

35 wall thickness of typical dense phase CO₂ pipelines is beyond the known range of
36 applicability for the pipeline failure equations used within existing failure frequency models.
37 Furthermore, even though third party external interference failure frequency is not sensitive
38 to the product that a pipeline transports, there is however a limitation to the application of
39 existing UK fault databases with to onshore CO₂ pipelines as there are currently no dense
40 phase CO₂ pipelines operating in the UK. Further work needs to be conducted to confirm the
41 most appropriate approach for calculating failure frequency for dense phase CO₂ pipelines,
42 and it is recommended that a new failure frequency model suitable for dense phase CO₂
43 pipelines is developed that can be readily updated to the latest version of the fault
44 database.

45

46 **1. Introduction**

47 Carbon Capture, Usage and Storage (CCUS) is recognised by the United Kingdom (UK)
48 Government (Department for Business, Energy & Industrial Strategy, 2017) as one of a suite
49 of solutions required to reduce carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions into the atmosphere and
50 prevent catastrophic global climate change. In CCUS schemes, CO₂ is captured from large scale
51 industrial emitters and transported, predominantly by pipeline, to geological sites, such as
52 depleted oil or gas fields or saline aquifers, where it is injected into rock formations for
53 storage.

54 The most efficient method for the transportation of CO₂ is via pipeline in the dense phase, i.e.
55 above the critical pressure but below the critical temperature. This is because, in the dense
56 phase, CO₂ has the density of a liquid but the viscosity and compressibility of a gas (Downie,
57 Race and Seevam, 2007). The presence of impurities in the captured CO₂ will affect the critical
58 temperature and pressure (Wetenhall, Race and Downie, 2014), and pipelines transporting
59 this CO₂ may require operating pressures in excess of 150 barg to ensure single phase flow
60 (Noothout et al, 2014).

61 The National Grid COOLTRANS (CO₂Liquid pipeline TRANSportation) research programme
62 (Cooper and Barnett, 2014a) was carried out to address knowledge gaps in the design,
63 construction and operation of dense phase CO₂ pipelines in the UK. The aim of the programme
64 was to develop a comprehensive Quantitative Risk Assessment (QRA) methodology for dense
65 phase CO₂ pipelines, which could be used in routing and design studies to ensure that the
66 risk level from the CO₂ pipeline is as low as reasonably practicable in accordance with UK
67 legislation. Calculation of failure frequency is an important part of a pipeline QRA and failure
68 frequencies from all possible failure causes must be determined including corrosion, ground
69 movement, mechanical and third party external interference. As part of the COOLTRANS
70 research programme, a review was conducted to ascertain the technical basis and data on
71 which existing models are used to calculate failure frequency due to third-party external

72 interference and to evaluate the suitability of the models for use as part of a QRA
73 methodology for dense phase CO₂ pipelines. This paper documents part of the review.

74

75 **2. The Requirement for a Failure Frequency Model for Dense Phase CO₂ Pipelines**

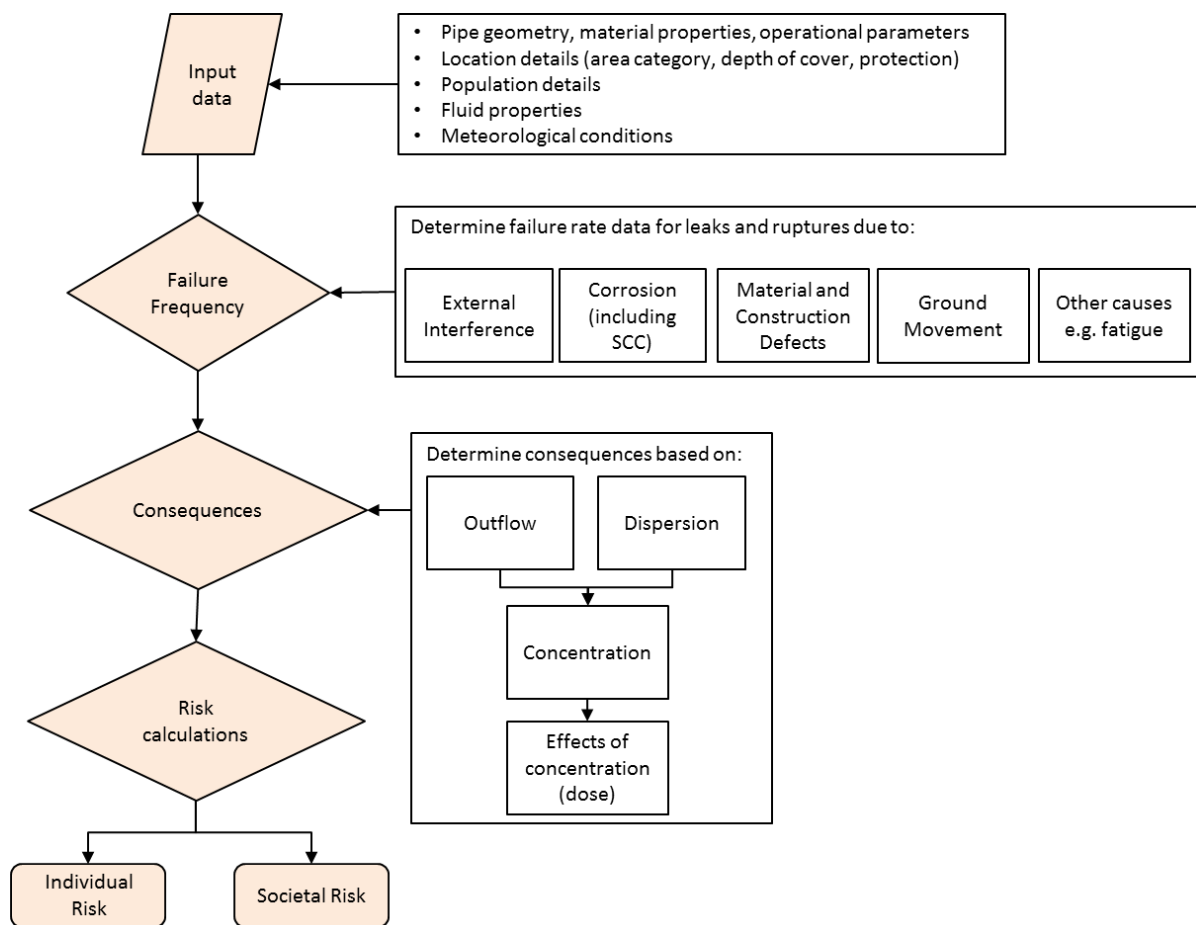
76 Being toxic, CO₂ is a hazardous substance, which in the unlikely event of an accidental release,
77 could cause harm to people. To comply with UK safety legislation, the design and construction
78 of proposed CO₂ pipelines requires compliance with recognised pipeline codes. Given that
79 there are CO₂ pipelines operating in the US (Knoope et al., 2014), it may be desirable to adopt
80 the United States (US) code for use in the UK. In the US, CO₂ pipelines are designed,
81 constructed and operated in accordance with the US Federal Code of Regulations, Title 49,
82 Volume 3, Part 195 - Transportation of Hazardous Liquids by Pipeline and the associate
83 American Society of Mechanical Engineers (ASME) standards B31.4 and B31.8. However,
84 according to the UK Health and Safety Executive (HSE) guidance (HSE, 2008), there are specific
85 issues that prevent the adoption of the US pipeline codes within the UK. Firstly, the US code
86 of regulations applies only to pipelines transporting CO₂ in the supercritical phase and
87 therefore may not be completely relevant to pipelines conveying dense phase CO₂, i.e. a
88 subcooled liquid. Secondly, the standard for gas transportation, ASME B31.8, specifically
89 excludes pipelines carrying CO₂ (in any phase), and whilst the standard for liquid
90 transportation, ASME B31.4, does not exclude pipelines transporting CO₂, it does not include
91 CO₂ on the list of fluids for which the code is intended to apply. It was therefore concluded by
92 the UK HSE guidance (2008) that there may be limited technical benefit in adopting US codes
93 or standards, either in their entirety or in part, for CO₂ pipeline design and construction in the
94 UK.

