
**Petroleum and natural gas industries —
Floating offshore structures —**

Part 1:
Monohulls, semi-submersibles and spars

*Industries du pétrole et du gaz naturel — Structures en mer flottantes —
Partie 1: Unités monocoques, unités semi-submersibles et unités spars*



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Foreword

ISO (the International Organization for Standardization) is a worldwide federation of national standards bodies (ISO member bodies). The work of preparing International Standards is normally carried out through ISO technical committees. Each member body interested in a subject for which a technical committee has been established has the right to be represented on that committee. International organizations, governmental and non-governmental, in liaison with ISO, also take part in the work. ISO collaborates closely with the International Electrotechnical Commission (IEC) on all matters of electrotechnical standardization.

International Standards are drafted in accordance with the rules given in the ISO/IEC Directives, Part 2.

The main task of technical committees is to prepare International Standards. Draft International Standards adopted by the technical committees are circulated to the member bodies for voting. Publication as an International Standard requires approval by at least 75 % of the member bodies casting a vote.

Attention is drawn to the possibility that some of the elements of this document may be the subject of patent rights. ISO shall not be held responsible for identifying any or all such patent rights.

ISO 19904-1 was prepared by Technical Committee ISO/TC 67, *Materials, equipment and offshore structures for petroleum, petrochemical and natural gas industries*, Subcommittee SC 7, *Offshore structures*.

ISO 19904 consists of the following parts, under the general title *Petroleum and natural gas industries — Floating offshore structures*:

— *Part 1: Monohulls, semi-submersibles and spars*

Tension leg platforms is to form the subject of a future *Part 2*.

ISO 19904 is one of a series of standards for offshore structures. The full series consists of the following International Standards.

- ISO 19900, *Petroleum and natural gas industries — General requirements for offshore structures*
- ISO 19901 (all parts), *Petroleum and natural gas industries — Specific requirements for offshore structures*
- ISO 19902, *Petroleum and natural gas industries — Fixed steel offshore structures*¹⁾
- ISO 19903, *Petroleum and natural gas industries — Fixed concrete offshore structures*¹⁾
- ISO 19904-1, *Petroleum and natural gas industries — Floating offshore structures — Part 1: Monohulls, semi-submersibles and spars*
- ISO 19904-2, *Petroleum and natural gas industries — Floating offshore structures — Part 2: Tension leg platforms*²⁾
- ISO 19905-1, *Petroleum and natural gas industries — Site-specific assessment of mobile offshore units — Part 1: Jack-ups*²⁾

1) To be published.

2) Under preparation.

- ISO/TR 19905-2, *Petroleum and natural gas industries — Site-specific assessment of mobile offshore units — Part 2: Jack-ups commentary*³⁾
- ISO 19906, *Petroleum and natural gas industries — Arctic offshore structures*³⁾

³⁾ Under preparation.

Introduction

The series of International Standards applicable to types of offshore structure, ISO 19900 to ISO 19906, constitutes a common basis covering those aspects that address design requirements and assessments of all offshore structures used by the petroleum, petrochemical and natural gas industries worldwide. Through their application the intention is to achieve reliability levels appropriate for manned and unmanned offshore structures, whatever the type of structure and the nature or combination of materials used.

It is important to recognize that structural integrity is an overall concept comprising models for describing actions, structural analyses, design rules, safety elements, workmanship, quality control procedures and national requirements, all of which are mutually dependent. The modification of one aspect of design in isolation can disturb the balance of reliability inherent in the overall concept or structural system. The implications involved in modifications, therefore, need to be considered in relation to the overall reliability of all offshore structural systems.

The series of International Standards applicable to types of offshore structure is intended to provide wide latitude in the choice of structural configurations, materials and techniques without hindering innovation. Sound engineering judgement is therefore necessary in the use of these International Standards.

International Standard ISO 19904 was developed in response to the offshore industry's demand for a coherent and consistent definition of methodologies to design, analyse and assess floating offshore structures of the class described in Clause 1. In particular, this part of ISO 19904 addresses monohulls, semi-submersibles and spars.

Some background to, and guidance on, the use of this part of ISO 19904 is provided in informative Annex A. The clause numbering in Annex A is the same as in the normative text to facilitate cross-referencing.

Petroleum and natural gas industries — Floating offshore structures —

Part 1: Monohulls, semi-submersibles and spars

1 Scope

This part of ISO 19904 provides requirements and guidance for the structural design and/or assessment of floating offshore platforms used by the petroleum and natural gas industries to support the following functions:

- production;
- storage and/or offloading;
- drilling and production;
- production, storage and offloading;
- drilling, production, storage and offloading.

NOTE 1 Floating offshore platforms are often referred to using a variety of abbreviations, e.g. FPS, FSU, FPSO, etc. (see Clauses 3 and 4), in accordance with their intended mission.

NOTE 2 In this part of ISO 19904, the term “floating structure”, sometimes shortened to “structure”, is used as a generic term to indicate the structural systems of any member of the classes of platforms defined above.

NOTE 3 In some cases, floating platforms are designated as “early production platforms”. This term relates merely to an asset development strategy. For the purposes of this International Standard, the term “production” includes “early production”.

Its requirements do not apply to the structural systems of mobile offshore units (MOUs). These include, among others:

- floating structures intended primarily to perform drilling and/or well intervention operations (often referred to as MODUs), even when used for extended well test operations;
- floating structures used for offshore construction operations (e.g. crane barges or pipelay barges), for temporary or permanent offshore living quarters (floatels), or for transport of equipment or products (e.g. transportation barges, cargo barges), for which structures reference is made to relevant recognized classification society (RCS) rules.

Its requirements are applicable to all possible life-cycle stages of the structures defined above, such as

- design, construction and installation of new structures, including requirements for inspection, integrity management and future removal,
- structural integrity management covering inspection and assessment of structures in-service, and
- conversion of structures for different use (e.g. a tanker converted to a production platform) or reuse at different locations.

The following types of floating structure are explicitly considered within the context of this part of ISO 19904:

- a) monohulls (ship-shaped structures and barges);
- b) semi-submersibles;
- c) spars.

In addition to the structural types listed above, this part of ISO 19904 covers other floating platforms intended to perform the above functions, consisting of partially submerged buoyant hulls made up of any combination of plated and space frame components and used in conjunction with the stationkeeping systems covered in ISO 19901-7. These other structures can have a great range of variability in geometry and structural forms and, therefore, can be only partly covered by the requirements of this part of ISO 19904. In other cases, specific requirements stated in this part of ISO 19904 can be found not to apply to all or part of a structure under design.

In all the above cases, conformity with this part of ISO 19904 will require that the design is based upon its underpinning principles and achieves a level of safety equivalent, or superior, to the level implicit in it.

NOTE 4 The speed of evolution of offshore technology often far exceeds the pace at which the industry achieves substantial agreement on innovation in structural concepts, structural shapes or forms, structural components and associated analysis and design practices, which are continuously refined and enhanced. On the other hand, International Standards can only capture explicit industry consensus, which requires maturation and acceptance of new ideas. Consequently, advanced structural concepts can, in some cases, only be partly covered by the provisions of this part of ISO 19904.

This part of ISO 19904 is applicable to steel floating structures. The principles documented herein are, however, considered to be generally applicable to structures fabricated in materials other than steel.

2 Normative references

The following referenced documents are indispensable for the application of this document. For dated references, only the edition cited applies. For undated references, the latest edition of the referenced document (including any amendments) applies.

ISO 13702, *Petroleum and natural gas industries — Control and mitigation of fires and explosions on offshore production installations — Requirements and guidelines*

ISO 19900:2002, *Petroleum and natural gas industries — General requirements for offshore structures*

ISO 19901-1, *Petroleum and natural gas industries — Specific requirements for offshore structures — Part 1: Metocean design and operating considerations*

ISO 19901-7:2005, *Petroleum and natural gas industries — Specific requirements for offshore structures — Part 7: Stationkeeping systems for floating offshore structures and mobile offshore units*

ISO 19902:—⁴⁾, *Petroleum and natural gas industries — Fixed steel offshore structures*

⁴⁾ To be published.

3 Terms and definitions

For the purposes of this document, the following terms and definitions apply.

3.1

abnormal

condition that exceeds conventionally specified design conditions and which is used to mitigate against very remote events

3.2

accidental design situation

design situation involving exceptional conditions of the structure or its exposure

EXAMPLE Impact, fire, explosion, local failure or loss of intended differential pressure (e.g. buoyancy).

3.3

action

external load applied to the structure (direct action) or an imposed deformation or acceleration (indirect action)

EXAMPLE An imposed deformation can be caused by fabrication tolerances, settlement, temperature change or moisture variation.

NOTE An earthquake typically generates imposed accelerations.

[ISO 19900:2002]

3.4

action combination

design values of different actions considered simultaneously in design checks of the structure for a specific limit state

3.5

action effect

effect of actions on structural components

EXAMPLE Internal forces, moments, stresses, strains, rigid body motions or elastic deformations.

[ISO 19900:2002]

3.6

air gap

clearance between the highest water surface that occurs during the extreme environmental conditions and the lowest exposed part not designed to withstand wave impingement

[ISO 19900:2002]

3.7

basic variable

one of a specified set of variables representing physical quantities which characterize actions, environmental influences, geometrical quantities, or material properties, including soil properties

[ISO 19900:2002]

3.8

characteristic value

value of a basic variable, an action or a strength model having a prescribed probability of not being violated by unfavorable values

NOTE 1 In the case of actions and related properties, the characteristic value normally relates to a reference period.

NOTE 2 Adapted from ISO 19900:2002, definition 2.7.

3.9

design criteria

quantitative formulations that describe the conditions to be fulfilled for each limit state

[ISO 19900:2002]

3.10

design format

mathematical description for checks to verify non-exceedance of a limit state

NOTE In this part of ISO 19904, both partial factor and working stress design (WSD) formats are permitted.

3.11

design service life

assumed period for which a structure or a structural component is to be used for its intended purpose with anticipated maintenance, but without substantial repair being necessary

NOTE Adapted from ISO 19900:2002, definition 2.12.

3.12

design situation

set of physical conditions during a certain reference period for which the design demonstrates that relevant limit states are not exceeded

NOTE Adapted from ISO 19900:2002, definition 2.13.

3.13

design value

value of a basic variable, action or strength model derived from a representative value for use in a design verification procedure

NOTE 1 For a ULS design check in accordance with the partial factor design format, a design value for a strength variable or model is found by dividing the representative value of strength by a partial resistance factor, while for an action variable it is found by multiplying the representative value of the action effect by a partial action factor.

NOTE 2 For an FLS, SLS or ALS design check in accordance with the partial factor design format, all partial factors are equal to unity so that, in these cases, a design value is equal to the representative value.

NOTE 3 For any design check in accordance with the working stress design format, all partial factors are equal to unity so that, in these cases, a design value is equal to the representative value. Appropriate global safety or utilization factors are applied in design checks.

NOTE 4 In the case of actions and related properties, the value can relate to a reference period.

NOTE 5 Adapted from ISO 19900:2002, definition 2.14.

3.14

dynamic action

action that induces acceleration of a structure or a structural component of a magnitude sufficient to require specific consideration

[ISO 19901-7:2005]

3.15

dynamic positioning

DP

stationkeeping technique consisting primarily of a system of on-board thrusters, which generate appropriate thrust vectors to counter the mean and slowly varying induced actions

3.16**exposure level**

classification system used to define the requirements for a structure based on consideration of life-safety and of environmental and economic consequences of failure

[ISO 19900:2002]

3.17**failure**

insufficient strength or inadequate serviceability of a structure or structural component, or, in a structural check, a condition in which a structure or component thereof does not fulfil its limit state requirement

3.18

fit-for-purpose, adjective

fitness-for-purpose, noun

meeting the intent of a standard although not meeting specific provisions of that standard in local areas, such that failure in these areas cannot cause unacceptable risk to life-safety or the environment

NOTE Adapted from ISO 19900:2002, definition 2.16.

3.19**floating structure**

structure where the full weight is supported by buoyancy

[ISO 19900:2002]

NOTE The full weight includes lightship weight, mooring system pre-tension, riser pre-tension and operating weight.

3.20**freeboard**

distance measured vertically downwards between the top of the hull and the mean water surface at a given draught

3.21**green water**

overtopping of deck by water causing slamming and pressure actions to structures on deck

3.22**limit state**

state beyond which the structure no longer fulfils the relevant design criteria

[ISO 19900:2002]

3.23**mobile offshore drilling unit****MODU**

structure capable of engaging in drilling and well intervention operations for exploration or exploitation of subsea petroleum resources

[ISO 19901-7:2005]

3.24**mobile offshore unit****MOU**

structure intended to be relocated to perform a particular function

[ISO 19900:2002]

3.25

monohull

floating structure consisting of a single, continuous, buoyant hull, and having a geometry similar to that of ocean-going ships, barges, etc.

3.26

nominal value

value of a basic variable, action or strength model determined on a non-statistical basis, typically from acquired experience or physical conditions

EXAMPLE Value published in a recognized code or standard.

NOTE Adapted from ISO 19900:2002, definition 2.22.

3.27

owner

representative of the company or companies which own a development, who can be the operator on behalf of co-licensees

[ISO 19901-7:2005]

3.28

platform

complete assembly including structure, topsides and, where applicable, foundations and stationkeeping system

NOTE Adapted from ISO 19900:2002, definition 2.23.

3.29

recognized classification society

RCS

member of the international association of classification societies (IACS), with recognized and relevant competence and experience in floating structures, and with established rules and procedures for classification/certification of installations used in petroleum or natural gas activities, located at a specific site for an extended period of time

NOTE Adapted from ISO 19901-7:2005, definition 3.23.

