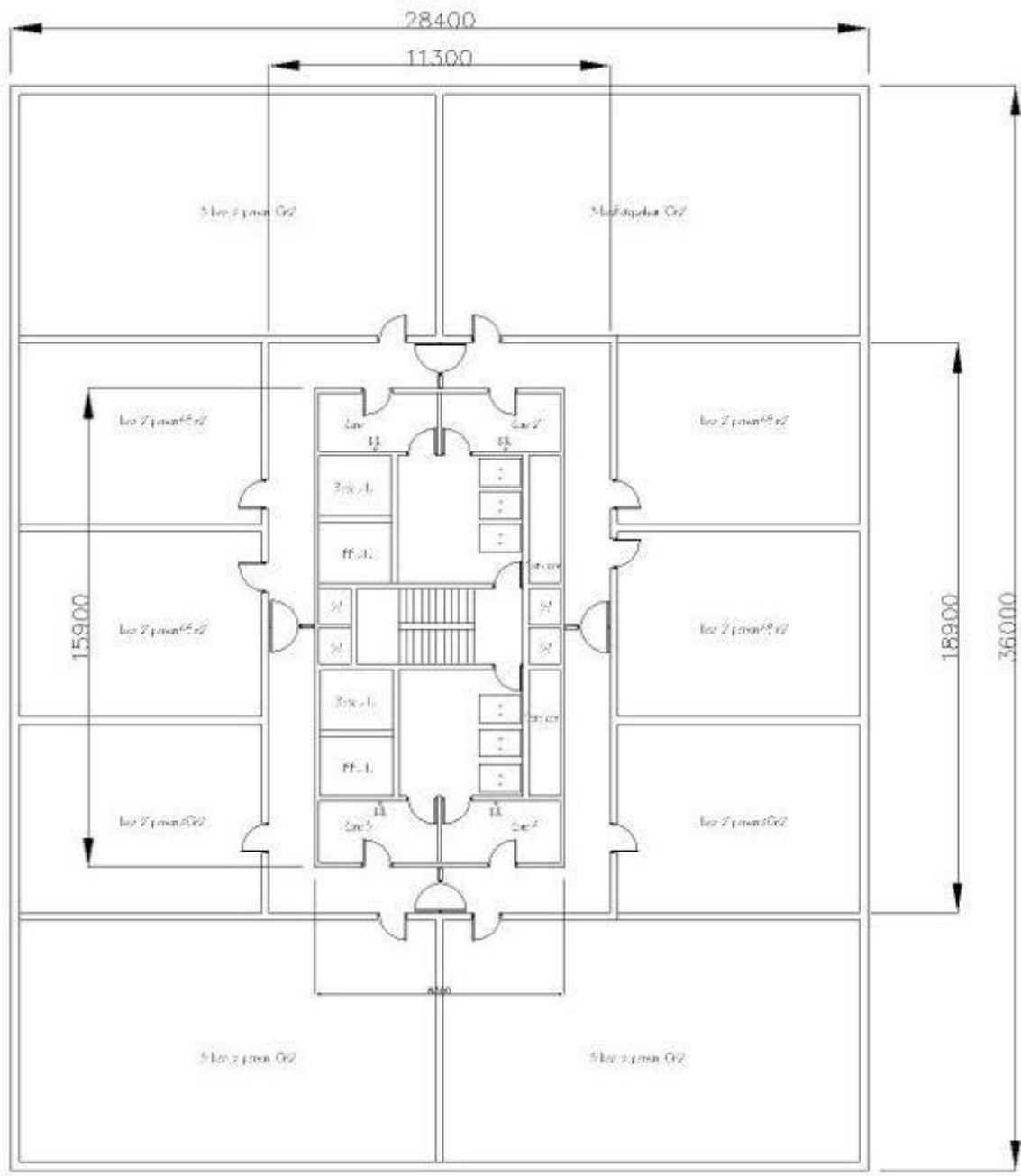
The clear floor area should not exceed 20 m² for lobbies serving up to four lifts, or 5 m² per lift for lobbies serving more than four lifts. All principal **[Evacuation & Refuge]** dimensions should be not less than 1.5 m and should not exceed 8 m in lobbies serving up to four lifts, or 2m per lift in lobbies serving more than four lifts.