95 For the above reasons, it is required that the UK pipeline design code be modified in order to
96 account for the pipelines transporting dense phase CO₂. The UK code PD 8010: Part-1 defines
97 the separation distance between a hazardous pipeline and a nearby population as the
98 minimum distance to occupied buildings (MDOB) using a substance factor which gives
99 cautious estimates of the MDOB according to the hazardous nature of the substance (BSI,
100 2015). The value of the substance factor should be supported by reference to joint industry
101 or project specific research and guidance on the routeing of pipelines conveying CO₂ (Cooper
102 and Barnett, 2014b). A QRA approach, which involves the numerical estimation of risk from a
103 calculation of the frequencies and consequences of a complete and representative set of
104 credible accident scenarios, is therefore required to ensure the safe design, construction and
105 operation of a dense phase CO₂ pipeline.

106 The procedure for conducting a risk assessment for pipelines carrying flammable fluids, is well
107 established and embedded in industry guidance and codes of practice. Recommended QRA
108 methodologies based on best practice are published in the supporting Institution of Gas
109 Engineers and Managers (IGEM) standard IGEM/TD/2 (IGEM, 2008) and British Standards

110 Institution code PD 8010: Part-3 (BSI, 2013). The code PD 8010: Part-3 notes that while the
 111 QRA methodology addresses thermal hazards only, its principles can also be applied to toxic
 112 hazards.

113 The purpose of a CO₂ pipeline QRA is to determine the risks posed by the pipeline to people
 114 located nearby. The procedure involves the identification of hazard scenarios and considers
 115 both the probability and consequences of failure in order to calculate values for the individual
 116 and societal risks. The QRA process is outlined by the flow chart in Figure 1, indicated by the
 117 shaded boxes on the left hand side of the chart. This chart has been adapted from Figure 3 of
 118 PD 8010: Part-3 (BSI, 2013) by modifying the consequence calculations to make them
 119 appropriate for a toxic, rather than flammable fluid. The probability of failure is calculated
 120 through determination of the failure frequencies for all credible threats to the pipeline. The
 121 consequences of failure are calculated by considering the dose of CO₂ which an individual may
 122 be subjected to following a pipeline release. The consequences of failure therefore require
 123 prediction of the dispersion behaviour of a cloud of CO₂ following release. The consequence
 124 modelling has been extensively researched (Molag and Dam, 2011; Koornneef et al., 2009),
 125 however far less work has been published regarding CO₂ pipeline failure frequencies.

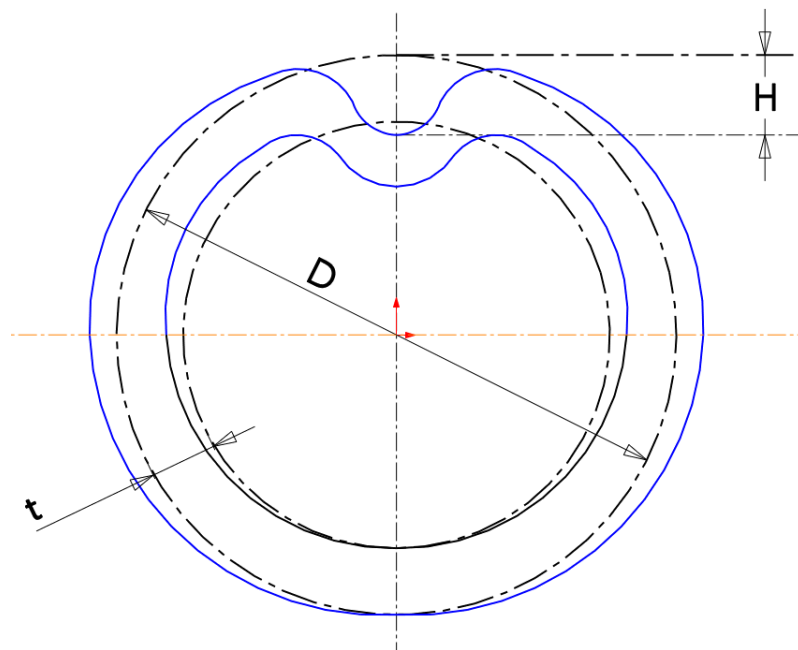


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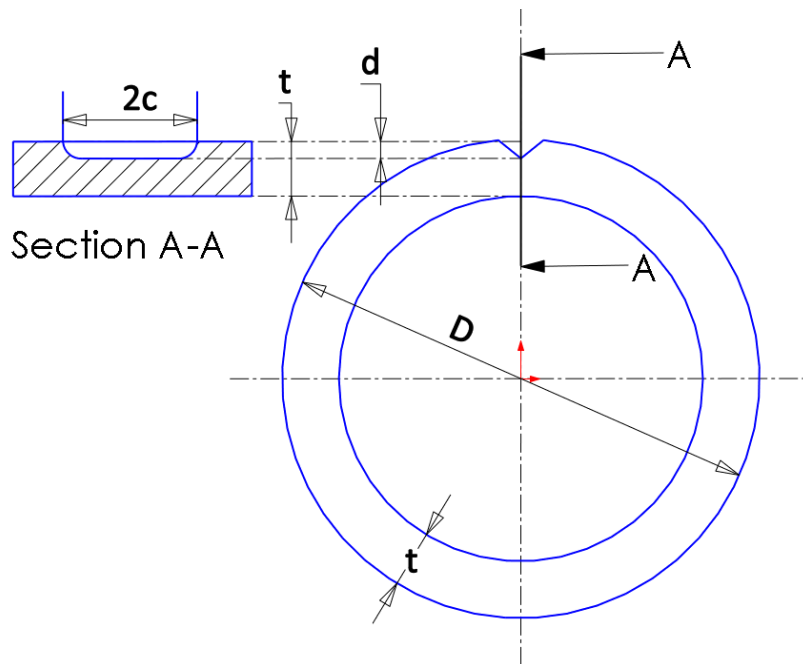
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Figure 1: – Risk calculation flow chart for CO₂ pipelines

128 CO₂ pipeline failure can occur due to numerous different mechanisms including third party
129 external interference, corrosion (internal and external), material and construction defects,
130 natural events such as ground movement and other causes such as fatigue; all of which must
131 be considered as part of the assessment (Goodfellow, 2006). This paper focuses on third party
132 external interference for two reasons; firstly, accidental or intentional human actions are one
133 of the main causes of pipeline failures (Cooper and Barnett, 2014b); and secondly this damage
134 cause may be random and is typically outside of the direct control of the pipeline operator.
135 External interference of a pipeline by a third party can result in mechanical damage to that
136 pipeline, which can occur in the form of dents, gouges, a combination of dents and gouges
137 and punctures. A dent will cause an area of local stress concentration and is a deformation of
138 the wall of the pipeline as shown in Figure 2, where D is the pipeline external diameter; H is
139 the depth of dent in the pipeline and t is the pipeline wall thickness. A gouge is a defect which
140 is defined by a loss of material from the pipe wall and is illustrated in Figure 3, where c is half
141 of the axial defect length; d is defect depth. A gouged dent (see Figure 4) is a combination of
142 both a dent defect and a gouge defect. Third party interference can also result in damage to
143 branches and fittings on a pipeline; failure can occur if these attachments are severely
144 damaged or severed from the pipeline. From a risk assessment point of view, the most
145 important factor in pipeline failure is whether the failure will occur as a leak or as a rupture.
146 A leak is defined as a failure which is stable. A rupture is defined as a failure which is unstable
147 and is significantly worse than a leak in consequence terms.