3.30

reliability

ability of a structure or structural component to fulfil the specified requirements

[ISO 19900:2002]

3.31

representative value

value of a basic variable, action or strength model, for verification of a limit state

NOTE 1 The representative value can equal a characteristic value, a nominal value, or other rationally determined value.

NOTE 2 For actions, this can relate to upper or lower characteristic values, dependent on which causes the more onerous condition. In combinations, it can involve multiplying the chosen value by a factor greater or less than unity.

NOTE 3 Adapted from ISO 19900:2002, definition 2.26.

3.32**resistance**

capacity of a structure, component or cross-section of a component to withstand action effects without exceeding a limit state

NOTE Adapted from ISO 19900:2002, definition 2.27.

3.33**return period**

average period between occurrences of an event or of a particular value being exceeded

NOTE The offshore industry commonly uses a return period measured in years for environmental events. The return period in years is equal to the reciprocal of the annual probability of exceedance of the event.

[ISO 19901-1:2005]

3.34**riser**

piping connecting the process facilities or drilling equipment on the floating structure with the subsea facilities or pipelines, or with a reservoir

NOTE 1 Possible functions include drilling and well intervention, production, injection, subsea systems control and export of produced fluids.

NOTE 2 Adapted from ISO 19900:2002, definition 2.29.

3.35**robustness**

ability of a structure to withstand events that have a reasonable likelihood of occurring, without the structure being damaged to an extent disproportionate to the cause

NOTE Possible causes can be events like fire, explosions or impacts.

3.36**semi-submersible**

floating structure normally consisting of a deck structure with a number of widely spaced, large cross-section, supporting columns connected to submerged pontoons

NOTE Pontoon/column geometry is usually chosen to minimize global motions in a broad range of wave frequencies.

3.37**slamming**

impulsive action with high pressure peaks that occurs during impact between a portion of the structure and water

NOTE Slamming can, for example, be due to emergence and re-entry of a lower section of the hull into the water or can be due to wave impact on a structural component.

3.38**sloshing**

impact action on the boundaries of a partially filled tank due to internal fluid motion

3.39**spar platform****spar**

deep draught caisson vessel

DDCV

deep-draught, small water-plane area floating structure

[ISO 19901-7:2005]

3.40

special areas

areas identified by the designer as being of critical importance to the structural integrity and safety of the structure

3.41

stability

hydrostatic stability

ability of a floating structure to generate restoring moment after deviation from the equilibrium floating position

3.42

static action

action that cannot cause significant acceleration of the structure or structural components

3.43

stationkeeping system

system capable of limiting the excursions of a floating structure within prescribed limits

[ISO 19901-7:2005]

3.44

structure

organized combination of connected components designed to withstand actions and provide adequate rigidity

[ISO 19900:2002]

3.45

structural component

physically distinguishable part of a structure

[ISO 19900:2002]

3.46

structural system

combination of structural components acting in such a manner that the components function together

NOTE Adapted from ISO 19900:2002, definition 2.32.

3.47

topsides

structures and equipment placed on a supporting structure (fixed or floating) to provide some or all of a platform's functions

NOTE For a monohull, the deck is not part of the topsides.

[ISO 19900:2002]

3.48

variable action

Q

action for which the variation in magnitude with time cannot be neglected compared with the mean value, or for which the point of application varies with time

3.49

verification

examination made to confirm that an activity, product or service is in accordance with specified requirements

[ISO 19901-7:2005]

3.50**watertight**

capable of preventing the penetration of water into or through the structure with a water pressure head corresponding to that for which the surrounding structure is designed

3.51**weathertight**

capable of preventing the penetration of water into the structure during temporary exposure to water

NOTE A watertight closing appliance is also considered weathertight.

4 Symbols and abbreviated terms**4.1 Symbols**

A accidental action

A area, or area per unit length, in square metres (m²), or metres (m)

a_v vibration amplitude, in metres

B moulded breadth, in metres (m)

b width, in millimetres (mm)

C coefficient (non-dimensional unless otherwise specified)

D fatigue damage ratio throughout life cycle of platform or duration of particular operational phase

d component diameter, in metres

E environmental action

E material (Young's) modulus, in newtons per square metre (N/m²)

F action per unit length, in newtons per metre (N/m)

F_d design value of action effect

f frequency, in hertz (Hz)

f distribution factor (non-dimensional)

G permanent action

K_s stability parameter for VIV

L length between perpendiculars

M bending moment or representative bending strength, in newton metres (Nm)

m constant related to the slope of an S-N curve

m_e effective mass per unit length (kg/m)

N total number of cycles

P	pressure, in newtons per square metre (N/m ²)
Q	variable action
Q	shear action, in newtons (N)
R	repetitive action
R	strength, in newtons per square metre (N/m ²)
r	strength, in newtons per square metre (N/m ²)
S	stress, in newtons per square metre (N/m ²)
T	time or duration, in years
T_R	return period, in years
t	thickness, in millimetres (mm)
V	volume, or volume per unit length, in cubic metres (m ³), or square metres (m ²)
v	velocity, in metres per second (m/s)
γ	partial action or resistance factor
δ	logarithmic decrement of damping
ξ	fraction of critical damping
η	allowable utilization factor
κ	curvature, 1/m
ρ	density, in kilograms per cubic metre (kg/m ³)

4.2 Abbreviated terms

ACFM	alternating current field measurement
ACPD	alternating current potential drop
ALS	accidental limit state
AP	aft perpendicular
CALM	catenary anchor leg mooring
COW	crude oil washing
CP	cathodic protection
CVI	close-up visual inspection
DDCV	deep draught caisson vessel
DP	dynamic positioning

EC	eddy current
FE	finite element
FLS	fatigue limit state
FMD	flooded member detection
FPS	floating production system
FPSO	floating production, storage and offloading structure
FSU	floating storage unit
GVI	general visual inspection
HAZID	hazard identification
IMO	international maritime organization
MOM	marine operations manual
MOU	mobile offshore unit
MODU	mobile offshore drilling unit
MPI	magnetic particle inspection
NDT	non-destructive test
RAO	response amplitude operator
RCS	recognized classification society
ROV	remotely operated vehicle
SCIP	structural critical inspection point
SCF	stress concentration factor
SIM	structural integrity management
SLS	serviceability limit state
TLP	tension leg platform
TOFD	time-of-flight diffraction
TM	thickness measurements
UCW	ultrasonic creeping wave
ULS	ultimate limit state
VIM	vortex-induced motions
VIV	vortex-induced vibrations
VLCC	very large crude carrier

VOC volatile organic compound

WI weld inspection

WSD working stress design

5 Overall considerations

5.1 Functional requirements

Floating offshore structures are used within the petroleum and natural gas industries to support facilities and equipment necessary to fulfil their intended mission, which typically is one of the following:

- a) production;
- b) storage and/or offloading;
- c) drilling and production;
- d) production, storage and offloading;
- e) drilling, production, storage and offloading.

A floating offshore platform can take various structural forms, including

- monohulls (ship-shaped structures or barges),
- semi-submersibles,
- spars, and
- tension leg platforms (TLPs).

This part of ISO 19904 presents specific requirements for monohulls, semi-submersibles and spars when used for the applications listed above.

5.2 Safety requirements

Key guiding principles of the activities of the petroleum and natural gas industries are safety of life, environment and property. Within the framework of this International Standard, these principles shall be enforced through

- competent design or assessment of platforms, to ensure the floating structure's ability to withstand environmental and other external actions that are likely to occur during the design service life of the structure or any extension thereof,
- definition of safe operating procedures so that risks of injuries to personnel are identified and minimized,
- identification and assessment of possible accidental events, as summarized in ISO 19900, and mitigation of their consequences,
- performance of a hazard assessment to ensure that possible malfunctions do not pose a danger to life or to the structure's integrity, and
- compliance with all relevant regulations, see 5.4.

The implications of the above items shall be incorporated in the floating structure's design philosophy and in the development of the operational philosophy.

Some of the items in the above list are usually performed as part of a formal risk assessment, which is an appropriate general procedure for identifying hazards, quantifying the associated risks and determining approaches for the mitigation of their consequences.

With regard to methods used to protect against fires and explosions, the selection of a suitable approach depends upon the function of the platform. Procedures shall conform to ISO 13702 and to any applicable national or regional requirements.

5.3 Planning requirements

5.3.1 General

Planning shall be undertaken in the initial stages of the design process in order to obtain a safe structural solution for performing the desired function.

5.3.2 Design basis

At the outset of the design process, a document (design basis) shall be created to summarize

- definition of design practices and applicable standards, regulations, codes,
- applicable limit states, design situations and design criteria (see ISO 19900),
- fabrication, transportation and installation philosophy,
- inspection and maintenance philosophy,
- service and operational philosophy, and
- platform removal philosophy.

5.3.3 Design practices

Codes, standards, RCS rules, and regulations (collectively referred to as “standards” hereafter) applicable to the design and construction of the floating structure shall be clearly identified at the commencement of the project.

Mixing of standards should, in general, be avoided. When more than one standard is utilized in the design process, differences in the standards shall be identified and a decision made concerning the appropriate measures to be undertaken. Such a decision shall be based upon sound engineering practice and include consultation with the responsible regulatory organization, as applicable.

The standards used in the design of structures shall be consistent and compatible with those utilized in the fabrication and in-service monitoring of the structure.

For innovative structural forms, or applications of unproven structural concepts where limited or no direct experience exists, appropriate analyses shall be performed to demonstrate that the safety level of the design is no lower than the safety level implicit in this part of ISO 19904 when applied to traditional structural forms or concepts.

5.3.4 Inspection and maintenance philosophy

At the planning stage, a philosophy for inspection and maintenance shall be developed and documented, to ensure full consistency with the design basis of the floating structure and its components. The requirements for fatigue strength, corrosion control, material toughness, and inspection planning shall be consistent with the design service life of the floating structure established as part of the planning activities.

A critical assessment shall be made of the ability to actually achieve the intended inspection and maintenance objectives. Relevant provisions related to inspection and maintenance requirements are given in Clause 18.

General requirements for inspection of structures are given in ISO 19900. For detailed considerations concerning in-service condition monitoring, see Clause 18 of this part of ISO 19904.

5.4 Rules and regulations

5.4.1 General

The intent of this part of ISO 19904 is to state explicitly general principles and basic requirements. The designer is then directed, through appropriate references, to make use of existing design practices and standards.

All aspects of the entire life cycle of a floating structure, including planning, design, fabrication, transportation, installation, operation and removal phases, which are not covered by this part of ISO 19904 shall be performed in accordance with RCS rules or equivalent (i.e. applicable national/international standards, or suitably documented methods based on well-founded engineering principles applied with sound engineering judgement, such as first principle design methods). The resulting structure's safety level shall be consistent with the safety level implicit in the requirements given in this part of ISO 19904 and in ISO 19900.

Where the floating structure is to be "flagged", the relevant flag state authority requirements also apply.

5.4.2 Use for project application

For a specific project application, the owner, in conjunction with the national regulator where one exists, shall identify the complete list of standards, which are regulatory documents, contractual agreements and company specifications whose requirements shall be met, clarifying areas of possible overlap and specifying the level of precedence in the enforcement of such requirements.

5.5 General requirements

5.5.1 General

A floating platform's functional requirements are generally specified by the owner, and shall be satisfied in conjunction with the principles stated in 5.2. As a consequence, the structure of a floating platform (and its stationkeeping system) shall be designed to allow the platform to

- a) fulfil its intended mission (production, drilling and production, etc.) for a specified length of time (design service life), and
- b) meet specified minimum requirements for serviceability and operability, such as keeping platform motions within prescribed limits, for a specified fraction of time.

The platform shall also be designed to provide

- adequate comfort levels for personnel onboard,
- proper functioning of the topsides equipment,
- access to subsea facilities, where applicable, and
- clearances with respect to other subsea or surface facilities, where applicable,

while, at the same time

- maintaining floating stability,
- maintaining structural integrity,

- maintaining integrity and serviceability of drilling, production, export or other types of risers, and
- ensuring platform survival in extreme and accidental events.

Compliance of the floating structure design with these requirements shall be established using the analysis methodologies and design criteria given in Clauses 8 to 15. Action effects such as motions, accelerations, forces and stresses shall be evaluated for all defined design situations, and shall be compared with the system and component strengths to ensure the existence of reserve against loss of stability, structural failure or other undesirable occurrences.

5.5.2 Structural design philosophy

The structural system, components and details of a floating platform shall be designed, constructed and maintained so that they are suited to their intended use. Such systems shall be designed and constructed by qualified personnel utilizing sound engineering judgement.

The general requirements and conditions stated in ISO 19900 shall be fulfilled. Additionally, the following design principles apply:

- structural systems shall have ductile resistance unless the specified purpose or structural material requires otherwise;
- structures shall be designed so as to minimize stress concentrations and provide simple stress paths;
- structures shall be designed such that fabrication, including surface treatment, can be accomplished in accordance with accepted techniques and practices;
- heavy, concentrated actions on the structure shall be located such that proper framing to support these actions can be planned;
- effects of fabrication and offshore construction tolerances shall be taken into account;
- adequate allowance shall be made for corrosion when selecting materials, and corrosion shall be minimized by judicious design of structural details, selection of structural profiles and the use of suitable materials, coatings and cathodic protection systems;
- whenever practical, structures shall be designed to enable load redistribution.

A floating structure shall be designed with due consideration to minimizing the adverse effects of accidental events. Such events include fire/blast, collisions, compartmental flooding, mooring line failure, dropped objects, and fluid impacts such as green water or slamming. In this regard, particular consideration should be given to structural design, and to the layout and arrangement of facilities and equipment.

Cargo tanks and cargo systems shall be arranged so as to be separated by oil-tight cofferdams from galleys, living quarters, below-deck general cargo spaces, boiler rooms and machinery spaces where sources of ignition are normally present. Cofferdams shall be adequately vented and wide enough to allow ready access. Ballast tanks or void spaces may be considered as cofferdams.