Evacuation
lobbies with
interconnecting
access



Firefighting lobbies with twin
outlets in each lobby and in
the stairwell as an option

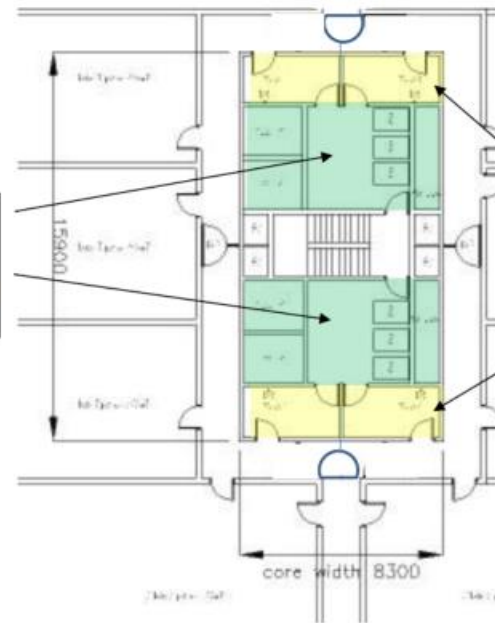
core width 8300



BS 9999:2017 –

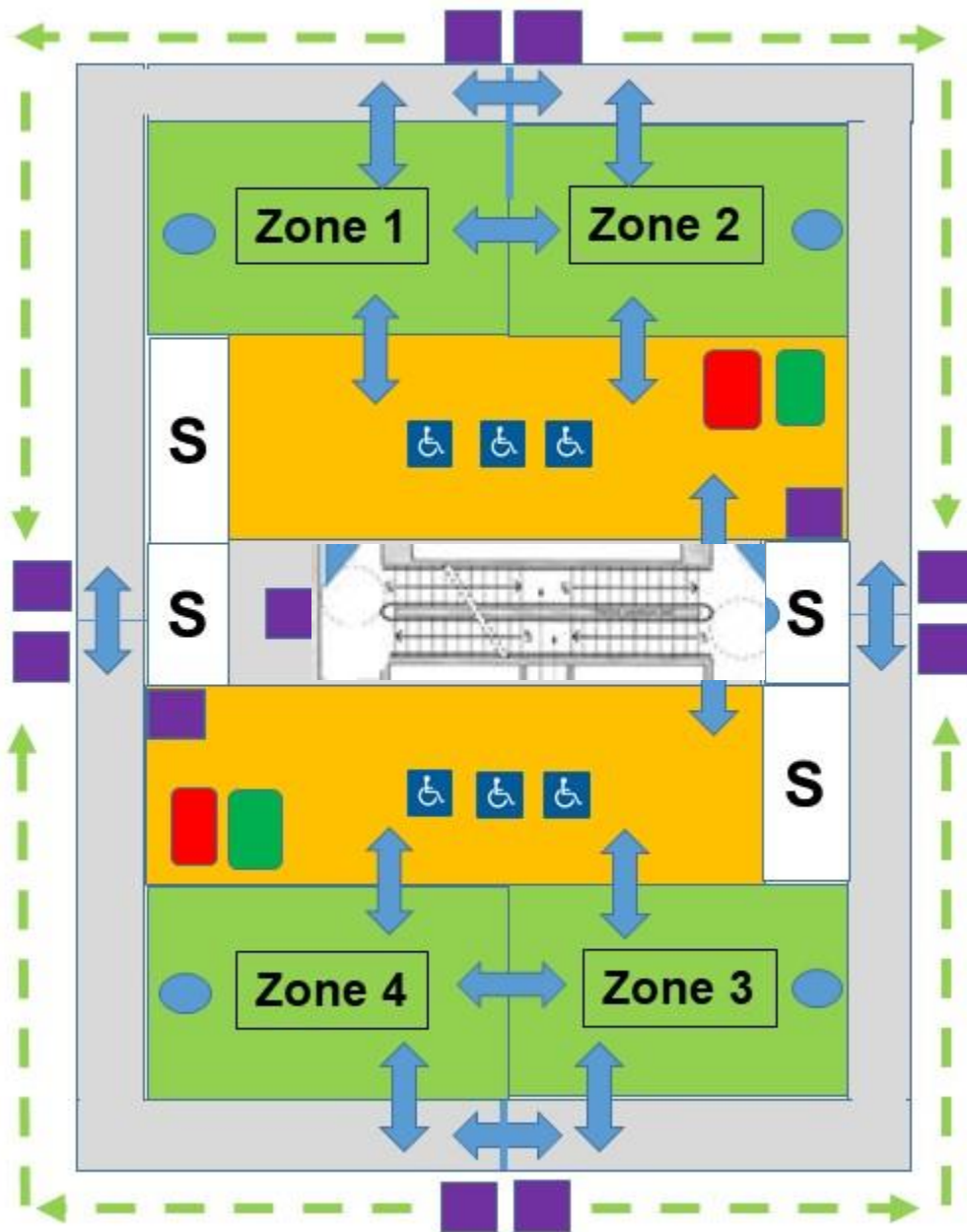
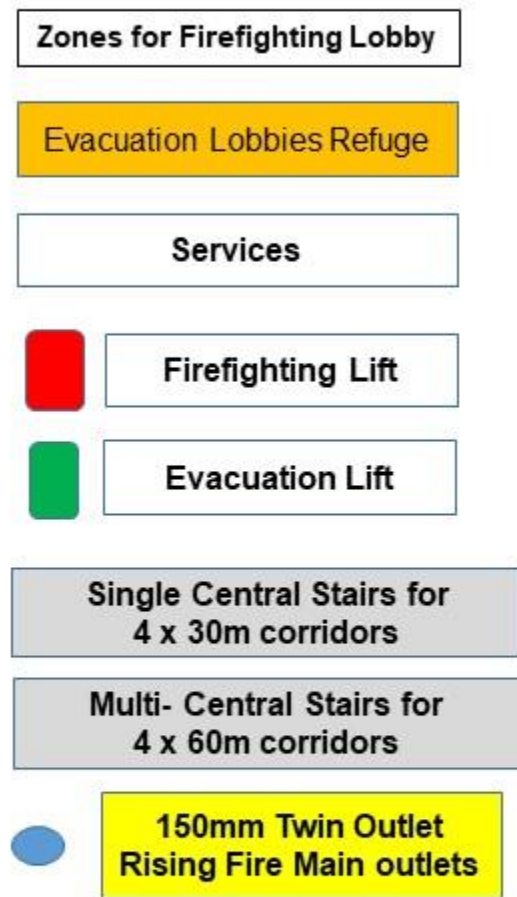
Fire-fighting lobbies should have a clear floor area of not less than 5 m² (6 m²).

The clear floor area should not exceed 20 m² for lobbies serving up to four lifts, or 5 m² per lift for lobbies serving more than four lifts. All principal **[Evacuation & Refuge]** dimensions should be not less than 1.5 m and should not exceed 8 m in lobbies serving up to four lifts, or 2m per lift in lobbies serving more than four lifts.