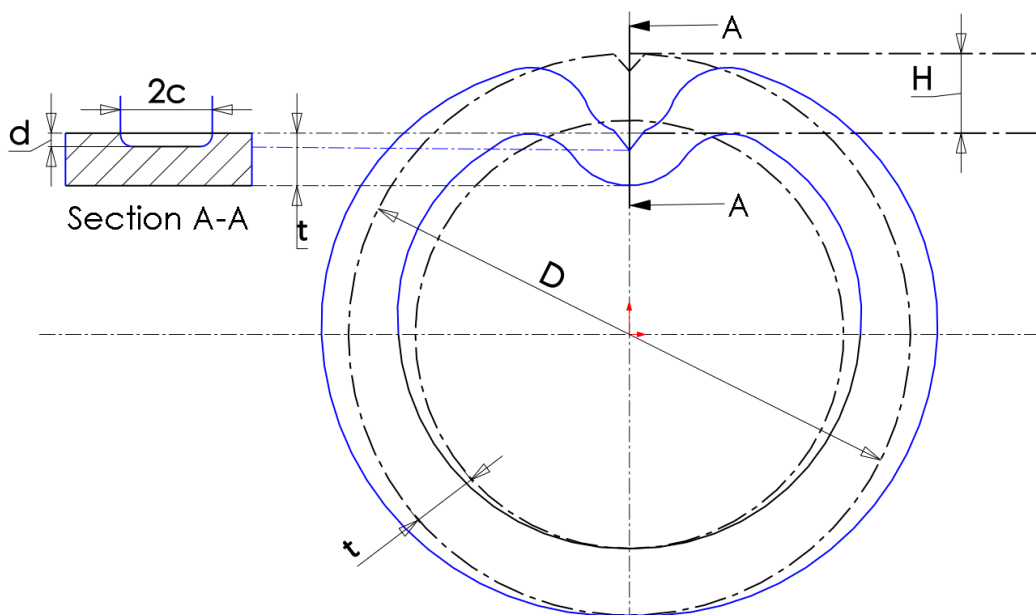


148 Figure 2: A representation of a pipeline dent
149



150

Figure 3: A representation of a pipeline gouge



151

152

Figure 4: A representation of a gouged dent

153 Third party external interference failure frequency models have been used in the oil and gas
 154 pipeline industry for over 25 years. Given the principles of containment, stress and fracture,
 155 and that all high-pressure pipelines are constructed using steel, third party external
 156 interference failure frequency, is not sensitive to the product that a pipeline transports.
 157 Indeed Parfomak and Fogler (2007) proposed that *'statistically, the number of incidents*
 158 *involving CO₂ pipelines should be similar to those for natural gas transmission pipelines'*. Thus,
 159 the models used to calculate third party external interference failure frequency for oil and gas
 160 pipelines may also be applicable to dense phase CO₂ pipelines. This study is intended to
 161 review the current pipeline failure frequency models and assesses whether they may be

162 extended to calculate pipeline failure frequency due to third party external interference for
163 dense phase CO₂ pipelines.

164 **3. Overview of Existing Failure Frequency Models**

165 For oil and gas pipelines, the frequency of pipeline failure due to third party external
166 interference has traditionally been calculated using models based upon probabilistic,
167 structural reliability methods. They are applied by combining the following:

- 168 • Limit state functions which are mathematical models which define the conditions for
169 failure (discussed in Section 3.1);
- 170 • Probability distributions of selected random variables based on historical data
171 (discussed in Sections 3.2 and 3.3) and
- 172 • A mathematical technique to calculate the probability of failure (e.g. Numerical
173 Integration, Monte Carlo, First Order Reliability Methods).

174 For pipelines, the limit state functions are based on semi-empirical fracture mechanics failure
175 equations; and the probability distributions are based on pipeline damage from historical
176 operational data. Failure probability is converted into failure frequency to take into account
177 the regularity of third party external interference damage.

178 **3.1. Limit State Functions**

179 The limit state functions define the conditions for failure in terms of the size of the defect,
180 the pipeline geometry, and the material properties of the linepipe steel. They are based upon
181 empirical or semi-empirical fracture mechanics failure equations for the failure of defects in
182 linepipe.

183 For all failure frequency models, separate limit state functions are required to describe the
184 following:

- 185 • Leak / rupture
- 186 • Gouge failure
- 187 • Gouged dent failure

188 The failure frequency models reviewed in this paper use limit state functions based on the
189 flow stress dependent form of the through-wall NG-18 equation (Kiefner, Maxey, Eiber and
190 Duffy, 1973) to determine whether damage will fail as a leak or rupture, the flow stress
191 dependent form of the part-wall NG-18 equation (Kiefner, Maxey, Eiber and Duffy, 1973) to
192 determine whether a gouge will fail and the British Gas Dent-Gouge Fracture Model
193 (BGDGM) (Hopkins, 1992) to determine whether a gouged dent will fail.

194

195 **3.1.1. The NG-18 Equations**

196 The NG-18 equations were developed by the Battelle Memorial Institute in the 1970s
197 (Cosham, 2002) and because of their accuracy and simplicity they have become accepted as
198 the industry standard for defect assessment, have been included as part of defect assessment
199 codes and have been used extensively since their introduction. The equations are semi-
200 empirical and are based upon the Dugdale (1960) strip-yield model and a series of full scale
201 experimental burst tests of vessels with through-wall and part-wall defects (Cosham, 2002).

202 Based upon the operating conditions of a pipeline, the through-wall NG-18 equation is used
203 to determine whether an axially oriented through-wall defect will lead to a full-bore rupture
204 or remain as a leak while the part-wall NG-18 equation is used to determine whether an axially
205 oriented part-wall defect (i.e. a gouge) will progress into a through-wall defect.

206 Both the through-wall and the part-wall NG-18 equations exist in two forms: toughness
207 dependent and flow stress dependent. Flow stress is a measure of the stress at which
208 unconstrained plastic flow occurs. In the failure frequency models, the flow stress dependent
209 form of the through-wall and part-wall NG-18 equations is used over the toughness
210 dependent form due to the high toughness of modern steels used for linepipe. The flow stress
211 was empirically determined from a series of full scale burst tests of vessels.