The floating structure shall be designed to maintain global integrity during an accidental event. Furthermore, the structure shall be designed so that if structural damage does occur, the damaged structure (possibly with temporary repairs, as applicable) is able to resist action combinations appropriate to these design situations without suffering extensive failure, free drifting, capsizing or sinking, and without causing extensive harm to the environment.

Emergency and other essential equipment (ballast pumps, generators, mooring winches, etc.), shall be designed to continue to operate at all possible platform attitudes resulting from an accident. Low-pressure piping and bulkhead penetrations can provide conduits for downflooding (and siphoning) and shall be examined for integrity under the maximum hydrostatic pressure consistent with damaged conditions.

5.5.3 Design criteria

Criteria to be met by the structural design are usually directly related to specific design situations. Factors to be considered when identifying design criteria shall include

- platform mission,
- regulatory requirements,
- RCS requirements (as applicable),
- design service life,
- duration of temporary phases,
- operating environment,
- platform response,
- consequence of failure,
- accuracy in the prediction of actions and responses,
- probability of occurrence of actions, and
- platform abandonment and/or removal.

Structures shall be designed to minimize inspection requirements in tanks that contain hazardous materials, e.g. diesel, methanol, or tanks that contain potable water. Tank piping shall be arranged so as to allow for the safe isolation of tanks prior to inspection.

5.5.4 Service and operational considerations

A marine operations manual (MOM), or equivalent, shall be prepared for use by personnel onboard the floating structure. The MOM should be as concise as reasonably practicable and shall contain pertinent information for safe operation, including all relevant limiting design criteria relating to global structural strength, compartmentation and stability.

Different hull configurations can be sensitive to variations in total weight, weight/buoyancy distribution, hydrostatic stability or any combination thereof. The designer shall ensure that weight monitoring, distribution and control procedures are clearly identified in the MOM.

Documentation noting any areas built with special steel should be onboard to identify any special welding requirements when carrying out emergency repairs.

5.5.5 Hydrostatic stability

The floating behaviour of the platform shall be consistent with the requirements for stability in intact and damaged configurations, for both temporary and in-service conditions, see Clause 15.

When recognized standards are used to verify stability adequacy, consideration shall also be given to the consequences of the accidental events identified as being relevant for the structure, see 7.4.

5.5.6 Compartmentation

To mitigate the consequences of possible damage, the floating structure's hull shall be subdivided into compartments so as to facilitate meeting stability requirements and reduce risks of environmental pollution and loss of the platform, see Clause 15.

5.5.7 Weight control

The hydrostatic stability and the dynamic response of a floating platform are very sensitive to the magnitude and distribution of the mass. These parameters, and the location of the centre of gravity, shall be monitored during the entire life cycle of the platform using an appropriate weight control and management process.

In particular, during the design and fabrication process:

- the weight of the structure shall be evaluated using a rational weight-estimating procedure;
- the centre of gravity of the structure, or part of the structure, shall be evaluated using a rational procedure.

Regular weight and centre of gravity reports shall be produced at various stages of the design and fabrication process, with appropriate contingency factors to allow for uncertainties connected with outstanding items to be fabricated or installed.

The weight database shall be updated to an as-built status, to provide accurate information for all pre-service temporary phases, including launch, transportation, upending and lifts.

The mass distribution of a floating platform as-built shall be verified to an appropriate degree of accuracy (see 15.2 in connection with requirements to inclining tests).

The MOM shall contain appropriate provisions for handover of the design database to the operations team, and for the continuing in-service weight control process.

NOTE Further guidance on this topic can be found in ISO 19901-5.

5.5.8 Global response

The floating structure hull shall be designed so that, in conjunction with the effects of the stationkeeping system and the riser system, the predicted excursion and motion response stays within appropriate limits, set in conjunction with the requirements for

- serviceability of all types of risers,
- comfort levels for personnel onboard,
- serviceability of the drilling, production, or other types of equipment, as applicable, and
- maintaining minimum clearances with other surface facilities or subsea infrastructure.

5.5.9 Stationkeeping

The stationkeeping system, which in general consists of a combination of mooring lines, anchors and thrusters, shall be designed to restrain the platform maximum excursion to the envelope defined by the considerations identified in 5.5.8. See Clause 17.

5.5.10 Materials

Suitable materials shall be specified. In addition to strength, due care shall be paid to ductility, toughness, weldability and corrosion resistance requirements.

Adequate ductility in the design of a structure shall be facilitated by

- meeting requisite material toughness requirements,
- avoiding failure initiation due to a combination of high stress concentrations and undetected weld defects in structural components and details,

- designing structural details and connections so as to allow a certain amount of plastic deformation, (avoiding “hard spots”),
- arranging the scantlings of structures and their components so as to avoid sudden changes in structural strength or stiffness.

5.6 Independent verification

Independent verification that the floating structure’s design and construction is in compliance with the provisions of this part of ISO 19904 shall be carried out as a combination of independent calculations, document reviews and audits, surveys and inspections, etc., as appropriate. Particular emphasis shall be placed on the verification of structural systems and components significant to safety.

Verification activities shall be sufficiently detailed and extensive to clearly demonstrate that the design and construction are adequate. Appropriate documentation shall be maintained of the scope and extent of the verification, the procedures employed, and the relevant reports.

The above requirements may be satisfied in part, or in full, by classing by an RCS.

5.7 Analytical tools

Most of the analytical procedures and calculations described, specified and referenced in this part of ISO 19904 are commonly performed with the assistance of computer-aided engineering tools. Many of these consist of commercially available, widely used software suites which, when used by experienced and well-trained operators, can be considered *de facto* industry standards. For these software systems, the responsibility to perform adequate validation and verification, and maintain evidence thereof, may be delegated to, and satisfied by, the original author or distributor.

In other cases, particularly in technological areas in rapid evolution, innovative analytical approaches and techniques are more typically embedded in original, proprietary software solutions. In such cases, the developer shall validate the adequacy of the results by, for instance, comparison with closed-form solutions, test data or field measurements.

In either case, the designer shall document that the tools used in the design and analysis activities have been shown to provide results considered acceptable in terms of consistency and accuracy when compared to test data, field measurements, or to the results of other similar tools.

5.8 In-service inspection and maintenance

Comprehensive structural inspection and maintenance programmes shall be developed for the structure and emergency and other essential marine equipment (see Clause 18) in order to monitor the integrity of the floating structure throughout its service life. Such programmes shall take into account the frequency of inspection and the number of tanks open at any one time.

In-service inspection procedures shall be developed and undertaken to confirm that modifications, alterations, repairs, and maintenance are undertaken in compliance with appropriate design drawings, specifications, and procedures.

5.9 Assessment of existing floating structures

Various circumstances can lead to a requirement for an existing structure to be reassessed (e.g. when considering relocation, a change of mission, major modifications, changes in industry practice, or substantial repairs following an accidental event, etc.). In such cases, the existing structure shall be assessed for compliance with the provisions of this part of ISO 19904. Where aspects of the design are identified as non-compliant with the requirements of this part of ISO 19904, the provisions of ISO 19900 may be used to demonstrate adequacy on a fitness-for-purpose basis.

5.10 Reuse of existing floating structures

When a structure is relocated for use at a new site, the structure shall be assessed in accordance with the requirements of Clause 14, for the mission and conditions (including exposure level) that are applicable at the new site.

6 Basic design requirements

6.1 General

In accordance with ISO 19900, structural design shall be performed with reference to a specified set of limit states. For each limit state, design situations shall be determined and an appropriate calculation model shall be established.

Design and analysis of a floating structure requires the identification of a finite number of design situations. A sufficient number of design situations shall be considered to ensure that critical action combinations for all main load-bearing structural components are evaluated. Each phase of construction, transportation, installation, operation, and removal shall be complemented by appropriate environmental conditions. Significant effects occurring in one design phase that affect another phase shall be fully considered in the design process. Such effects could be, for example, built-in deflections or fatigue damage.

Clause 6 outlines the overall requirements for

- a) defining exposure levels (see 6.2),
- b) incorporating limit states (see 6.3),
- c) determining design situations (see 6.4).

The reliability of floating structures, i.e. their ability to satisfy appropriate structural limit states, is highly dependent upon the reliability of emergency and essential marine equipment. Risk assessments shall be conducted to demonstrate that such equipment realizes reliability levels compatible with that demanded for the structure and its components.

6.2 Exposure levels

6.2.1 General

Floating platforms vary in size, complexity, mission, performance requirements, manning levels, criticality to the asset development strategy, possible hazards, etc. In order to define appropriate design situations and design criteria for a particular floating platform, the concept of exposure levels is presented here.

A floating platform in a particular location is characterized by a specific exposure level. Associated with each exposure level are appropriate design situations and design criteria for the platform's intended function and design service life.

Exposure levels are determined taking into consideration combinations of life-safety categories and consequence categories for a given platform. Life-safety is a direct function of the platform's expected manning levels during design environmental events. Consequences are mainly related to the potential risk to life of personnel brought in to respond to any incident, the potential risk of environmental damage and the potential risk of economic losses.

6.2.2 Life-safety categories

6.2.2.1 General

For floating platforms, three life-safety categories are defined:

- S1 manned–nonevacuated;
- S2 manned–evacuated;
- S3 unmanned.

Selection of life-safety category involves a degree of judgement. The platform's owner shall determine the applicable category prior to the design of a new structure or the assessment of an existing structure, and shall obtain the agreement of the regulator where applicable.

6.2.2.2 S1 (manned–nonevacuated)

The manned–nonevacuated category refers to a platform that is continuously (or nearly continuously) occupied by personnel accommodated and living thereon, and whose evacuation prior to the design environmental event is either not intended or impractical. The platform shall be categorized as S1 manned–nonevacuated unless the particular requirements for S2 or S3 (see below) apply throughout the platform's design service life.

6.2.2.3 S2 (manned–evacuated)

The manned–evacuated category refers to a platform that is normally manned except during a forecast design environmental event. A platform may be categorized as manned–evacuated only if all of the following conditions apply:

- a) a reliable forecast of a design environmental event is technically and operationally feasible (e.g. tropical cyclone), and the weather conditions between any such forecast and the occurrence of the design environmental event are not likely to inhibit an evacuation;
- b) evacuation in anticipation of a design environmental event is intended, and is part of the operating procedures;
- c) sufficient time and resources exist to safely evacuate all personnel from the platform and all other platforms likely to require evacuation for the same event.

6.2.2.4 S3 (unmanned)

The unmanned category refers to a platform that is only manned for occasional inspection, maintenance and modification visits. A platform may be categorized as unmanned only if all of the following conditions apply:

- a) visits to the platform are undertaken only for specific planned inspection, maintenance or modification operations on the platform itself; and,
- b) visits are not expected to last more than 24 hours during seasons when severe weather can be expected to occur; and,
- c) the evacuation criteria of 6.2.2.3, a) to c), are also met.

NOTE A platform in this category is often described as "not normally manned".

6.2.3 Consequence categories

6.2.3.1 General

For floating platforms, three consequence categories are defined:

- C1 high-consequence category;
- C2 medium-consequence category;
- C3 low-consequence category.

The main criteria governing the choice of the appropriate category are the following:

- life-safety of personnel on, or near to, the platform — covering personnel brought in to react to any accidental or abnormal event, but not those who are part of the platform's normal complement;
- damage to the environment;
- anticipated losses to the owner, to other operators, to industry and/or to other third parties, as well as to society in general.

Selection of consequence category involves a degree of judgement. The applicable category shall be determined by the platform's owner prior to the design of a new structure or the assessment of an existing structure and shall be agreed to by the regulator where applicable.

6.2.3.2 C1 (high-consequence category)

The high-consequence category refers to platforms with high production rates or large processing capacity and/or those platforms that have the potential for well flow of either oil or sour gas in the event of structure/riser failure. In addition, it includes platforms where the shut-in of the oil or sour gas production is not planned, or not practical, prior to the occurrence of the design environmental event (such as areas with high seismic activity). Platforms that support trunk oil transport lines and/or storage facilities for intermittent oil shipment are also considered to be in the high-consequence category.

A platform shall be categorized as C1, high-consequence, unless the particular requirements for C2 or C3 apply throughout the platform's design service life.

6.2.3.3 C2 (medium-consequence category)

The medium-consequence category refers to platforms where production can be shut-in during the design environmental event. A platform may be categorized as C2, medium-consequence, only if all of the following conditions apply:

- a) all wells that can flow on their own in the event of structure/riser failure shall contain fully-functional subsurface safety valves, manufactured and tested in accordance with applicable specifications;
- b) oil storage is limited to process inventory, bunker fuel, and "surge" tanks for pipeline transfer;
- c) pipelines are limited in their ability to release hydrocarbons, either by virtue of inventory and pressure regime or by check valves or by seabed safety valves.

6.2.3.4 C3 (low-consequence category)

The low-consequence category refers to minimal platforms where production can be shut-in during the design environmental event. These platforms can support production departing from the platform and low volume in-field pipelines.

A platform may be categorized as C3, low-consequence, only if all of the following conditions apply:

- a) all wells that can flow on their own in the event of structure/riser failure contain fully-functional, sub-surface safety valves, manufactured and tested in accordance with applicable specifications;
- b) oil storage is limited to process inventory and bunker fuel;
- c) pipelines are limited in their ability to release hydrocarbons, either by virtue of inventory and pressure regime or by check valves or by seabed safety valves.

6.2.4 Determination of exposure level

The three life-safety categories and the three consequences categories can, in principle, be combined into nine exposure levels. However, the level to be used for the platform’s categorization is the more restrictive level for either life-safety or consequence.