Firefighting lobbies with twin outlets in each lobby and in the stairwell as an option

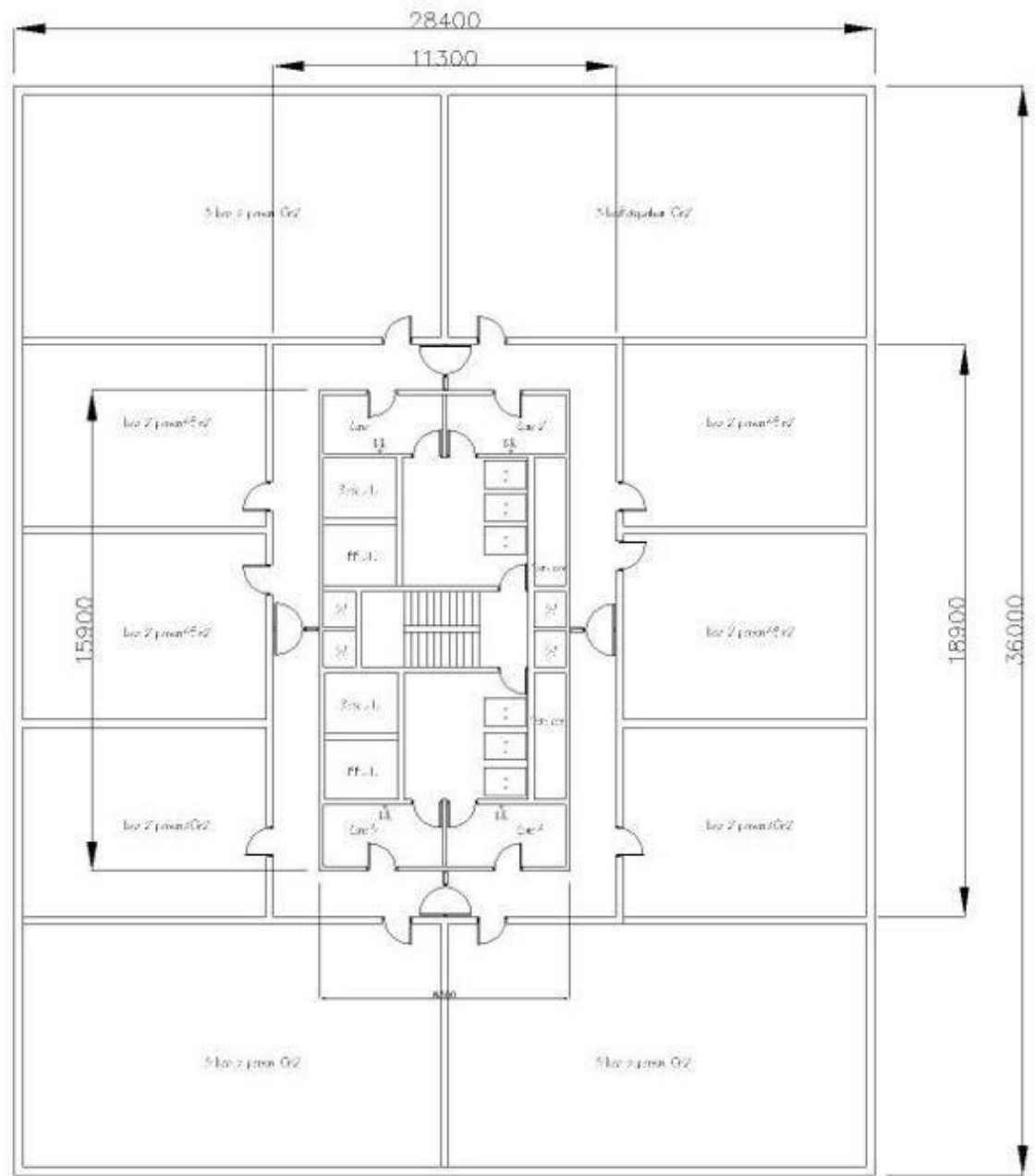
Maximum 120m Corridor (4 x 30m)