212

213 **3.1.2. The British Gas Dent Gouge Fracture Model (BGDGFM)**

214 The BGDGFM is used to determine, based upon the current operating conditions of the
215 pipeline, whether a part-wall gouged dent defect will progress into a through-wall defect.
216 Assuming that part-wall gouged dent failure occurs due to a combination of brittle fracture
217 and plastic collapse, the BGDGFM was developed by British Gas in the early 1980s (Cosham,
218 2001). It is semi-empirical and is based upon a modified version of the Dugdale strip-yield
219 model and series of experimental ring and vessel tests with artificial gouged dent defects
220 created at zero pressure.

221 The BGDGFM was calibrated using experimental tests for which the gouged dent damage was
222 created and measured in an unpressurised pipeline. It is noted that the BGDGFM assumes the
223 gouge is of infinite length and gouge length is not explicitly included.

224 **3.2 Incident Rates**

225 The frequency with which a pipeline is subject to a gouge or gouged dent is known as an
226 incident rate and is based upon historical data. In the UK, this historical database is the United
227 Kingdom Onshore Pipeline Operators' Association (UKOPA) Fault Database (Cosham, 2007)
228 which is subject to an annual update to include new data. The UKOPA database includes data

229 from the Engineering Research Station (ERS) Fault Database, a database encompassing all of
230 the transmission pipelines in the onshore gas transmission system in the UK. The database
231 records details of all known pipeline faults and failures, which were subject to an excavation
232 and on-site assessment, from 2016 dating back to 1962.

233

234 An Incident-Rate value is derived from the number of third party external interference
235 mechanical damage incidents and a value for operational exposure. This is then used,
236 alongside the probability of failure, to calculate the total failure frequency rate.

237

238 **3.3 Probability Distributions and Calculating the Probability of Failure**

239 The failure frequency models described in this paper use random variables in the calculation
240 of the probability of failure. These variables appear in the limit state functions as, for example,
241 gouge length, gouge depth or gouge dent depth. The majority of the failure frequency models
242 reviewed here use fitted Weibull cumulative probability distributions to describe the random
243 variables. The Weibull distributions were fitted based on pipeline damage data and were
244 chosen due to their versatility in allowing a wide variety of physical quantities to be accurately
245 represented.

246 In a failure frequency model the cumulative distribution functions for each random damage
247 variable then allow the probability of a gouge or gouged dent damage of a certain size or
248 greater to be calculated using numerical integration or by statistical methods. The total failure
249 frequency can then be calculated by combining the probability of failure with the incident
250 rate.

251 **4. Review of Existing Failure Frequency Models**

252 The various models currently in use within the oil and natural gas pipeline industry differ in
253 their subtleties; however all are based upon a methodology originally developed by British
254 Gas. They are briefly described in the following sub-sections starting with the British Gas
255 Engineering Research Station (ERS) Hazard Analysis Model.

256 **4.1. The British Gas ERS Hazard Analysis Model**

257 A model to calculate pipeline failure frequency due to third party external interference was
258 developed at the British Gas ERS in the 1980s. The model uses a combination of structural
259 reliability methods and trends derived from historical operational data to calculate a value for
260 failure frequency. Failure frequency is calculated for a user defined pipeline based upon its
261 diameter, wall thickness, operating pressure, steel grade, fracture toughness and area type
262 (Matthews, 1984; Corder, 1985a; Corder, 1985b; Corder, 1986).

263 **4.1.1. Hazard Analysis Model Structural Reliability Component and Limit States**

264 The structural reliability based component of the Hazard Analysis model considers the failure
265 of part-wall damage and through-wall punctures. In this part of the model, pipeline failure is
266 considered to occur via one of three damage failure mechanisms:

- 267 • Failure of a gouge.
- 268 • Failure of a gouged dent.
- 269 • Direct breach of a pipe wall.

270 In the model, pipeline failure frequency is therefore dependent on:

- 271
- 272 • The frequency with which a pipeline is subjected to a gouge;
- 273 • The frequency with which a pipeline is subjected to a gouged dent;
- 274 • The probability of failure of a gouge; and
- 275 • The probability of failure of a gouged dent.

276 Additionally, the model considers that pipeline failure will result in either a leak or a rupture.

277

278 The limit state functions used in the Hazard Analysis model define the conditions for failure
279 in terms of the size of the defect, the pipeline geometry and the material properties of the
280 linepipe steel. In order to determine whether damage will fail as a leak or rupture, a critical
281 defect length is defined using the flow stress dependent form of the through-wall NG-18
282 equation. In order to determine whether a gouge will fail, a critical gouge depth is defined
283 using the flow stress dependent form of the part-wall NG-18 equation (Kiefner, Maxey, Eiber
284 and Duffy, 1973). In order to determine whether a gouged dent will fail, a critical dent depth
285 is defined using the BGDGFM (Hopkins, 1992).

286

287 **4.1.1.1. Hazard Analysis Model Incident Rates**

288 In the Hazard Analysis model four different incident rates are used. In addition to the different
289 values required for gouges and gouged dents, the incident rates are also split depending on
290 whether the land through which a pipeline is routed is rural (R-type) or suburban (S-type) as
291 different machinery operating in different areas produced different damage profiles. The
292 incident rates are based upon an analysis of the ERS Fault Database.

293

294 **4.1.1.2. Hazard Analysis Model Probability Distributions**

295 The Hazard Analysis model uses six random variables to describe the size of the gouge or dent
296 defect within the limit state functions: Gouge Length, Gouged Dent Gouge Length, Gouge
297 Depth in Rural Type Areas, Gouge Depth in Suburban Type Areas, Gouged Dent Gouge Depth
298 and Gouged Dent Depth. Six separate Weibull probability distributions were derived to

299 describe the six random variables using defect size data from the ERS Fault Database. All of
300 the other variables, describing pipeline geometry and material properties, in the limit state
301 functions were assumed to be deterministic quantities.

302 **4.1.1.3. Hazard Analysis Model Probability of Failure of a Gouge and a Gouged Dent**

303 The probability and frequency of failure for gouge and gouged dent damage in the Hazard
304 Analysis model are calculated using numerical integration with the trapezium rule (Matthews,
305 1984; Corder, 1985a). However, it is noted that the gouge length Weibull distribution was
306 truncated at 1,397 mm. The leak, rupture and total failure frequency are then calculated by
307 combining the incident rate with the probability of failure.

308 **4.1.2. Hazard Analysis Model Historical Data Component**

309 The historical data component of the Hazard Analysis model considers through-wall damage
310 only. In this part of the model, a value for failure frequency is determined for failures resulting
311 from damage to branches and fittings on the pipeline. The failure frequency is determined
312 directly from historical operational data for failures of this type contained in the ERS Fault
313 Database. The overall leak, rupture and total failure frequency are calculated by combining
314 the results from the structural reliability component and the historical data component.

315

316 **4.1.3. Summary of Hazard Analysis Model**

317 The Hazard Analysis model uses the combination of a structural reliability component
318 (including the NG-18 Equations and BGDGFM) and an historical data component. Developed
319 in the 1980s, it uses the old ERS Fault Database and has been replaced by other models
320 described in the following sections.

321 **4.2. FFREQ**

322 FFREQ is the current UK pipeline industry standard model for calculating pipeline failure
323 frequency due to third party external interference. The model was developed by British Gas
324 as an update to the Hazard Analysis model described in Section 4.1 (Corder, 1993; Corder,
325 1995) and exists in the form of a software package. As with Hazard Analysis, FFREQ uses the
326 combination of a structural reliability component and an historical data component in order
327 to calculate a value for failure frequency. Certain modifications and augmentations were
328 made to the failure frequency calculation methodology used in Hazard Analysis in order to
329 produce FFREQ, but these were poorly documented.