This results in three exposure levels, according to Table 1.

Table 1 — Determination of exposure level

Life-safety category	Exposure level (L1 to L3)		
	Consequence category		
	C1 (high-consequence)	C2 (medium-consequence)	C3 (low-consequence)
S1 (manned–nonevacuated)	L1	L1	L1
S2 (manned–evacuated)	L1	L2	L2
S3 (unmanned)	L1	L2	L3

Thus, for example, a platform categorized as S1 and C2 has an exposure level of L1, while a structure categorized as S3 and C2 has an exposure level of L2.

The platform’s owner shall determine the applicable exposure level prior to the design of a new platform or the assessment of an existing one, and shall obtain the agreement of the regulator where applicable. A platform’s categorization may be revised over its design service life as a result of changes in factors affecting life-safety or consequence category. Once the exposure level is determined, appropriate design situations and design criteria for the structure’s intended service can be identified.

This part of ISO 19904 provides partial safety factors exclusively for structures with exposure levels equal to L1.

6.3 Limit states

6.3.1 General

The design checking for a system and its components shall be performed with reference to a specified set of limit states beyond which the structure or the system no longer satisfies the design requirements given in Clauses 7 to 14. In addition, for each limit state, watertightness and hydrostatic stability shall be ensured in accordance with Clause 15.

For each limit state, design criteria shall be established, appropriate design situations shall be defined, calculation models shall be established, and adequate procedures shall be followed to verify compliance with design requirements. These requirements cover all phases of the structure’s life cycle, including construction, transportation, installation, operation and removal.

6.3.2 Limit states for floating structures

The following limit state categories shall be used in the structural design of a floating platform:

- ultimate limit states (ULS), which generally involve checking the floating structure's strength to resist extreme actions and action effects;
- serviceability limit states (SLS), which generally address the structure's performance during its normal intended use, and involve checking the floating structure's strength to resist operational actions and action effects;
- fatigue limit states (FLS), which cover the structure's strength to resist cumulative effects of repeated actions;
- accidental limit states (ALS), which investigate the structure's ability to resist accidental and abnormal events, and the structure's resistance to the effects of specified environmental actions after damage has occurred as a consequence of an accidental or abnormal event.

6.4 Design situations

6.4.1 General

Design situations include the service and operational requirements resulting from the intended use of the floating structure in conjunction with the environmental conditions affecting the floating structure's behaviour.

In particular, an environmental design situation consists of the set of actions induced by waves, wind, current, and, if applicable, earthquakes or floating ice, on the floating structure and on the mooring system, as appropriate, and is characterized by a given return period.

Criteria to be met by the design can be directly related to the specific formulation or modelling technique used to simulate the design situation. In such cases, design situations and design criteria form one whole and shall not be separated from one another. They are jointly specified in Clauses 8 to 18.

The definition of specific design situations for the floating structure shall be the responsibility of the owner in accordance with the requirements of a regulatory authority where one exists.

6.4.2 Design situations for ULS

The design actions to be used in the various ULS are specified in Clause 7. The design strengths and the application of the ULS are specified in Clauses 9, 11, 12 and 13.

For ULS conditions, representative metocean actions shall be established with the intention of resulting in the most onerous metocean action effects with the return period of 100 years. Different structural components can be affected to a different extent by the same design situations. Consequently, a range of design situations shall be used to ensure that the most onerous conditions for all types of structural components are identified.

6.4.3 Design situations for SLS

The identification of SLS design situations for floating offshore structures shall be based on a number of considerations, including the following:

- unacceptable deformations can affect the efficient use of structural or non-structural components or the functioning of equipment relying on them;
- local damage (including corrosion, cracking, wear, deterioration of flex joints) can reduce the durability of the structure or affect the efficiency of structural or non-structural components;

- excessive motions, accelerations, vibrations or noise can cause discomfort to personnel and interfere with their capability to discharge their duties;
- motions, accelerations or vibrations can exceed the range of effective functionality of topsides equipment (e.g. roll and pitch angles can seriously affect the performance of separators, or the serviceability of drilling equipment).

The assessment criteria associated with SLS shall typically be based on motions, deflections or vibration limits during normal use.

The SLS criteria shall be defined by the owner of a structure, established practice, designers, or suppliers of motion-sensitive equipment, the primary aim being efficient and economical in-service performance without discomfort to onboard personnel or excessive routine maintenance.

The acceptable limits necessarily depend on the type, mission and configuration of the structure. Furthermore, in defining such limits, other disciplines such as equipment and machinery designers shall also be consulted.

6.4.4 Design situations for FLS

FLS are addressed in Clause 10, covering methods, actions and resistances.

6.4.5 Design situations for ALS

ALS are addressed in Clauses 9, 11, 12 and 13, in respect of actions and modifications to both partial action factors and partial resistance factors. The main goal of the ALS verification is to ensure that the floating structure is designed to achieve the following:

- a) withstand specified accidental and abnormal events suffering, at worst, limited damage that shall not affect its overall structural integrity, stability and watertightness;
- b) maintain adequate structural integrity (residual strength), stability and watertightness in the event of damage from an accidental or abnormal event, for a sufficient period of time and under specified environmental conditions to enable some or all of the following activities, as applicable:
 - evacuation of personnel from the structure;
 - control over movement or motion of the structure;
 - temporary repairs;
 - fire fighting;
 - control of outflow of cargo or stored material liable to cause environmental damage or pollution.

Different types of accidental or abnormal events can require different methodologies or different levels of the same methodology to assess adequacy of the structural resistance during and following such events.

ALS design situations may include consideration of a reduced extreme environmental condition. This condition should be established with the intention of resulting in the most onerous action effects for a return period of one year. Recognized structural practices accounting for local structural damage may be utilized in design for the ALS.

6.4.6 Temporary phases

During temporary phases, structural strength is generally limited as a result of partial levels of completion of the structure and/or application of action combinations that differ from those applicable to normal operation. The effects of design situations applicable to temporary phases shall be addressed during design to avoid exceedance of either ULS or SLS, and to assess contributions to FLS.

Detailed planning of erection sequences and construction methods is essential to ensure all critical conditions are identified.

Transportation and installation assessments should comply with the requirements of a qualified marine surveyor accustomed to advising on transportation of these types of structures (e.g. an insurance marine warranty surveyor) or equivalent, see 9.12.

7 Actions and action effects

7.1 General

Clause 7 addresses actions likely to be experienced by a floating structure during its life cycle and applicable methodologies for their evaluation.

7.2 Permanent actions (*G*)

Permanent actions (see A.7.2 for examples) are those likely to act throughout a given design situation and for which variations in magnitude with time, during the life of the structure,

- a) are small in relation to the mean value, or
- b) attain some limiting value.

The representative value of a permanent action shall be taken as the mean value based on the density of the material, the volume of the structure or component based on its nominal dimensions, calculated reactions, and calculated effects of deflections and deformations, as appropriate.

In cases where the permanent action can have an upper or lower value, the representative value shall be taken as the value that produces the most unfavourable effects in the structure under consideration.

A procedure for monitoring the weight and position of the centre of gravity of the floating platform shall be incorporated into the design process. The mass distribution of a floating platform as-built shall be verified to an appropriate degree of accuracy (see 15.2 in connection with requirements to inclining tests). Monitoring of the weight and centre of gravity shall be performed during the entire life cycle of the floating platform.

NOTE For further guidance, see ISO 19901-5.

7.3 Variable actions (*Q*)

Variable actions generally vary in magnitude, position and direction during the life of the structure, and are usually related to operations and normal use of the platform. These actions are likely to act throughout a given design situation, but do not include environmental actions (see A.7.3 for examples).

The representative value of a variable action shall be taken as the maximum (or minimum) value that produces the most unfavourable effects in the structure under consideration. The value shall be determined either in the same manner as for permanent actions, i.e. mean or calculated, or as a specified value from a recognized source (e.g. RCS or national regulations).

Design local deck actions shall be documented on a *load plan*. This plan shall clearly show the design uniform and concentrated actions for all deck areas for each relevant mode of operation.

Design limits pertaining to tank capacities shall be documented on a *capacity plan*. As a minimum, the capacity plan shall clearly show tank layout, intended use of tanks, capacities, and the maximum design relative density of tank fluid.

7.4 Accidental actions (A)

7.4.1 General

Accidental actions relate to accidental events, abnormal operations or technical failure (see A.7.4.1 for examples).

The representative value of an accidental action shall correspond to a value with an annual probability of exceedance equal to 10^{-4} .

Values of accidental actions with an annual probability of exceedance less than 10^{-4} may be disregarded.

A hazard identification (HAZID) shall be carried out at the outset of the design of a floating structure to identify potential accidental events and the associated consequences. The extent of the HAZID and the assessment methods shall be determined taking into account the type of structure and the existing operational experience. HAZIDs should be conducted with appropriate expertise available. When selecting participants their experience with failure investigation in relation to these types of structures should be considered.

NOTE In certain geographic areas, abnormal environmental events are considered a hazard.

The structural configuration and equipment arrangements shall be such that damage resulting from an accidental action shall not lead to an escalation of undesirable events (e.g. as could occur if the flare tower were to be placed in the collision zone) or impair safety-critical functions.

Accidental events may be assumed to occur independently of extreme environmental design situations, see Table 2.

For temporary phases, accidental actions may normally be omitted from further checks, provided a HAZID and risk assessment have been conducted to ensure all actions likely to occur during temporary design conditions have been identified and their potential consequences assessed.

7.4.2 Collision

Collision-induced actions shall be considered in the design of all structural components that can be affected by sideways, bow or stern collision with another vessel. The vertical extent of the collision zone shall be based on the depth and draught of the colliding vessel, and on the relative horizontal and vertical motions between the vessel and the floating structure. The magnitude of the collision-induced action shall account for added mass effects. Particular attention shall be given to collisions that can occur during offloading operations.

Structural components located in areas where marine vessels operate in close proximity to the floating structure shall be capable of absorbing the energy resulting from casual contact due to routine operations.

Emergency and essential marine equipment shall be placed away from possible collision zones.

7.4.3 Dropped objects

Accidental impact actions caused by dropped, swinging or sliding objects from cranes or other lifting devices shall be considered. Critical areas for dropped objects shall be determined on the basis of the planned movement of crane loads over the platform.

7.4.4 Fire and blast

As far as practicable, semi-enclosed locations where gas pockets can occur should be avoided in the design of a floating platform. Where this is not possible, for example in moonpool locations, the potential for gas accumulation shall be assessed and appropriate measures shall be taken to reduce the risk of explosion to an acceptable level.

Blast resistance requirements shall be addressed concurrently with fire resistance requirements, taking into account probability of occurrence, blast safety evaluation, layout and area of importance, venting system, access to escape, etc. The resistance to fire after blast shall also be addressed.

The fire/blast scenario shall be defined: for example, fire followed by blast followed by fire; or blast followed by fire. It should be demonstrated that blast wall fire insulation remains effective for the duration of the fire/blast scenario. The overall structural design shall prevent any escalation of the accidental event, including escalation events that could affect emergency and essential marine equipment and/or escape routes.

Structural support of blast walls and the transmission of the blast action into the main structural elements shall be taken into account. The effectiveness of connections and the possible outcome from the blast, such as flying debris, shall be evaluated.

7.5 Environmental actions (*E*)

7.5.1 General

Environmental actions shall be derived from environmental information appropriate to the specific locations where the floating structure is to be fabricated, transported, installed and operated (see ISO 19901-1). The stochastic nature of environmental actions shall be adequately accounted for. Environmental actions can be repeated, sustained, or both repeated and sustained.

The representative value of an environmental action is the maximum or minimum value (whichever is the more unfavourable) corresponding to a prescribed probability of exceedance. Joint probability of occurrence of the various environmental actions may be taken into account if such information is available and can be adequately documented.

Global environmental actions are normally generated by appropriate structural analysis software or mapped from other software packages used to develop the actions, e.g. hydrodynamic software used to generate wave-induced pressures.

Actions arising from earthquakes are not normally of concern for the design of floating structures. Accordingly, these actions are not dealt with in this part of ISO 19904.

7.5.2 Environmental site-specific data

The phenomena and environmental characteristics listed in this subclause shall, where appropriate to the region, be taken into account in the design. These characteristics shall be described by physical parameters and, where available, statistics (see also ISO 19901-1).

a) Wind

Wind is usually characterized by the mean value of its velocity over a given time interval at a given elevation above the mean water level. If the frequency content is of importance it shall be taken into account. The variation with elevation (wind profile) and the spatial coherence should be considered.

b) Waves

Site-specific information shall be established to consider sea-state characteristics (wave height, period, duration, directions and spectra) and the long-term statistics of these characteristics, including wind- and swell-generated waves.

c) Water depth and sea level variations

The water depth shall be determined together with the magnitude of the low and high tides, and positive and negative storm surges. The possibility of ground subsidence should be considered when determining the water depth.

d) Currents

Phenomena such as tidal, wind-driven, global circulation, loop and eddy currents shall be considered. Currents shall be described by their velocity variation (in magnitude and direction) with water depth (current profile) and persistence. The occurrence of fluid motion caused by internal waves should be considered.

e) Marine growth

Marine growth thickness, roughness, density and variation with depth shall be defined. This information is usually provided by direct measurements and operational experience in the specific area of interest.

f) Ice and snow

The accumulation of ice and snow on horizontal and vertical surfaces (thickness and density) shall be defined, together with the appropriate parameters for the other environmental phenomena (wind, waves and current) to be considered in conjunction with ice and snow accumulation. In addition, the possibility of ice build-up through freezing of sea spray, rain or fog shall be considered. Sea ice and iceberg occurrences shall be considered when applicable.

g) Temperatures

The maximum, average and minimum air and sea temperatures at the site shall be determined.

h) Local sea water characteristics

Sea water properties such as oxygen content, salinity and density shall be provided.

i) Geotechnical data

Site investigations shall be performed to define physical and engineering properties of the soil strata and to identify potential hazards (earthquakes, mudslides, etc.).