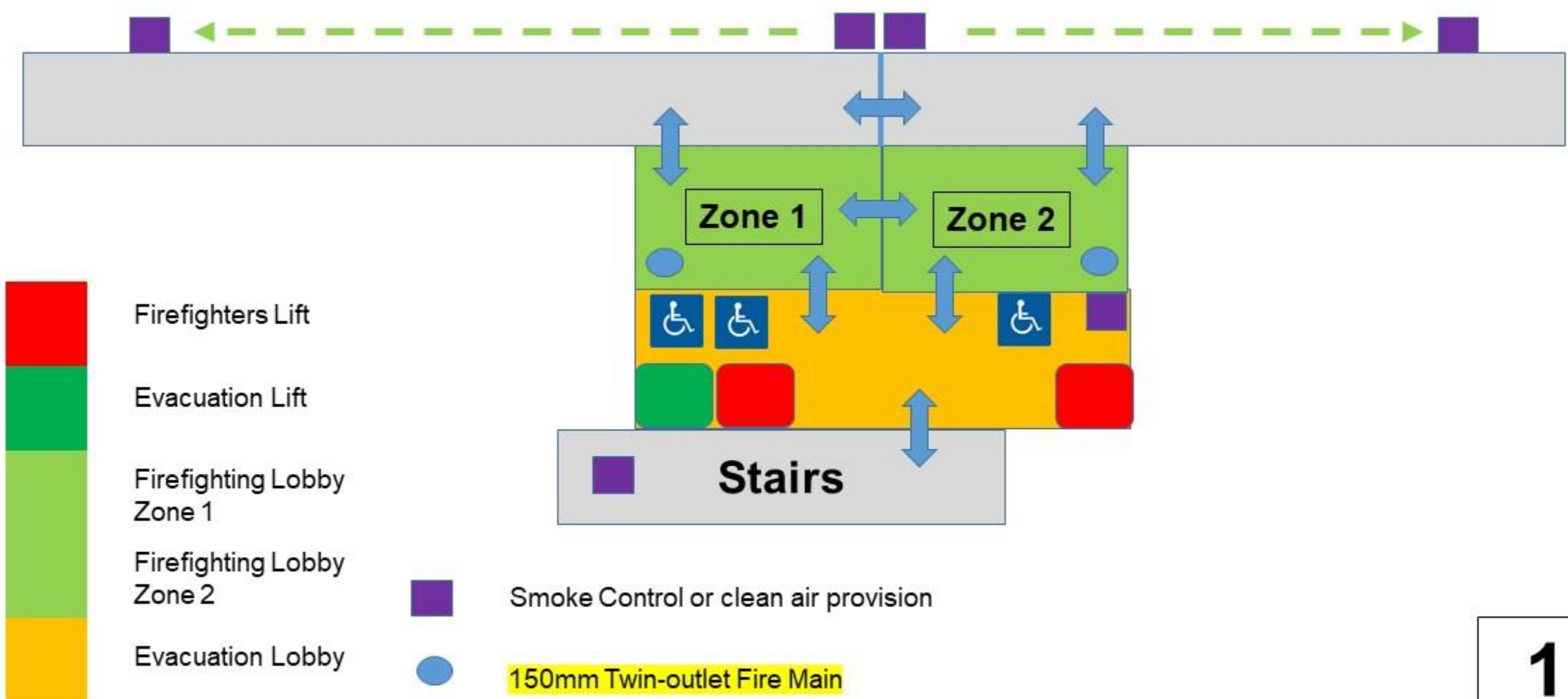
BS 9999:2017 –

Fire-fighting lobbies should have a clear floor area of not less than 5 m² (6 m²).