330 This model offers comprehensive features and includes additional functionality to take into
331 account the resistance of pipes to denting, the pipeline depth cover (pipelines that are buried
332 deeply are less prone to damage) and the option to include a sleeve (an additional layer of
333 protection) analysis. However, users do not have access to the FFREQ source code and can

334 only enter input data and receive an output. This was compounded by the lack of definitive
335 documentation as to the exact content of the model. It is therefore not possible to determine
336 the exact changes made between Hazard Analysis and FFREQ. However, the limit state
337 functions used are identical to those used in the Hazard Analysis model (Corder, 1993; Corder,
338 1995) meaning that the structural analysis in FFREQ is based on the NG-18 Equations and the
339 BGDGFM.

340 **4.3. PIPIN**

341 PIPEline INtegrity model (PIPIN) is the model used by the HSE to determine failure frequencies
342 for the four largest causes of failure (construction defects, natural events, corrosion and third
343 party external interference), for a user defined pipeline. The model was developed for the
344 HSE by W.S. Atkins in the late 1990s (HSE, 2003). Certain elements of the PIPIN model are
345 based upon the pipeline failure frequency methodology developed by British Gas and used in
346 the Hazard Analysis model. However, due to differences in application; changes to the
347 methodology; and updated statistics, the PIPIN and Hazard Analysis models appear notably
348 different to each other. In PIPIN, the structural reliability component and the historical data
349 component are completely distinct and produce failure frequency values relating to different
350 causes. Failure frequencies for construction defects, natural events and corrosion are
351 determined using the historical data component. The structural reliability component of PIPIN
352 is directly analogous to the structural reliability component of the Hazard Analysis model and
353 is used to calculate the failure frequencies for third party external interference. Failure stress
354 is determined by the NG-18 Equation. For the gouged dent limit state function, PIPIN uses a
355 limit state function based on the Dugdale strip-yield model (as in the BGDGFM model). Like
356 FFREQ, the PIPIN model includes the effect of depth of cover.

357 When compared with other models, there are many unique features to the PIPIN model.
358 Firstly, the limit state function for leak/rupture is defined using the British Energy R6 rev. 3
359 assessment procedure (Milne, Ainsworth, Dowling and Stewart, 1988) and this introduces a
360 brittle fracture component to the failure; secondly, additional distributions are used to
361 describe uncertainty in parameters such as the pipeline diameter, wall thickness and the limit
362 state functions themselves in an attempt to produce a more realistic representation of failure
363 frequency; and finally, the probability and frequency of failure for gouges and gouged dents
364 in PIPIN are calculated using the Monte Carlo method. Like FFREQ, PIPIN also includes
365 additional functionality to take into account the resistance of pipes to denting.

366 However, there is some uncertainty regarding the use of operational data within the PIPIN
367 model. For example it is not clear, whether data from both S-type and R-type areas in the
368 UKOPA Fault Database were included in the derivation of the PIPIN gouge depth distribution;
369 the source of the random variable distributions for the limit state functions; and how data
370 regarding punctures and failure from damage to branches and fittings were treated in the
371 derivation of the damage dimension distributions.

372 **4.4. PIE**

373 In the 20 year period since the development of the Hazard Analysis model, FFREQ had been
374 widely adopted within the pipeline industry to calculate third party external interference
375 failure frequencies for QRA. The reliance on FFREQ however raised concern, given the
376 somewhat opaque nature of the model. It was also felt that since FFREQ was developed in
377 1993, there existed many years of additional operational data, which could be used to provide
378 updated and more accurate probability distributions and incident rates. To address this, the
379 PIE model was developed by Pipeline Integrity Engineers (PIE) in 2006 (Lyons, 2006; Haswell,
380 2008; Lyons, 2008) as a reproduction of the failure frequency methodology from the Hazard
381 Analysis model. The model was developed for UKOPA in order to address the above issues,
382 and to investigate and understand the impact of pipeline parameters on failure frequency
383 due to external interference, and the significance of the damage data recorded in the UKOPA
384 Pipeline Fault Database.

385 The PIE model was developed using the original documentation relating to the development
386 of the Hazard Analysis model, in addition to the 2005 UKOPA Fault Database. Although the
387 model was an attempt to directly reproduce the Hazard Analysis model with updated
388 operational data, it is somewhat simplified in comparison. In particular, the model does not
389 include an historical data component. The six random variables from the Hazard Analysis
390 model were consolidated in the PIE model with data from both gouges and gouged dents
391 being used together to derive single distributions for gouge depth and gouge length
392 distributions and no distinctions are made between data from S-type and R-type areas.
393 Additionally, the incident rate also makes no distinction between gouges and gouged dents.

394 **4.5. Cosham Model**

395 In 2007, UKOPA commissioned a study to investigate “*risk reduction factors*”, which were
396 included in the pipeline integrity management code supplement PD 8010: Part-3 (BSI, 2013).
397 As part of this study a probabilistic model was developed, hereafter referred to as the
398 “Cosham model”, which could be used to calculate the probability of failure of a pipeline due
399 to mechanical damage. This model was used to determine probabilistic risk reduction factor
400 values which could then be compared with the deterministic values included in the code
401 (Cosham, 2007).

402 The Cosham model is based upon the Hazard Analysis Model and its limit state functions are
403 almost identical to those used in the Hazard Analysis Model (it uses different coefficient
404 values). However, it does not calculate the pipeline failure frequency as with the other models
405 reviewed; instead it is concerned only with the probability of failure and it uses direct
406 integration rather than numerical integration to produce its output. Additionally, the model
407 does not include an historical data component, basing its output entirely on structural
408 reliability methods. Like FFREQ, the Cosham model considers the resistance of pipes to
409 denting, and also includes a relationship to account for the “re-rounding” effect of internal

410 pressure. Similar to the PIE model, the Cosham model uses consolidated damage variables
411 which make no distinction between gouge and gouged dent damage in terms of the gouge
412 length and gouge depth, or between S and R area types.

413 **4.6. Penspen Damage Distributions Update**

414 The development and publication of the PIE model instigated a discussion within UKOPA
415 regarding future recommendations on models to calculate pipeline failure frequency due to
416 third party external interference. UKOPA ultimately decided that FFREQ would remain the
417 recommended model for use in the industry. It was acknowledged however, that updates of
418 the incident rates and probability distributions used in FFREQ were required to take account
419 of more recent operational data; and that these updates should be continuous and take place
420 on a regular basis. In 2010 UKOPA commissioned Penspen to update the probability
421 distributions and incident rates for FFREQ (Goodfellow, 2012) using the most up to date data
422 (as of 2009).

423 Despite the fact that the motivation for the study was to provide an update to FFREQ, the
424 probability distributions and incident rate derived by Penspen are actually more suited to the
425 simplified nature of the PIE model. The variables make no distinction between gouge and
426 gouged dent damage in terms of the gouge length and gouge depth, or between S and R area
427 types. Additionally, the incident rate makes no distinction between gouges and gouged dents.