7.5.3 Wind actions

7.5.3.1 General

Actions on a structure caused by wind shall be considered for both global analysis and local design.

Wind-induced actions shall be determined by means of wind tunnel tests and/or suitable analytical methods. Validated computational fluid dynamic methods may be used where appropriate.

The total wind velocity can be described as the sum of the mean wind component and a gust component.

7.5.3.2 Mean wind action

Mean wind actions on a floating structure may be estimated by calculating the mean wind actions on all exposed components of the structure and summing the contributions from each component. Mean wind actions on individual components may be calculated using an expression of the form given by Equation (1):

$$P_w = \frac{1}{2} \rho_a C_s v_z^2 \quad (1)$$

where

P_w is the mean wind pressure;

ρ_a is the mass density of air;

C_s is the shape coefficient, which shall be determined from appropriate sources (e.g. RCS rules or ISO 19902:—, Clause 9);

v_z is the mean wind velocity at height z above the mean water level.

If C_s is obtained from wind tunnel measurements, all the parameters in Equation (1) shall be used in a manner consistent with the derivation of the wind tunnel results.

The wind velocity is usually given at a reference height of 10 m above the mean water level. To obtain the mean wind velocity at a different elevation, z , this value should be adjusted according to the formulation provided in ISO 19901-1. Wind velocity should be averaged over an appropriate time interval, typically 3 s for a small standard component, 1 min for stability calculations and 1 h for mean wind actions in conjunction with a frequency or time domain gust analysis.

Solidification effects shall be taken into account in cases where components are located close together in a plane normal to the wind direction.

Shielding effects may be taken into account if it can be adequately documented that the inclusion of such effects is justified.

When calculating wind actions, care shall be taken to decompose the global structure into components of sufficiently small size, so that the local wind velocity can be considered constant over the component without significant error.

For monohull structures, additional information is given in A.7.5.3.

7.5.3.3 Dynamic wind actions

Wind-induced dynamic actions fall into three categories:

- a) long-period variations in the wind intensity, which tend to engulf the whole platform and which can give rise to slow rigid body motions of the platform about its mean position;
- b) medium-period fluctuations affecting large structural components or sub-assemblies, such as flare towers;
- c) shorter-period variations associated with the shedding of vortices and aerodynamic instabilities.

Whenever appropriate data are available, aerodynamic admittance and spatial and temporal correlation of the gusts may be accounted for.

A dynamic analysis considering the time variation of wind actions and their effects shall be performed for the entire platform as well as for wind-exposed equipment and objects sensitive to varying wind actions, e.g. towers, flare booms.

The fluctuating gust component can be calculated in either the time domain or the frequency domain using an appropriate wind gust spectrum (see ISO 19901-1).

7.5.3.4 Wind-induced instability

Consideration shall be given to local aerodynamic instability. Examples of such instabilities (see ISO 19901-1) are atmospheric turbulence, gusts and squalls. Additionally, instabilities can arise due to interaction between the air flow and structural components, e.g. vortex-induced vibration of slender components (see 7.5.6) and galloping effects.

7.5.4 Current actions

Current actions on large-volume bodies like floating structures shall be determined by model tests, relevant empirical analytical tools, and/or appropriate sources. In determining the shape coefficients, appendages (bilge keels, strakes, etc.) shall be taken into account. Actions induced by steady currents on monohull and semi-submersible structures may be determined by global coefficients, in analogy to mean wind actions, 7.5.3.2. In general, current actions on monohull structures are much larger in shallow water (with small under-keel clearance) than in deep water.

Current actions on slender components may be determined using Equation (3), see 7.5.5.3. Drag coefficients shall be determined from appropriate sources. In the absence of data indicating otherwise, the drag coefficients provided in ISO 19902:—, Clause 9, for unshielded circular cylinders are recommended, i.e. 0,65 for smooth surfaces and 1,05 for rough surfaces.

The effects of medium-term and long-term variations of current velocity on moored floating structures shall be considered.

For monohull structures, additional information is given in A.7.5.4.

7.5.5 Wave actions

7.5.5.1 General

Actions caused by waves acting on a structure shall be considered for both global analysis and local design. Wave actions shall be determined by appropriate methods, taking into account all relevant parameters, including water depth, marine growth, type of structure, size, shape, and response characteristics.

The simultaneous effect of hydrostatic pressure, hydrodynamic local pressures, and the integrated (global) effect of still-water and wave actions shall be computed.

Adequate consideration shall be given to the relationship between the wave's dominant periods and the structure's natural period of motion or vibration. For example, for two different design situations, each having the same composite return period, it is possible that the situation characterized by lower wave heights but a longer or shorter associated period induces more severe action effects on some components.

Local hydrodynamic instability shall be investigated (see 7.5.6).

7.5.5.2 Actions on large-volume bodies

The total pressure acting on submerged structural components includes both static and dynamic contributions. The dynamic pressure at a point on the immersed surface of a structure is expressed as the superposition of the pressure associated with the following:

- incident and scattered waves;
- flow induced by the six degrees-of-freedom radiation potential due to the motion of the structure in still-water; and
- the time-varying hydrostatic pressure due to heave, roll and pitch displacements of the structure from its mean position.

For structural components with dimensions of the same order of the wave length (where, typically, the ratio between the wave length and the diameter or other characteristic dimension is < 5), the flow disturbance introduced by the large volume body cannot be neglected in the calculation of water particle kinematics. In this case, the current/wave/body interaction shall be considered when deriving resultant actions.

The transfer functions for linear wave actions can be determined by diffraction and radiation theory.

For simple geometrical shapes, analytical solutions may be used. For structural forms where the actions cannot adequately be described by state-of-the-art methods, model tests shall be undertaken.

Hydrodynamic interactions between large-volume components shall be accounted for.

7.5.5.3 Actions on slender components

The computation of the action on a cylindrical component caused by waves, or a combination of waves and currents, depends on the ratio of the wavelength to the component diameter. If this ratio is large (> 5), the member does not significantly modify the incident wave. The action can then be computed as the sum of a drag component and an inertia component, as follows:

$$\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{F}_d + \mathbf{F}_i \quad (2)$$

where

\mathbf{F} is the local action vector per unit length acting normal to the component axis;

\mathbf{F}_d is the vector for the drag action per unit length acting normal to the component axis in the plane of the component axis and v

$$\mathbf{F}_d = \frac{1}{2} \rho_w C_d (v - \dot{x}) |v - \dot{x}| A \quad (3)$$

\mathbf{F}_i is the vector for the inertia action per unit length acting normal to the component axis in the plane of the component axis and $\partial v / \partial t$

$$\mathbf{F}_i = \rho_w C_m V \frac{\partial v}{\partial t} - (C_m - 1) \rho_w V \ddot{x} \quad (4)$$

where

C_d is the hydrodynamic drag coefficient;

C_m is the hydrodynamic inertia coefficient;

ρ_w is the mass density of water;

A is the projected effective dimension of the cross-sectional area normal to the cylinder axis per unit length based on an effective diameter that includes marine growth;

V is the effective displaced volume of the cylinder per unit length;

v is the component of the local water particle velocity vector (due to waves and current) normal to the axis of the component;

$\frac{\partial v}{\partial t}$ is the component of local water particle acceleration vector normal to the component axis;

\dot{x} is the velocity of the cylinder normal to the axis of the component;

\ddot{x} is the acceleration of the cylinder normal to the axis of the component;

$||$ denotes the absolute value.

As presented here, Equation (2), in combination with Equation (3) and Equation (4), commonly (albeit incorrectly) referred to as Morison's equation, does not include hydrodynamic lift actions, slam actions and axial Froude-Krylov actions. If the above expressions are used for columns and pontoons (e.g. for semi-submersible hulls) appropriate additional terms shall be added to account for axial Froude-Krylov actions and added mass. The final analysis shall be performed using a diffraction analysis, in which case the drag effects shall be added.

The combined effect of simultaneous drag and inertia actions is obtained by vectorial addition.

The drag coefficient (C_d) depends on many parameters: Reynolds number, Keulegan-Carpenter number and roughness, amongst others.

For deterministic, global wave action calculations, the drag coefficient for circular cylinders is not to be less than the values provided in ISO 19902:—, Clause 9, i.e. 0,65 for smooth surfaces and 1,05 for rough surfaces, where the rough surface value shall be used for members with marine growth. The value of C_d can be affected by the occurrence of VIV (see 7.5.6). For fatigue assessment, higher values of C_d can apply, see ISO 19902:—, A.9.

Design assumptions on the absence of marine growth shall be supported by appropriate requirements in the MOM to ensure that the components in question are kept free of marine growth during the structure's life.

Solidification effects shall be taken into account in cases where components are located close together in a plane normal to the wave direction.

Shielding effects may be taken into account if it can be adequately documented that the inclusion of such effects is justified.

The inertia coefficient (C_m) for circular cylinders shall be taken to be no less than 2,0 for actions where the inertia component action is considerably higher than the drag component action. For other shapes, the inertia coefficient can be accurately determined from appropriate calculations and model tests.

The wave actions on structures composed of large-volume components and slender components may be computed by a combination of wave diffraction and radiation theory and Morison's equation. The effects on water particle velocities and accelerations due to the large volumes shall be considered when using Morison's equation on adjacent slender components.

7.5.5.4 Slamming on slender components

Structural components in the wave zone can be affected by slamming, an impulsive action whose effect shall be considered in design. Dynamic effects, particularly amplification, shall be included where appropriate.

For cylindrical members, the slamming actions may be calculated from Equation (5):

$$F_s = \frac{1}{2} \rho_w C_{sl} d v^2 \quad (5)$$

where

F_s is the slamming action per unit length in the direction of the relative velocity vector;

ρ_w is the mass density of water;

C_{sl} is the slamming coefficient;

d is the component diameter;

v is the relative water particle velocity normal to the component axis.

The slamming coefficient C_{sl} can be determined using theoretical and/or experimental methods. For smooth circular cylinders the value of C_{sl} should be assumed to be no less than 3,0 when performing a quasi-static analysis, and no less than 6,0 when quantifying dynamic behaviour.

7.5.5.5 Higher order non-linear wave actions

Some hydrodynamic phenomena, generally represented by higher-order, non-linear numerical models, give rise to actions at frequencies close to resonant frequencies of the floating structure and its stationkeeping system. These actions shall be assessed and their effects investigated, as they can be important for the design of floating structures. The nature of these phenomena is addressed in A.7.5.5.5.

Examples of the effects due to higher order hydrodynamics are

- mean drift (mean second order action).
- slow drift (time varying action).

Wave drift and wave drift damping are affected by the wave/current interaction, which shall also be considered.

7.5.5.6 Wave enhancement effects

In the vicinity of large bodies, the free surface elevation can be enhanced by motions, diffraction, radiation, wave/current interaction effects, and other non-linear wave effects. These shall be accounted for, as appropriate, in the wave action calculation and used to estimate deck clearance and freeboard, see 8.10.

7.5.5.7 Shallow water effects

If the floating structure is located in a shallow water area (i.e. water depth less than half the wavelength), wave amplitude enhancements and/or wave refraction caused by the effect of the sea bottom shall be taken into account in estimating wave actions.

7.5.5.8 Slamming and green water actions

Wave slamming against the shell structure of the hull due to local wave action, water entry slamming and green water action caused by high relative motions of structure and wave surface are local wave action effects and are discussed in more detail in 9.8.

7.5.6 Vortex-induced vibrations and motions

A fluid flow (wind or current) past a slender component can cause unsteady flow patterns due to vortex shedding. At certain critical flow velocities the vortex-shedding frequency coincides with, or is a multiple of, a natural frequency of the component, resulting in harmonic or sub-harmonic excitations normal to the longitudinal axis of the component. This phenomenon is generally referred to as vortex-induced vibrations (VIV).

The vibrations can be in-line (in the plane of the flow velocity) or transverse (in a plane perpendicular to the flow velocity and the component axis). Transverse vibrations are usually of more concern for most structural components. The effects of VIV include

- increased drag actions on individual components,
- fatigue damage of individual components.

Furthermore, for flow velocities in certain ranges, the vibrations can affect the platform (e.g. spar and potentially semi-submersible) as a whole and result in transverse rigid body motions, i.e. vortex-induced motions (VIM).

The potential for VIV/VIM shall be assessed. The focus of a VIV analysis is generally to evaluate if the fatigue resistance of the component or system is adequate. Accordingly, the simplified (and conservative) VIV analysis described in A.7.5.6 should suffice if the resulting fatigue damage is acceptable. If the simplified analysis indicates insufficient fatigue resistance, a more sophisticated and less conservative method may be applied.

The method should be chosen according to the specific case to be investigated. Recognized semi-empirical methods may be applied if the problem characteristics are well within the validity range. Otherwise, if the problem is of high complexity (e.g. riser bundles, varying diameters or surface waves), more refined assessment methods are required.

7.5.7 Marine growth

Marine growth shall be defined by its thickness, roughness, density and variation with depth. Additionally, the marine growth thickness to be used in the design is influenced by operational strategy (e.g. regular cleaning, use of anti-fouling coating) as well as structural behaviour (e.g. less marine growth is normally found on slender structures with significant dynamic displacements).

The presence of marine growth causes an effective increase of the component dimensions, a consequent direct increase in structure weight, in hydrodynamic drag and in added mass, and alters the roughness characteristics of the surface. In structural design, therefore, the mass, buoyancy diameter and effective drag diameter shall be adjusted to account for the specified water depth variation of marine growth. In addition, the values of the hydrodynamic coefficients (drag, C_d , and inertia, C_m) should reflect the roughness associated with the marine growth.