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Maximum 60m Corridor (2 x 30m)



Firefighters Lift

Evacuation Lift

Firefighting Lobby
Zone 1

Firefighting Lobby
Zone 2

Evacuation Lobby

Smoke Control or clean air provision

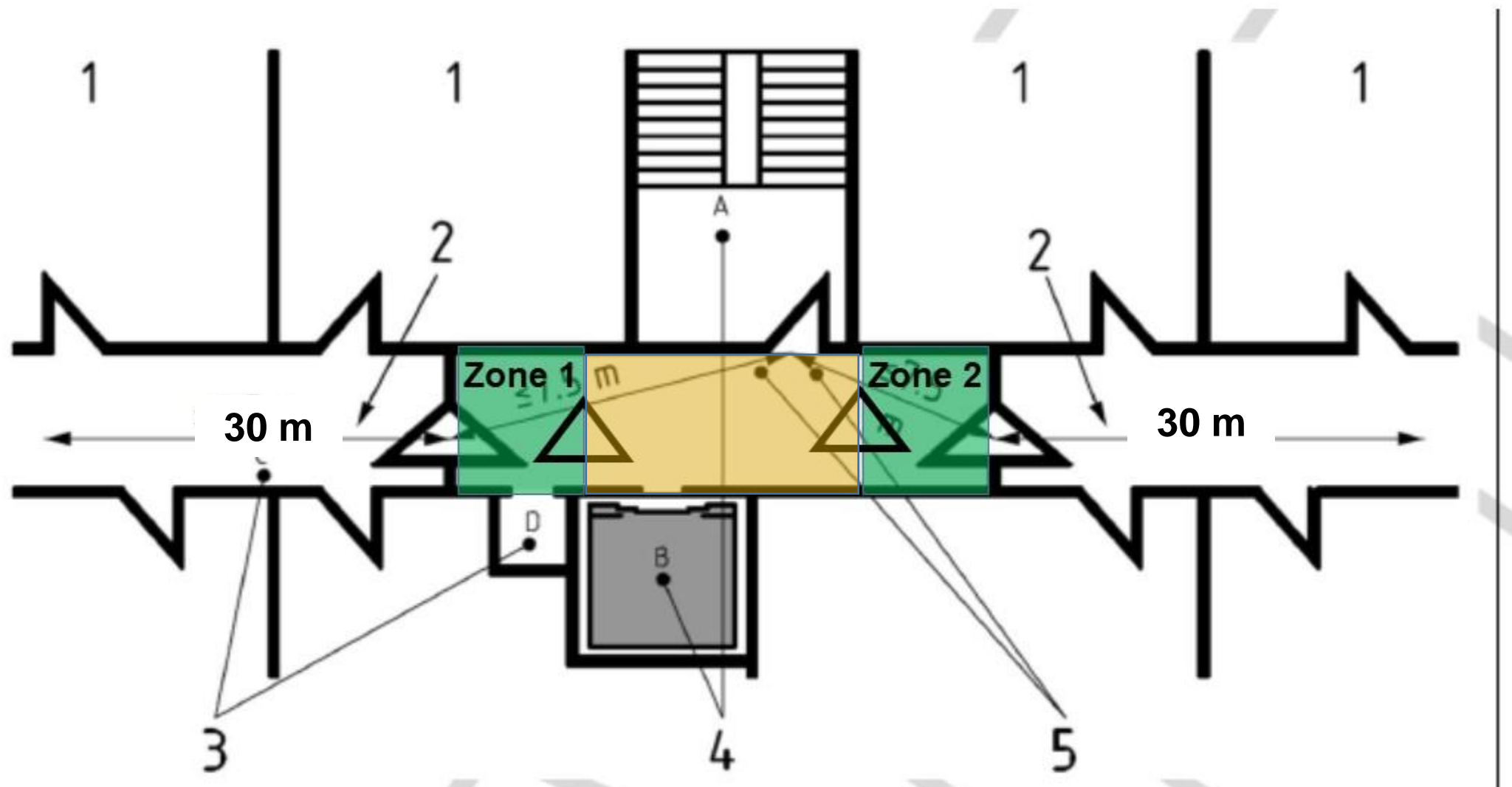
150mm Twin-outlet Fire Main

1



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a) Dwellings with corridor access