428 **5. Comparison of Existing Failure Frequency Models**

429 All of the existing failure frequency models are rooted in probabilistic, structural reliability
430 methods. The models use similar or identical semi-empirical fracture mechanics failure
431 equations to define limit state functions and probability distributions based on historical
432 operational pipeline damage data. Some have augmented their structural reliability
433 procedure with an additional historical data component.

434 The majority of the models use the same failure equations for the limit state functions,
435 namely the NG-18 equations for leak/rupture and gouge failure, and the BGDGFM for gouged
436 dent failure. The one exception to this is the PIPIN model, which uses the British Energy R6
437 rev. 3 assessment procedure. It can be shown however, that the methods used in this
438 procedure are very similar to those of the BGDGFM.

439 In terms of operational data, each model has used the most up to date version of the
440 UKOPA/ERS Fault database available at the time of the model's construction. Models
441 produced later therefore include all of the operational data from the earlier models
442 supplemented by data from the additional years of pipeline operation.

443 Despite the similarities between the models noted above, each model is constructed in its
444 own individual way with different choices having been made regarding failure modelling and

445 data manipulation. Based on the relative merits of these choices, each model can be
446 considered to have its own advantages.

447 It is important to note that the structural reliability methods used in the failure frequency
448 models are not dependent upon pipeline wall thickness or any other quantity related to the
449 transportation of dense phase CO₂ by pipelines. The methods themselves are non-specific and
450 are used for a wide variety of applications throughout engineering. The applicability of a
451 structural reliability method to any given situation depends entirely upon the applicability of
452 the models and data contained within them.

453 **6. Applicability of Existing Failure Frequency Models to Dense Phase CO₂ Pipelines**

454 In order to ascertain the applicability of existing failure frequency models to dense phase CO₂
455 pipelines, firstly, the minimum required wall thicknesses for different dense phase CO₂
456 pipeline designs was estimated. Then the applicability of existing failure frequency models is
457 discussed in terms of whether their structural reliability methods and historical data meet the
458 design requirements of typical dense phase CO₂ pipelines.

459 **6.1. Minimum Required Wall Thickness Estimations for Dense Phase CO₂ Pipelines**

460 It is important to estimate the minimum required wall thicknesses for different dense phase
461 CO₂ pipeline designs scenarios in order to understand whether they could potentially be
462 outside the range of applicability of current failure frequency models. The minimum required
463 wall thicknesses can be calculated using the following thin wall formula for allowable hoop
464 stress in PD 8010: Part-1 (BSI, 2015):

$$\sigma_H = \frac{PD}{20t} \leq e a \sigma_{SMYS} \quad (1)$$

465 where P is internal pressure, D is outside diameter, t is wall thickness, e is the weld factor
466 (assumed to be 1), a is the design factor and σ_{SMYS} is the Specified Minimum Yield Stress
467 (SMYS).

468 CO₂ pipeline data (Noothout et al, 2014) from existing projects indicates that the minimum
469 operational pressure may exceed 150 barg. Assuming typical CO₂ pipelines with diameters of
470 610mm (24'') and 914mm (36''), and a maximum operational pressure of 150 barg, the
471 minimum required wall thicknesses are calculated using formula (10) for different materials
472 (API 5L X52, X65 and X80) with different design factors (0.3, 0.5 and 0.72) and are listed in
473 Table 2. The range is in line with data from existing UK projects such as the White Rose project
474 which proposed an onshore pipeline with 610 mm (24'') outside diameter, carbon steel grade
475 L450/(X65) and 19.1 mm minimum wall thickness (White Rose, 2016).

476

477

P	D	API 5L Material	SMYS	Design factor 'a'	Weld factor 'e'	Maximum Hoop Stress e.a. σ_{SMYS}	Minimum Wall Thickness 't'
(bar)	(mm)		(N/mm ²)			(N/mm ²)	(mm)
150	610	X52	360	0.3	1	108	42
150	610	X52	360	0.5	1	180	25
150	610	X52	360	0.72	1	259.2	20
150	610	X65	450	0.3	1	135	36
150	610	X65	450	0.5	1	225	22.2
150	610	X65	450	0.72	1	324	14.2
150	610	X80	555	0.3	1	166.5	27
150	610	X80	555	0.5	1	277.5	17.5
150	610	X80	555	0.72	1	399.6	12.5
150	914	X52	360	0.3	1	108	63
150	914	X52	360	0.5	1	180	40
150	914	X52	360	0.72	1	259.2	28.0
150	914	X65	450	0.3	1	135	51
150	914	X65	450	0.5	1	225	32
150	914	X65	450	0.72	1	324	22.2
150	914	X80	555	0.3	1	166.5	41
150	914	X80	555	0.5	1	277.5	25
150	914	X80	555	0.72	1	399.6	17.5

479 Table 2: Estimation of the minimum required CO₂ pipeline wall thicknesses

480 In the following sections these wall thicknesses will be used to illustrate the applicability of
481 the components making up current failure frequency (and hence the models themselves) to
482 dense phase typical CO₂ pipelines.

483 6.2. The Range of Applicability of the NG-18 Equations

484 Being semi-empirical, the NG-18 equations were calibrated using experimental tests of
485 vessels with through-wall and part-wall defects. The range of applicability of each equation
486 with regards to wall thickness can be inferred from the range of vessel wall thicknesses used
487 in the corresponding set of burst tests used to derive it.

488 The through-wall NG-18 equations were calibrated using the results of 92 burst tests on
489 vessels with axially orientated, artificially machined, through-wall defects while the part-wall
490 NG-18 equations were calibrated using the results of 48 burst tests on vessels with axially
491 orientated, artificially machined, part-wall defects (v-shaped notches). The tests were carried
492 out by Battelle between 1965 and 1974. The range of experimental parameters for the
493 through-wall and the part-wall tests is shown in Tables 3 and 4 respectively (Cosham, 2002).

Parameter	Minimum Value	Maximum Value
Pipe Diameter (mm)	167.6	1219.2
Wall Thickness (mm)	4.9	21.9
Grade (API 5L)	A	X100
Yield Strength (Nmm ⁻²)	220.6	735.0
Tensile Strength (Nmm ⁻²)	337.9	908.1
2/3 Charpy V-Notch Impact Energy (J)	13.6	90.9
Defect Length (2c) (mm)	25.4	508.0
Burst Pressure (Nmm ⁻²)	2.21	18.69
Burst Stress (Nmm ⁻²)	97.9	486.8
Burst Stress (% Yield)	22.6	135.8

494 Table 3: Battelle through-wall defect burst test parameter ranges

Parameter	Minimum Value	Maximum Value
Pipe Diameter (mm)	406.4	1066.8
Wall Thickness (mm)	6.4	15.6
Grade (API 5L)	X52	X65
Yield Strength (Nmm ⁻²)	379.2	509.5
Tensile Strength (Nmm ⁻²)	483.3	633.7
2/3 Charpy V-Notch Impact Energy (J)	13.6	46.1
Defect Length (2c) (mm)	63.5	609.6
Defect Depth (d) (mm)	3.1	11.2
Burst Pressure (Nmm ⁻²)	1.84	12.4
Burst Stress (Nmm ⁻²)	61.4	506.1
Burst Stress (% Yield)	13.7	132.5

495 Table 4: Battelle part-wall defect burst test parameter ranges

496 The parameter ranges in Table 3 and Table 4 suggest that the through-wall NG-18 equations
497 are applicable to pipelines with a wall thickness between 4.9 mm and 21.9 mm and the part-
498 wall NG-18 equations are applicable to pipelines with a wall thickness between 6.4 mm and
499 15.6 mm.