The design basis and the MOM can include a specific provision for periodic marine growth cleaning or anti-fouling systems during the platform life, in which case the design assumptions shall be adjusted accordingly. Any such reliance shall be documented and the cleaning programme defined over the life of the platform. The consequences of not maintaining this programme should be determined and reported.

7.5.8 Snow and ice accretion

Ice accretion on structural components from sea spray, snow, rain, and air humidity can cause increases of cross-sectional area (with consequent increase in mass and added mass) and surface roughness. These effects shall be considered when determining wind and hydrodynamic actions.

For floating structures, the effects of snow and ice accretion shall be considered, as such accretion can affect the hydrostatic stability. Appropriate instructions concerning the need for removal of ice accretion shall be included in the MOM.

7.5.9 Direct ice action

Where encounter with sea ice or impact with icebergs can occur, collision actions shall be determined through appropriate theoretical models, model laboratory tests or full-scale measurements.

When determining the magnitude and direction of actions, the following factors shall be considered:

- geometry and nature of the ice;
- mechanical properties of the ice;
- velocity and direction of the ice;
- geometry and size of the ice/structure contact area;
- ice failure mode as a function of the structure geometry;
- inertia effects for both ice and structure.

Reference should be made to ISO 19906^[158] for structures in ice conditions.

7.5.10 Temperature effects

Floating structures shall be designed for the most onerous temperature differences to which they can be exposed. This applies, but is not limited to

- storage tanks,
- structural components exposed to radiation from the flare, and
- structural components that are in contact with risers or process equipment.

The lowest anticipated sea or air temperature shall be the lowest one-hour average temperature associated with an annual probability of exceedance of 10^{-2} .

7.5.11 Tidal effects

For floating structures constrained by stiff mooring systems, tidal effects can significantly affect the mean tensions in the mooring components. Therefore, the choice of tide conditions for a static equilibrium analysis is important. Higher mean water levels tend to increase maximum mooring line tensions, hydrostatic actions, and current actions on the hull, while tending to decrease deck clearances.

The effects of tides may be taken into account by performing a static balance at the various appropriate tide levels to provide a starting point for further analysis, or by making allowances for the appropriate tide level in calculating extreme responses.

7.5.12 Geotechnical hazards

Geotechnical hazards such as earthquakes, mudslides and other geotechnical phenomena can affect anchors, mooring lines and risers, and should be considered (see also ISO 19901-7).

7.6 Other actions

7.6.1 Stationkeeping actions

A floating structure can be kept on station by various methods, depending on site-specific criteria and operational goals. These methods include different types of stationkeeping systems such as internal and submerged turret systems, external turret, catenary anchor leg mooring (CALM), CALM buoy and hawser, spread mooring, and dynamic positioning (DP), see Clause 17. Each type of stationkeeping system imposes specific actions on the hull structure. These actions shall be considered in the platform's structural design (see ISO 19901-7).

7.6.2 Sloshing actions

Sloshing is the dynamic magnification of internal pressures acting on the boundaries of partially filled tanks due to internal fluid motion. Sloshing occurs if the natural periods of the fluid in a tank and of the motions of the structure are similar (see 9.8.4). In some cases, the fitting of swash bulkheads or other baffle devices can be necessary to minimize sloshing effects.

Sloshing-induced actions shall be considered in the structural design.

7.7 Repetitive actions

Repetitive actions, which can lead to significant fatigue damage, shall be evaluated. As a minimum, the following sources of cyclic action effects should be considered:

- waves, including actions caused by slamming and variable buoyancy;
- wind, especially in conjunction with vortex-induced vibrations;
- motion-induced accelerations;

- currents, especially in conjunction with vortex-induced vibrations;
- low cycle/high stress range variable action fluctuations, such as loading and discharging of cargo/ballast;
- sloshing;
- mechanical vibrations, such as those caused by operation of machinery;
- fluctuating actions imposed by the stationkeeping system.

7.8 Action combinations

The structure's resistance shall be investigated for a range of potential combinations of permanent, variable, environmental and accidental actions, see Clause 9.

Values of environmental actions to be used in design should always be established with the intention of resulting in the most probable maximum (or minimum) response for the limit state under consideration. There can be different design events that give the most onerous response for different elements in the structure.

8 Global analysis

8.1 General

The combination of risers, stationkeeping system and the floating structure is a complex integrated dynamic system responding to environmental actions (wind, waves, current, etc.). Therefore, the global analysis of the floating structure cannot be separated from the analysis of the stationkeeping system, and overlaps substantially with this activity, which is covered in detail in ISO 19901-7. Accordingly, Clause 8 provides an overview of the general processes, issues and requirements to be fulfilled.

For floating structures, the typical action effects controlling the structure's overall geometry and configuration, as well as the design of the stationkeeping system include structure offset, structure motions, global structural forces, minimum and maximum mooring line and riser tensions, deck clearance (air gap, freeboard) and deck level motions and accelerations.

The representative values of these action effects are usually obtained from the results of global dynamic analyses and/or model tests.

Validation of numerical results by sensitivity studies with respect to key parameters should be performed.

8.2 Static and mean response analyses

8.2.1 General

The objective of static and mean response analyses is to determine the static equilibrium position of a platform with no wind, wave or current present, and, subsequently, the mean position due to steady environmental actions on the platform. The mean position is then used as a basis for frequency domain analyses, or as the initial condition for time domain analyses.

8.2.2 Static equilibrium in still-water condition

The determination of the static equilibrium, or weight balance, in the “still-water” condition is fundamental to sizing of the floating structure, and is the starting point for further analysis. A static equilibrium analysis shall be performed for each design situation.

Determination of the static equilibrium for each design situation shall include the following:

- the total platform weight;
- the total structure displacement (the total structure buoyancy) for each draught to be analysed;
- any riser and mooring tensions acting on the structure;
- any applicable crane hook loads.

The structural weight shall include the weight of all structural components, permanent appurtenances, and all equipment permanently mounted on the platform. In addition, the platform weight shall include all weights appropriate to the design situation being analysed. These variable actions shall include the weight of crude oil storage in various loading conditions (if applicable), temporary equipment, contents, consumable supplies, ballast, marine growth, ice, and any other appropriate temporary weights.

NOTE Different design situations can involve significant variations in temporary or removable weights and in actions to be included in the static equilibrium analysis.

8.2.3 Mean response analysis

The mean response is characterized by the position of the platform’s centre of gravity, including setdown effects (as applicable), mean orientation of the platform (particularly for monohulls), and orientation of mooring and riser system.

The estimate of the mean response shall include the same components as the still-water condition discussed in 8.2.2, as well as, as a minimum, the following:

- the mean actions due to wind;
- the mean actions due to wave drift and current on the structure;
- current actions on risers and moorings.

Mean response calculations shall be repeated for a variety of design situations.

8.3 Global dynamic behaviour

8.3.1 General

While, for the analysis discussed in 8.2, the response of the system (floating structure, risers and moorings) can be approximated by a static or quasi-static analysis, dynamic analyses shall be performed when some natural period of the system or part thereof falls within the range of periods of steady-state actions, or when the structure is exposed to transient actions.

Dynamic effects can be important, for example in connection with

- wave frequency actions,
- low-frequency effects of wind and wave actions,
- wave slamming, sloshing in tanks, and other transient wave actions,

- mechanical impacts due to ships, icebergs or dropped objects, and
- explosion actions.

Dynamic effects resulting from rigid body motions shall be adequately accounted for in the design process.

The effects of thrusters in terms of restoring forces and possible damping should be included.

Free surface effects in tanks shall be included, where relevant.

8.3.2 Analysis models

The environmental actions on the platform are generally a function of both time and platform position. To allow a simple solution, a number of assumptions and linearizations are usually made.

A common simplifying assumption is to model the structure as a rigid body, excluding risers and moorings. The system then has six degrees of freedom. This approach is usually referred to as “uncoupled analysis” because it assumes no interaction between mooring and riser dynamic responses and the structure dynamic response, see 8.6.

More sophisticated and complex models can be developed by including a suitable number of degrees of freedom to simulate risers and moorings. Such models allow joint consideration of structure, mooring and riser dynamic behaviour and are suitable for deep water applications or when mooring lines/riser masses are a significant portion of the total system mass. This approach is usually referred to as “coupled analysis”, see 8.7.

8.3.3 Mass

The total mass used in the analyses shall include

- a) the mass of structural material,
- b) the mass of equipment,
- c) the mass associated with variable actions (including ballast and crude oil storage, if applicable), and
- d) added mass effects associated with the submerged portion of the hull.

For uncoupled analyses, the mass of the moorings and risers may be accounted for in an approximate fashion.

For coupled analyses, moorings and risers shall be modelled with a sufficient number of degrees of freedom, and the total mass shall include

- the structural riser mass,
- the mooring line mass,
- the mass of any enclosed fluids and internal lines, and
- added mass.

8.3.4 Damping

Damping is important in limiting structure resonant responses, and can have significant contributions from wave radiation and drag on the hull, bilge keels, moorings and risers. Roll damping effects should be carefully evaluated and included at the correct probability level in the hydrodynamic analysis. For spars, riser friction damping can also have an effect on the structure’s response.

8.3.5 Stiffness

The total stiffness shall contain contributions from

- a) the structure's hydrostatic characteristics,
- b) geometric terms due to moorings/risers in combination with structure offset, and
- c) elastic terms introduced by the mooring and riser systems.

8.3.6 Action classification

The time-varying actions on a floating platform are often categorized by their period ranges relative to the natural periods of the platform/moorings/risers system, as follows:

- a) nearly steady actions that can be considered static because they vary with periods much longer than any platform natural periods;
- b) slowly varying actions, with periods near the surge, sway and yaw natural periods (these responses typically have periods in the range of less than one minute to several minutes), and with roll and pitch natural periods for spars falling within a similar range;
- c) actions at wave periods.

8.4 Frequency domain analysis

Frequency domain analysis, in this context, refers to the solution of the equations of motion of a floating structure by harmonic analysis or by Laplace and Fourier transforms. The result of a frequency domain analysis is a description of the variables of interest (platform motions, platform accelerations, mooring forces, etc.) in terms of amplitudes and phases as functions of frequency. The method is naturally suited to the analysis of systems subjected to random excitations because it provides a clear and direct relationship between the input spectrum (in this case, the environmental actions) and the system response spectrum. The system response spectrum can then be used to estimate the short-term statistics of the variable of interest.

8.5 Time domain analysis

The time domain analysis method consists of a numerical solution of the rigid body equations of motion for the platform, subject to external actions due to environmental phenomena (waves, current, wind, etc.), the platform stationkeeping system and other possible actions. Since a direct numerical integration of the equations of motion is performed, any non-linearities can be directly included, such as, for example, drag-induced actions, finite motion, finite wave amplitude effects, and non-linear characteristics of the stationkeeping system. The capability of dealing with higher modelling complexity comes at the expense of increased computing time.

When the input to the analysis is represented by a deterministic, periodic wave, the analysis shall be carried out for a long enough simulation time to achieve a steady-state response.

When the input is represented by a wave spectrum, which is then converted into a time history of the water surface elevation, the analysis shall be performed long enough to achieve stationary response statistics. Several such analyses shall be performed, with different water surface elevation time histories obtained from the same input spectrum, and the response characteristics shall be combined to achieve a meaningful set of response statistics. Similarly, several different wind speed time histories should be investigated when the time-varying wind-induced action effects are significant.

8.6 Uncoupled analysis

Uncoupled analysis is generally used to compute the system (structure, moorings and risers) response using a two-step approach.

In the first step, the structure's rigid body response to static, low-frequency and wave-frequency environmental actions is computed. The risers and mooring system are represented by their static restoring force characteristics and a constant low-frequency viscous damping. Assessment of the low-frequency damping is important for the low-frequency floating structure motion analysis. Contributions from current direct action on mooring lines and risers may be represented by a constant external action on the structure.

In the second step, the moorings and risers are analysed, considering wave- and current-induced actions on the slender members, and imposing the structure's wave-frequency (or wave-frequency and low-frequency) motion response as forced dynamic excitation.

8.7 Coupled analysis

In a coupled analysis, all interactions between floating structure motions and slender structure response can be accounted for by creating a model of the total system, including hydrodynamic action modules for both large-body and slender components, including all mooring lines and risers. This approach yields dynamic equilibrium between the actions on the structure and the slender structure response at every time instant. Consequently, there is no need for assessment of the low-frequency damping from the slender structure, as this contribution is accounted for by the slender structure dynamics.

8.8 Resonant excitation and response

Non-linear mechanisms can generate actions and action effects that interact with particular natural frequencies of the total system normally not excited by wave frequency actions. As these resonant actions are often present in conjunction with low damping levels, care shall be taken to accurately model these effects. The amplitude of the response at resonance is very sensitive to the damping estimates. The use of model tests should be considered in complex situations for validating analytical computations.

8.9 Platform offset

Generally, to ensure riser integrity and serviceability in ULS and SLS design situations, the global platform motions shall be limited within appropriate motion envelopes.

The platform offsets shall be computed in accordance with ISO 19901-7.

8.10 Air gap

When assessing air gap, the following effects shall be considered:

- wave crest elevation, including wave asymmetry;
- wave/structure interaction effects (wave enhancement, run-up, etc.);
- global rigid body motions (including dynamic effects);
- effects of interacting systems (e.g. mooring and riser systems);
- maximum/minimum operating draughts.

Structures, parts of structures, equipment and supports that are not designed for the effects of direct wave action (wave impact, slamming, etc.) shall be located at an elevation that provides an air gap $\geq 1,5$ m in ULS design situations and $\geq 0,0$ m in ALS design situations.

For ULS design situations, a smaller value of air gap may be used if all the non-linear effects specified in this subclause are accounted for.

For ALS design situations, a risk assessment should be performed to assess the consequences of wave impact on secondary structure and equipment.

For monohulls, freeboard requirements are addressed in 11.2.4.

8.11 Platform motions and accelerations

The platform motions and accelerations shall be checked against the restrictions imposed by the serviceability of the topsides facilities and equipment. Large motions and accelerations can affect, among others,

- a) efficiency of process equipment,
- b) operability of cranes or rotating equipment,
- c) comfort levels, cognition, postural stability for the personnel on board,
- d) habitability of facilities,
- e) operability of heliports,
- f) power generation capabilities, and
- g) functionality of safety-critical equipment.

The platform motions and accelerations shall be checked against the restrictions imposed by the serviceability limitations of various types of topsides equipment. For instance, the efficiency of process equipment can be affected by large inclinations and accelerations. Operability of cranes or rotating equipment can also be compromised. Comfort levels for the personnel on board can also be affected.

8.12 Model tests

Estimates of the structural response to be used for design can be obtained by model tests. Model tests can also be used either to calibrate analytical predictions or to determine responses not directly or reliably calculable. The objectives of such model tests shall be clearly defined (see A.8.12) and, because during tests extraordinary or unexpected behaviour can occur, consideration should be given to the provision of continuous monitoring equipment to record such behaviour.

When comparing the results of model tests with analytical predictions, the following potential sources of discrepancies should be considered.

- a) Scale effects, such as those affecting Reynolds number, fluid interface and turbulence.
- b) Viscous effects (Reynolds number-dependent fluid drag and lift components) in both model tests and analytical predictions.

NOTE In computer simulations, these coefficients can be varied in order to study their effects.

- c) Wave reflections from side walls induced by radiated and reflected incident waves.
- d) Limitations on the accuracy of modelling physical properties, parameters and dimensions.
- e) Limitations on the accuracy of the test results resulting from finite record lengths, finite sample rates, and numerical accuracy of the data analysis procedures.
- f) Assumptions made in the development of the numerical model.

NOTE An example is the assumption of linearity of the responses with respect to wave height, which is almost always made in the frequency domain analysis. This can cause significant discrepancies between the numerical and test results for very steep waves or in situations where viscous forces play an important role.

In some cases, the instrumentation itself can affect the responses. The effect of instrumentation on the model should be minimized whenever possible.

For moored floating structures, a static load deflection curve in calm water shall be measured and checked against computations to verify the accuracy of the modelling of physical properties and instrumentation.

When the objective of the test is to assess impact loads and associated action effects, the measurements should be recorded at an appropriate sampling rate.

8.13 Design situations for structural analysis

8.13.1 General

The structure of a floating platform shall be designed for the action combinations that produce the most severe action effects on the structure. Representative values of environmental actions and action effects for design purposes can be obtained by a short-term response analysis, a long-term response analysis or a design wave analysis, as described below. The most general approach is a long-term analysis.

A search procedure shall be developed to derive reliable extreme design situations.

8.13.2 Short-term response analysis

Select a suitable set of extreme design situations, as identified in 6.4, expected to produce the most severe action effects. The combination of extreme wave, maximum storm current and maximum tide does not necessarily produce the maximum action effects. Similarly, a design situation can provide extreme values for some action effects and not for others.

Accordingly, care shall be taken to ensure that the selected short-term sea states yield the most probable maximum action effects that correspond to the target return period.

8.13.3 Long-term response analysis

A full long-term probabilistic analysis involves calculating responses to the entire suite of possible environmental conditions. Statistical analysis of these responses is then performed to predict extreme values for each action effect.

8.13.4 Design wave analysis

The methods described in 8.13.2 and 8.13.3, based on a stochastic approach, can provide extreme values for the variables of interest, but without regard to phase relationships. To predict a detailed stress distribution in the structure, however, the structure analysed shall be in equilibrium under a combination of static and dynamic actions.

One way to retain the phase information is to use a design wave (quasi-static or time-domain) approach, in which the extreme values computed from the methods above are used to identify one or more design wave. By using the design wave approach, the simultaneity of responses of global and local action effects can be accounted for.

9 Structural considerations

9.1 General

Clause 9 provides general requirements and guidance for the structural strength analysis and design of floating structures constructed in steel, while Clause 10 provides the corresponding general requirements and guidance for their fatigue analysis and design. The general requirements and conditions specified in Clauses 5 and 6 shall be fulfilled. General requirements and guidance concerning actions and global behaviour are given in Clauses 7 and 8, respectively. More specific requirements for monohulls, semi-submersibles and spars are given in Clauses 11, 12 and 13, respectively.

Structural design shall proceed on the basis of either the partial factor design format, see 9.7.3, or the working stress design (WSD) format, see 9.7.4. Background on the similarities of these two formats is given in A.9.7.1.

9.2 Representative values of actions

9.2.1 General

Representative values of actions shall be used in both the partial factor and the WSD formats. Unless specific exceptions apply, as documented within this part of ISO 19904, the representative actions specified in 9.2.2 and 9.2.3 shall apply to operating and temporary phases, respectively.

For combinations of simultaneous global and local actions, representative values may be determined based upon consideration of their joint probability of occurrence.

Where variable and environmental actions occur simultaneously, the representative values may be determined based on their joint probability distribution.

For floating structures that are designed so that they can be relocated, environmental conditions shall be established for each location envisaged and the response shall be checked for the most onerous design situation.

9.2.2 Representative values of actions for operating phases

For operating phases and for each relevant limit state, representative values of permanent, variable, environmental and accidental actions shall be as specified in Table 2.

For ALS, two conditions shall be assessed. These are denoted in Table 2 as pre-ALS and post-ALS. The two accidental limit state conditions represent the structure at the time of the ALS event and in the damaged condition respectively.

Table 2 — Representative values of actions for operating phases

Action category	Representative value				
	Limit state — Operating phases				SLS
	ULS-a	ULS-b	ALS		
pre-ALS			post-ALS		
Permanent (G)	Mean or calculated value	Mean or calculated value	Mean or calculated value	Mean or calculated value	Mean or calculated value
Variable (Q)	Mean or calculated value	Mean or calculated value	Mean or calculated value	Mean or calculated value	Mean or calculated value
Environmental (E)	$T_R = 100$ years	$T_R = 100$ years	Not applicable	$T_R = 1$ year	Specified value
Accidental (A)	Not applicable	Not applicable	$T_R = 10\,000$ years	Not applicable	Not applicable
NOTE 1 ULS-a and ULS-b are defined in 9.7.					
NOTE 2 The values specified for environmental actions (E) only apply to metocean parameters.					
NOTE 3 See 7.2 and 7.3 for definitions of mean and calculated values of permanent actions (G) and variable actions (Q), respectively.					
NOTE 4 Additional damage tolerance requirements apply to semi-submersibles — see 12.2.3.					

9.2.3 Representative values of actions for temporary phases

For temporary phases and each relevant limit state, representative values of permanent, variable and environmental actions shall be as specified in Table 3. Where specified values are adopted, they should be selected dependent upon the measures taken such that the required safety level is obtained. Such specified values should consider the actual location, season of the year, weather forecast and consequences of failure.

The formal application of the ALS may normally be ignored for temporary phases, but consideration should be given to the possibility of accidental events and their mitigation.

Table 3 — Representative values of actions for temporary phases

Action category	Representative value		
	Limit state — Temporary phases		
	ULS-a	ULS-b	SLS
Permanent (<i>G</i>)	Mean or calculated value	Mean or calculated value	Mean or calculated value
Variable (<i>Q</i>)	Mean or calculated value	Mean or calculated value	Mean or calculated value
Environmental (<i>E</i>)	Specified value	Specified value	Specified value
NOTE 1 ULS-a and ULS-b are defined in 9.7.			
NOTE 2 The values specified for environmental actions (<i>E</i>) only apply to metocean parameters.			

The required safety level for any temporary phase should be specified by the owner, based on the requirements of any relevant national regulations, or be consistent with those specified for operating phases in Table 2. For temporary phases where progressive collapse does not involve risk of life, injury to personnel, or environmental consequences, environmental actions with a shorter return period than that specified in Table 3 may be utilized.

9.2.4 Actions at interfaces

Structural analysis shall include consideration of actions occurring at interfaces of all relevant systems and components. Such actions can result, for example, from:

- topsides systems (including drilling and production),
- topsides components (including helidecks and accommodation blocks),
- mooring systems, and
- riser systems.

Individual actions at interfaces shall be combined in a logical manner.

9.3 Design scantlings

The definition of design scantlings for a floating structure is as follows.

a) When assessing *global* hull girder properties:

- for strength design, design scantlings shall be defined as the as-built scantlings, or those intended for such purposes, with 50 % of corrosion additions/allowances deducted;
- for fatigue design, design scantlings shall be defined as the as-built scantlings, or those intended for such purposes, with 25 % of corrosion additions/allowances deducted.

b) When assessing *local* properties (e.g. plates, stiffeners, girders):

- for strength design, design scantlings shall be defined as the as-built scantlings, or those intended for such purposes, with the full corrosion additions/allowances deducted;
- for fatigue design, design scantlings shall be defined as the as-built scantlings, or those intended for such purposes, with 50 % of corrosion additions/allowances deducted.

The actual corrosion experienced can be dependent on the effectiveness of the applied corrosion protection system (see 9.10), but the corrosion additions/allowances shall, as a minimum, be in compliance with the requirements of an RCS or equivalent.

9.4 Modelling

9.4.1 General

Linear elastic structural models should normally be used to determine response for ULS design checks. Non-linear structural models may be used for ULS checks, assessment of ALS events and ALS checks. See 9.5.3.2 and 9.5.3.3 for ULS and ALS analysis, respectively.

Space frame structures consisting of slender components should be analysed using a 3-D frame analysis to calculate internal component forces and moments. The effects of joint eccentricity and flexibility, where significant, should be accounted for.

Structures composed of large-volume components such as plate and shell structures should be analysed using three-dimensional shell models, in combination with frame models as appropriate. Where plate and/or shell panel buckling can reduce cross-sectional effectiveness, this shall be reflected in the model. When the accuracy of deflection calculations is important, the effect of shear lag on cross-sectional stiffness shall be incorporated in the model.

The structural response of a floating platform can generally be considered as being divided into two broad categories:

- global response, which requires global structural models that simulate the effects of global actions on the structure, evaluate the structural response of the primary structure and identify controlling load cases for local analysis models;
- local response, which normally requires local structural models that simulate the effect on the structure of local actions such as hydrostatic pressures, tank pressures and concentrated actions.

Specific requirements and guidance for global and local models are included in 9.4.2 and 9.4.3, respectively. The model extent should, however, be defined such that boundary conditions and actions can be imposed at well-defined, or well-understood, interfaces. Appropriate extrapolation techniques should be used to provide information of stress levels at element boundaries.

Structural components that participate in a load path shall be explicitly modelled. The level of modelling detail is dependent on the intended purpose of the particular component in a model. Models should be checked to ensure that the stiffness of the structure is adequately simulated and that they accurately identify the controlling design situation. Particular attention should be given to the structural evaluation of areas surrounding critical interfaces and abrupt changes of section.

For local structures that can be significantly affected by global structural stiffness and/or response (e.g. topsides modules welded to a monohull) or conversely, in the case where local structures significantly affect the global stiffness and/or response, such effects shall be adequately considered when developing the structural analytical model. A combined global or local structural model can be necessary. See also 9.4.3.

Assumptions upon which the model is based shall be well-documented.

9.4.2 Global models

Global models should generally include the entire floating structure, for which a restraint system is normally required.

Global models can comprise equivalent beams, space frame models or combined shell element/beam element models, as appropriate. Models should accurately represent the global stiffness of the floating structure and the relative stiffness of the major structural components.

The actions on floating structure global models shall be in equilibrium.

9.4.3 Local models

Actions applied to local models shall be derived from consideration of global model responses and local actions resisted by the structure. Where local structural response is controlled by local actions alone, the application of global analysis actions may be omitted.

Global action effects on local models shall be accounted for by

- integration of the local model into the global model, or
- mapping of actions (or responses) from the global model to the local model (sub-modelling) by the application of, for example, displacement or force boundary conditions obtained from the global analysis, or
- superimposing responses from the global model on the local model responses.

The number of design situations to be evaluated by local models can be less than the full set of situations where a relevant screening process has been performed.

Shell (plate) or volume (solid) elements shall be used for all areas of interest of local models when determining the response of structural components critical to the integrity of a floating structure. Volume (solid) elements shall be used for highly detailed local models in which through-thickness variations in stress are important. In such cases, the size of the elements should normally be of the order of the plate thickness.

9.4.4 Response evaluation

The effects of factored actions derived from an analysis shall be used to check structural adequacy. The following specific limit states are usually evaluated:

- yielding (ULS);
- global and local buckling instabilities (ULS), and
- fatigue failure (FLS), see Clause 10.

Artificially high (or low) stress gradients can occur due to modelling simplifications, typical examples of which are listed in A.9.4.4. The model should not normally be considered as acceptable at such locations and another model should be developed to analyse such locations where necessary.

ULS checks typically consider average stress levels over panels where buckling can occur. However, for panels with large stress gradients, the effect of the gradient shall be considered in the buckling evaluation. When evaluating buckling strength, mid-plane (membrane) element stress data shall be used. The effect of pressure on such stresses shall be accounted for, as appropriate.

9.4.5 Model verification

Model verification shall be performed throughout the structure's life cycle. Such verification falls into two categories:

- a) quantitative checks;
- b) qualitative checks based on engineering judgement and experience.

Quantitative checks should verify that the model is consistent with the actual structure, including

- geometry,
- material properties,

- section properties,
- actions, and
- boundary conditions.