500 6.3. The Range of Applicability of the British Gas Dent-Gouge Fracture Model

501 The BGDGFM is also semi-empirical and it was calibrated using the experimental results of
502 111 ring and 21 vessel tests with artificial gouged dent defects created at zero pressure. The
503 tests were carried out by British Gas in 1982. The range of applicability of the BGDGFM with
504 regards to wall thickness can be inferred from the range of wall thicknesses used in the
505 experimental tests to derive it. The range of experimental parameters for the tests is shown
506 in Table 5 (Cosham, 2001):

Parameter	Minimum Value	Maximum Value
Pipe Diameter (mm)	323.9	1066.8
Wall Thickness (mm)	6.6	16.4
Grade (API 5L)	X42	X65
Yield Strength (Nmm ⁻²)	348.2	522.6
Tensile Strength (Nmm ⁻²)	494.0	577.8
2/3 Charpy V-Notch Impact Energy (J)	15.0	70.5
Dent Depth (<i>H</i>) (mm)	1.9	77.7
Gouge Depth (<i>d</i>) (mm)	0.2	7.9
Burst Stress (% Yield)	7.1	144.9

507 Table 5: British Gas gouged dent ring and burst test parameter ranges

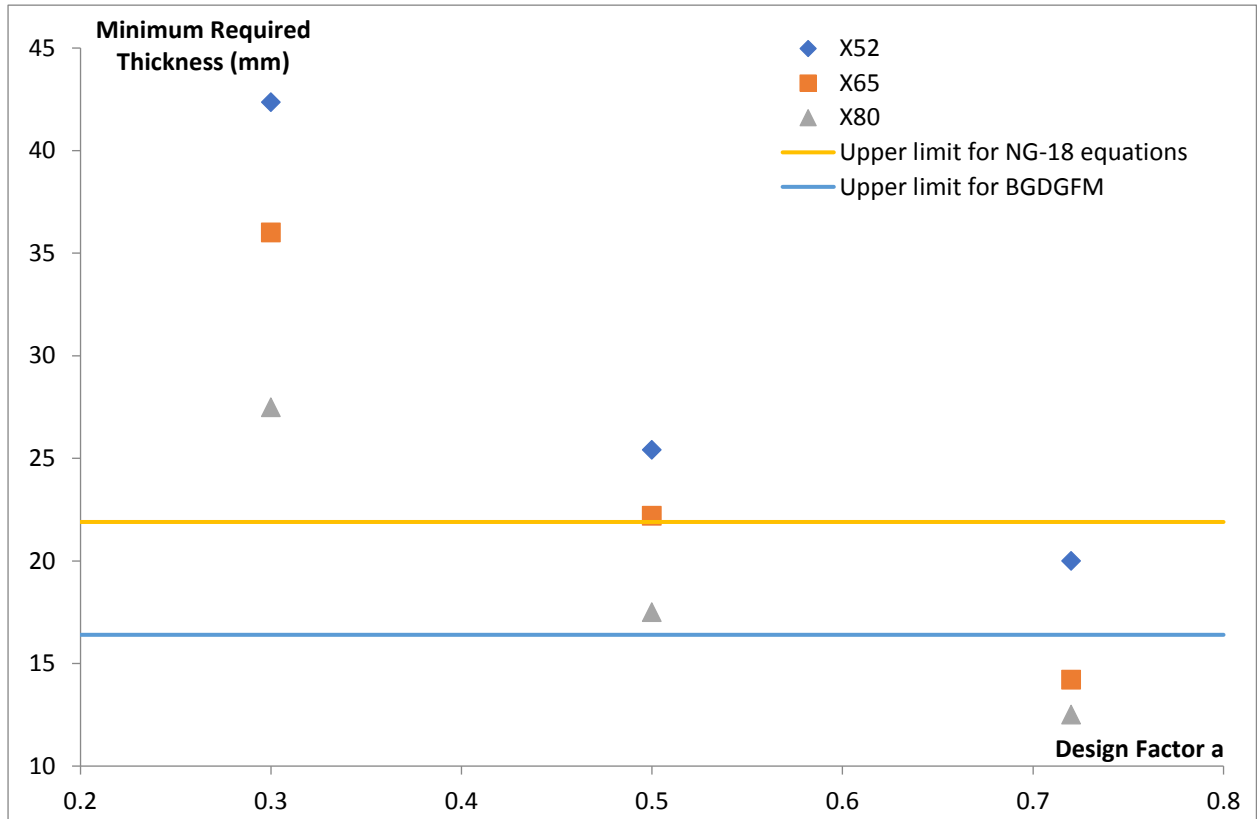
508 The parameter ranges in Table 5 suggest that the BGDGFM is applicable to pipelines with a
509 wall thickness between 6.6 mm and 16.4 mm.

510 **6.4. Summary of the Range of Applicability of the Failure Models**

511 On the basis of the experimental test data used in their derivation, the upper limit for validity
512 of the NG-18 equations is 21.9 mm for through-wall defects and 15.6 mm for part-wall
513 defects. Similarly, the upper limit for validity of the BGDGFM is 16.4 mm.

514 **6.5. The Applicability of the Failure Models to Typical Dense Phase CO₂ Pipelines**

515 The minimum required wall thicknesses determined in Section 6.1 are now compared with
 516 the upper limits of applicability of the NG-18 Equations and BGDGFM. Figures 5 and 6 show
 517 the minimum required wall thickness for three grades of pipe across a range of design factors
 518 for pipelines with diameters of 610 mm (24 ") and 914 mm (36 ") respectively.



519 Figure 5: Minimum required wall thicknesses for CO₂ pipeline with diameter of 610 mm (24
 520 ")

521

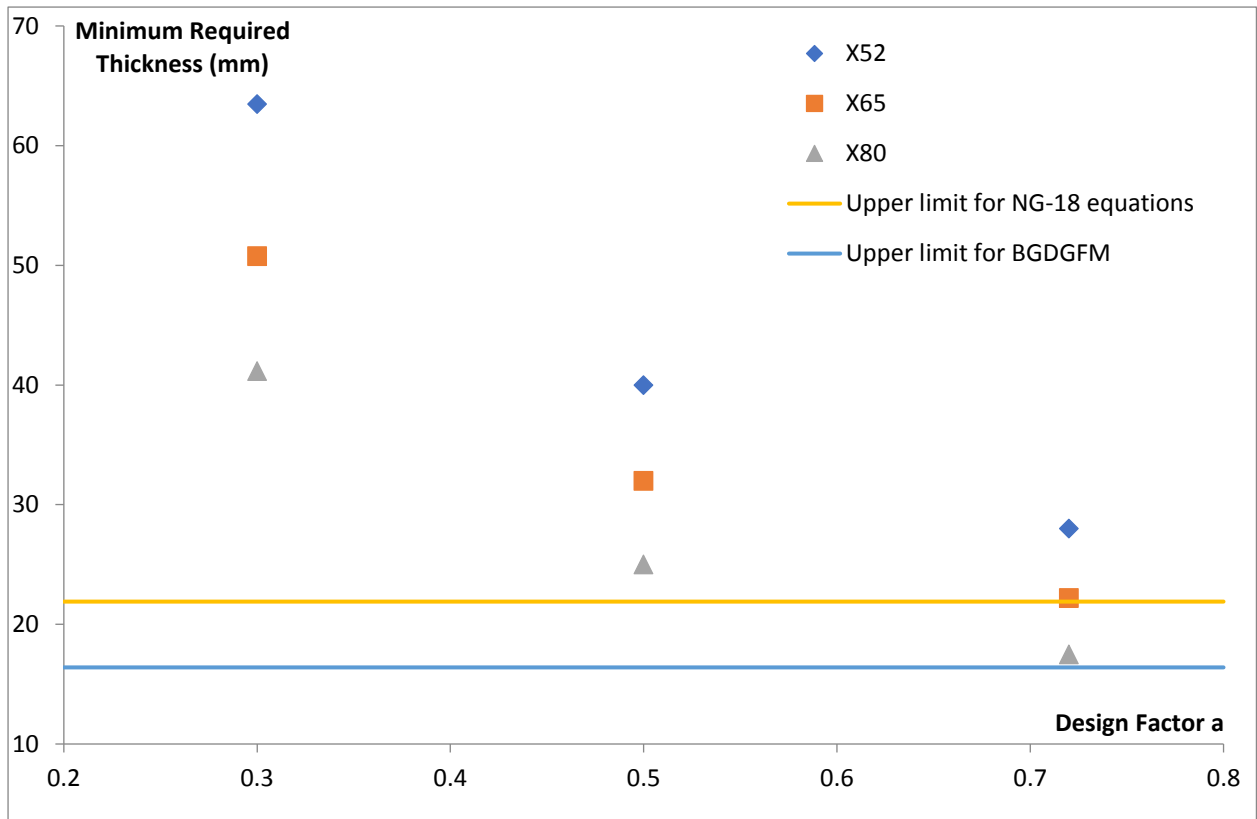


Figure 6: Minimum required wall thicknesses for CO₂ pipeline with diameter of 914 mm (36")

522
523

524 On the basis of this analysis, the minimum required CO₂ pipeline wall thickness, under 150
525 barg operational pressure, may be between 12.5 mm and 63 mm depending on pipe
526 diameter, material and design factor used. It is noted that in 13 of the 18 cases considered,
527 the minimum required wall thickness for CO₂ pipelines exceeds 21.9 mm. For the 610 mm
528 (24") diameter pipelines, there are about half cases (5 out of the 9 cases) with the minimum
529 required wall thickness greater than 21.9 mm while for 914 mm (36") diameter pipelines
530 there is only one case out of the 9 cases with the minimum required wall thickness less than
531 21.9 mm. This means that in the majority of cases, the required minimum CO₂ pipeline wall
532 thickness is outside of the known ranges of applicability of the NG-18 equations and the
533 BGDGFM. In other words, in the majority of cases, current failure frequency models cannot
534 be used to reliably estimate the failure frequency of dense phase CO₂ pipelines.

535 7. The Applicability of Historical Operational Data to Dense Phase CO₂ Pipelines

536 The historical operational data used in the existing failure frequency models originates from
537 either the UKOPA Fault Database or its predecessor the ERS Fault Database. Currently this is
538 the only pipeline fault database which provides sufficient information from which cumulative
539 probability distributions and incident rates suitable for a failure frequency model based on
540 structural reliability methods can be derived.

541 In order to apply the existing failure frequency models to dense phase CO₂ pipelines, the most
542 appropriate historical operational data to use would ideally originate only from operational
543 dense phase CO₂ pipelines in the UK. More specifically, the data would concern dense phase
544 CO₂ pipelines with wall thicknesses covering the full range over which the model could
545 potentially be applied. However, since there are currently no dense phase CO₂ pipelines
546 operating in the UK and therefore no historical operational data regarding them, a
547 compromise must be made. Given the principles of containment, stress and fracture, and that
548 all high-pressure pipelines are constructed using steel linepipe, third party external
549 interference failure frequency is not sensitive to the product that a pipeline transports. The
550 most recent UKOPA Fault Database may therefore be the most appropriate source of
551 historical operational data to use in order to calculate the failure frequency for dense phase
552 CO₂ pipelines.

553 It is noted that the wall thicknesses contained in the UKOPA Fault Database are limited by
554 operational pipelines. Since there are no onshore dense phase CO₂ pipelines currently in
555 operation, it is not yet known whether the database contains data covering the required wall
556 thickness range. At present there is no solution to this problem, however the future
557 construction and operation of dense phase CO₂ pipelines will ensure the data source becomes
558 more relevant with time.

559 **8. Discussion of the Applicability of Existing Failure Frequency Models to CO₂ Pipelines**

560 The review of the failure equations used in existing failure frequency models showed that
561 they are all based on both the NG-18 equations for the failure of gouges and leak/rupture
562 behaviour and the BGDGFM for the failure of a gouged dent. It was concluded that the largest
563 wall thickness in the experimental tests used to derive the NG-18 equations was 21.9 mm for
564 the through-wall equations and 15.6 mm for the part-wall equations. Similarly, 16.4 mm is
565 the maximum wall thickness used to derive the BGDGFM. In terms of the UKOPA database,
566 which contains details of faults and failures which have previously affected operating onshore
567 pipelines in the UK, the largest wall thickness is 19.1 mm. In the majority of the design studies
568 illustrated in this paper, the minimum wall thickness for dense phase CO₂ pipelines must be
569 greater than 21.9 mm. Therefore, based on the results of this paper, it is concluded that
570 current failure frequency models for third party external interference may not be suitable for
571 dense phase CO₂ pipelines due to their typical design requirements. Further work needs to be
572 conducted to confirm the most appropriate approach for calculating failure frequency for
573 dense phase CO₂ pipelines.

574 **9. Conclusions**

575 For oil and natural gas pipelines, the frequency of pipeline failure due to third party external
576 interference is calculated using models based upon structural reliability methods. These
577 models combine semi-empirical pipeline failure equations with probability distributions

578 derived from historical operational damage data. A review of the available failure frequency
579 models was performed in order to assess their applicability to dense phase CO₂ pipelines.

580 It was shown that the high design pressure requirement for a dense phase CO₂ pipeline
581 typically necessitates the use of high wall thickness linepipe in pipeline construction.

582 It is concluded that the applicability of the existing failure frequency models to typical dense
583 phase CO₂ pipelines may be beyond the known range of applicability for the pipeline failure
584 equations used within existing failure frequency models due to the high wall thickness
585 linepipe requirements of typical CO₂ pipelines.

586 Furthermore, even though third party external interference failure frequency is not sensitive
587 to the product that a pipeline transports, there is however a limitation to the UKOPA Fault
588 Database with regards to its application to CO₂ pipelines because there are currently no dense
589 phase CO₂ pipelines operating in the UK.

590 Further work needs to be conducted to confirm the most appropriate approach for calculating
591 failure frequency for dense phase CO₂ pipelines. It is recommended that a new failure
592 frequency model suitable for dense phase CO₂ pipelines is developed that is applicable to
593 thick wall linepipe and can be readily updated to the latest version of the UKOPA Fault
594 database. As part of this, a definitive assessment as to the applicability of the NG-18 equations
595 and BGDGFM to thick wall dense phase CO₂ pipelines is needed. Examples of demonstrating
596 applicability include conducting a detailed numerical analysis including finite element analysis
597 or an experimental test programme.

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