Displacements, restoring forces and action sums should be used to verify modelling of the system. Reactions at constrained boundaries should be used to confirm accurate application of actions and to verify system balance. When hydrodynamic actions are mapped onto the structure, global balancing of pressure, inertia and restoring forces shall be verified.

When local models are used to evaluate structural response for design situations identified from global models, force summations at local model boundaries in the global model should be used to verify accurate action transfer. Model strategy shall be reviewed in the qualitative check based on experience in structural modelling.

Analysis results shall be demonstrated to be consistent with expectations of sound engineering judgement and previous experience. Results that deviate from expectations should be investigated to understand the discrepancy.

The final (as-built) drawings for a structural component shall be reviewed to ensure they accurately reflect the structural model geometry. The effects of deviations from the analysis model shall be evaluated.

9.5 Structural analysis

9.5.1 General principles

Action effects shall be determined by recognized methods that take adequate account of the temporal and spatial variations of the actions, the motions of the structure and the limit state to be checked. General principles associated with this process are the following.

- a) The floating structure shall be analysed for all governing design situations using appropriate computational methods.
- b) Analysis models and techniques shall be selected that adequately represent the simultaneous global and local actions and provide the action effects needed for the assessment of the different limit states.
- c) Analysis models shall adequately describe the relevant properties of actions and structural stiffness, and shall satisfactorily account for the local and system effects of time dependency, damping and inertia.
- d) Non-linear and dynamic effects associated with actions and structural response shall be accounted for where relevant.
- e) If model uncertainties are particularly high, conservative models shall be selected. Normal uncertainties in the analysis model are expected to be taken care of by the partial action and resistance factors or safety factors.
- f) Where geometric deviations/imperfections have a significant effect on safety, conservative geometric parameters shall be used. Initial deformations assumed in design should be consistent with tolerances used in construction, see 9.11.
- g) The relevance of changes to a design as a result of alterations in design parameters and assumptions throughout the life cycle of the structure, including the design phase (for example, in respect to weight and centre of gravity estimates from weight control, changes in structural scantlings, positioning of openings, etc.) shall be assessed, as necessary.

9.5.2 Linear analysis

A linear elastic procedure shall normally be considered as appropriate when conducting an analysis for a ULS evaluation.

For ALS, simplified linear methods may be used. However, because the range of applicability of linear methods to ALS assessment is normally limited, their use in such cases should be justified.

Consideration shall be given in the structural evaluation to amplification of bending response resulting from axial forces caused by, for example, rigid body motions or elastic deformations.

9.5.3 Non-linear analysis

9.5.3.1 General

Non-linear analysis may be applied to determine the ultimate capacity of structural components, substructure or the complete structure.

A non-linear analysis should include appropriate models for all significant non-linear effects, including elastoplastic behaviour, large deflections and criteria for rupture. Geometrical imperfections and residual stresses should be modelled when they have a significant effect on the structural response, such as for plating subjected to compression or tension and all compressed components susceptible to buckling. The methods and computer software adopted to execute non-linear analysis should be verified by comparison with test results, observed full-scale structural behaviour, known analytical solutions, or other well-documented computer software solutions.

When using non-linear analytical models, the effects of action history shall be addressed. It shall be demonstrated that the least favourable action history has been used.

When exploiting a non-linear finite element analysis, appropriate consideration shall be exercised in choosing finite element types and meshes, and applying boundary conditions and restraints.

Where non-linear analysis is used to verify a design and the determined failure modes involve plastic hinge mechanisms, the structure shall be shown to have sufficient ductility to develop such failure mechanisms, so that no large plastic deformations or failures occur as a result of repeated yielding.

For structural components subjected to cyclic or repetitive actions, such actions shall be demonstrated not to lead to low-cycle fatigue failure, cyclic incremental collapse or other failure modes, e.g. shakedown.

9.5.3.2 ULS analysis

If a linear elastic global analysis is used to determine action effects for ULS checks, an examination of shakedown may be omitted.

When non-linear analysis is used to check design, significant departures from the requirements of traditional design approaches shall be carefully and clearly justified.

9.5.3.3 ALS analysis

Both non-linear analysis and simplified methods may be used to assess the response of structures or their components following an accidental or abnormal event.

Non-linear analysis may be deployed to determine the response of structures or their components to accidental actions in a manner similar to that applicable to intact structures. Such analysis and methods may also be used to assess the damaged condition. In such cases, their applicability should be demonstrated when the effects of the accidental actions have not first been assessed using the same analysis and the results thereof retained as the starting point of the analysis of the damaged condition.

The use of simplified non-linear analysis methods to determine the effects of accidental actions can normally be justified on the basis of the large uncertainties associated with such actions. Such methods should be based on plastic hinge or yield-line mechanisms that account as necessary for in-plane behaviour. They should recognize the possibility of premature rupture.

9.6 Structural strength

9.6.1 Representative strength values

Structural design checks shall proceed using representative values of structural strength.

The representative value of strength shall equate to a characteristic value, nominal value or other rationally determined value. A characteristic value shall be determined on the basis of reliable data and appropriate statistical techniques using recognized methods of testing.

If the representative strength reflects great uncertainty or cannot be determined with reasonable accuracy, tests shall be carried out to provide results from which a representative value can be rationally derived.

When evaluating the resistance of structural cross-sections, the following items should be among those taken into consideration:

- the strength of the net section at cut-outs and openings;
- shear lag effects;
- buckling strength including shear buckling;
- effect of buckling on cross-sectional stiffness.

For ULS, SLS and ALS conditions, the characteristic strength value shall normally be the 5th percentile of test results.

9.6.2 Yield strength

The measured value of yield strength from a tensile test shall be taken to coincide with the smallest of

- minimum upper yield stress,
- yield strength at 0,2 % offset, and
- 83,3 % of the minimum tensile strength

The representative value of yield strength may be taken as the nominal value from the requirements of RCS rules or equivalent, or the nominal value taken from the standard to which the material is specified. The results of tensile tests shall be used to confirm that the material is consistent with the requirements of its standard or specification. Tensile tests shall be conducted in accordance with the standard referenced in the material specification.

Shear yield strength should normally be taken as $(1/\sqrt{3})$ times the yield strength.

9.6.3 Buckling strength

Buckling strength shall be based upon an RCS or equivalent code formulation.

When a state of stress cannot be defined by a single reference stress, the code formulation shall include appropriate interaction formulae.

The design format utilized for structural members in compression shall take account of the consideration that local or overall elastic buckling can occur before the component reaches its design strength.

9.7 Design checks

9.7.1 General

Design checks shall be undertaken using either the partial factor design format, 9.7.3, or the WSD format, 9.7.4. In both cases, it shall be satisfactorily demonstrated that the design action effects (resulting from factored actions in the case of the partial factor format) do not exceed the design resistance criteria (including the appropriate resistance or utilization factors) for the limit state under consideration. Structural design may also be undertaken using reliability-based methods, 9.7.5. Both the partial factor and the WSD formats are based upon the assumption that design values for responses and resistances are calculated separately. In cases where non-linear analysis is used and responses and resistances are calculated simultaneously, care should be taken to ensure that equivalent levels of safety to those implicit in this part of ISO 19904 are obtained.

When considering different modes of operation for a floating structure, all realistic variations in action combinations shall be determined to ensure the maximum (or minimum, if more onerous) action effects, whether alone or in combination, are identified.

This part of ISO 19904 provides partial safety factors exclusively for structures with exposure levels equal to L1 type.

9.7.2 SLS deflection limits

When conducting the SLS checks described in 9.7.3 and 9.7.4, the resulting deflections shall be checked for acceptability. A.9.7.2 provides guidance for deflection limits for both main load carrying components and non-main load carrying components.

9.7.3 Partial factor design format

9.7.3.1 General

The principles governing application of the partial factor design format to structural design are established in ISO 19900.

Design checking shall be achieved by demonstrating that design values of action effects resulting from factoring the actions do not exceed the design value of the resistance variable or model being addressed for the limit state under consideration. The partial action factors required for design checks are presented in 9.7.3.2, and the partial resistance and/or material factors in 9.7.3.3.

9.7.3.2 Partial action factors

In Table 4, the partial action factors (γ_f) applicable to the partial factor design format are listed for each limit state and for each combination of action categories to be considered in a design check.

Where a linear analysis is adopted for a ULS assessment as described in 9.5.2, three options are available for application of the partial action factors that should normally produce the same outcome:

- a) application of the partial action factors given in Table 4 to the actions prior to analysis following which the action effects are combined;
- b) application of the partial action factors given in Table 4 to the actions following which the factored actions are combined and then analysed to produce the relevant action effects;
- c) analysis of each unfactored action resulting in action effects that are combined using the factors given in Table 4.

Table 4 — Partial action factors (γ_f) and combinations

Limit state	Partial action factor γ_f				
	Action category				
	Permanent (G)	Variable (Q)	Environmental (E)	Repetitive (R)	Accidental (A)
ULS-a	1,3	1,3	0,7	—	—
ULS-b	1,0	1,0	1,3	—	—
SLS	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	—
Pre-ALS	1,0	1,0	—	—	1,0
Post-ALS	1,0	1,0	1,0	—	—

In the ULS-a condition, an action factor of 1,0 shall be used for the permanent action, the variable action, or both, where this gives a more unfavourable combined action effect than 1,3.

The action factor for permanent actions in ULS-a may be reduced from 1,3 to 1,2 if the action and action effects are determined with great accuracy (for example, external hydrostatic fluid pressures acting on a rigid body).

For ULS, two combinations of actions shall be considered: one to reflect gravitational action-dominated conditions; the other to reflect environmental action-dominated conditions. In Table 4, these two combinations are denoted ULS-a and ULS-b, respectively.

For ALS, two conditions shall be assessed. These are denoted in Table 4 as pre-ALS and post-ALS. The two accidental limit state conditions represent the structure at the time of the ALS event, and in the damaged condition, respectively.

The partial action factors stated in Table 4 for the pre-ALS condition apply to values of accidental event magnitudes that equate to a return period of the accidental event of 10 000 years (i.e. probability of exceedance = 10^{-4}). If the return period exceeds 10 000 years, in some circumstances (such as to ensure a degree of robustness exists in the event of the accidental event occurring), it can be appropriate to combine the accidental event with a feasible environmental event such that the return period of the combined event on a joint probability basis is 10 000 years.

9.7.3.3 Partial resistance and material factors

The partial resistance and material factors shall take appropriate account of the uncertainties associated with modelling resistances, the geometry of a structure and material properties. The design value of component or structure strength, R_d , shall be determined from Equation (6).

$$R_d = \frac{R_k}{\gamma_r} \quad (6)$$

where

R_k is the representative value of component or structure strength;

γ_r is the partial resistance factor.

For components with strength formulations in which the partial resistance factor applies to material strength only, the design value of material strength, r_d , shall be determined from Equation (7)

$$r_d = \frac{r_k}{\gamma_m} \tag{7}$$

where

r_k is the representative value of material strength;

γ_m is the partial material factor.

For ULS conditions in relation to steel structures, neither the partial resistance factor, γ_f , nor the partial material factor, γ_m , shall normally be taken as being less than 1,15. Where the resistance concerns bolted connections and fillet and partial penetration welds, this minimum factor should be increased to 1,30. Standards adopted for establishing structural strength (see 9.6) could require increased partial resistance factors. In such cases, these increased factors shall be used instead of the minimum factors of 1,15 and 1,30, as appropriate.

For SLS and ALS conditions, the partial resistance and/or material factors shall be 1,0.

9.7.4 Working stress design format

9.7.4.1 General

The WSD format is an approach whereby a design value of combined action effects is directly compared with the corresponding design value of strength. In this design format, the design values of both action effects and strengths coincide with their representative values.

In the design check, the acceptability of a comparison between design values of the action effects and of the strength is conditional upon the action effect being less than the design strength reduced by a safety factor greater than unity, or the design strength multiplied by a fraction less than unity.

9.7.4.2 Action combination factors

In Table 5, the action combination factors applicable to the WSD format are listed for each limit state and for each combination of action categories to be considered in a design check.

Table 5 — Action combination factors

Limit state	Action combination factor				
	Action category				
	Permanent (G)	Variable (Q)	Environmental (E)	Repetitive (R)	Accidental (A)
ULS-a	1,0	1,0	—	—	—
ULS-b	1,0	1,0	1,0	—	—
SLS	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	—
Pre-ALS	1,0	1,0	—	—	1,0
Post-ALS	1,0	1,0	1,0	—	—

Design values of actions shall be combined in the most unfavourable manner, providing that the combination is physically feasible and permitted according to the design specification.

For ULS, two action combinations shall be considered: one to reflect the structure located in a calm sea with responses associated with static actions only; the other to reflect the structure subjected to extreme environmental actions combined with relevant static actions. In Table 5, these combinations are denoted ULS-a and ULS-b, respectively.

For ALS, two conditions shall be assessed. These are denoted in Table 5 as pre-ALS and post-ALS. These ALS conditions represent the structure at the time of the accidental event, and in the damaged condition following the accidental event, respectively.

The action factors stated in Table 5 for the pre-ALS condition apply to values of accidental event magnitudes that equate to a return period of the accidental event of 10 000 years (i.e. probability of exceedance = 10^{-4}). If the return period exceeds 10 000 years, in some circumstances (such as to ensure a degree of robustness exists in the event of the accidental event occurring), it can be appropriate to combine the accidental event with a feasible environmental event such that the return period of the combined event on a joint probability basis is 10 000 years.

9.7.4.3 Acceptable safety factors and allowable utilization factors

In the design check, the acceptability of a comparison between design values of the action effects and of the strength is conditional upon the action effect (F_d) being less than the design strength (R_d) reduced by a safety factor greater than unity (C_{SF}), or the design strength (R_d) multiplied by a fraction less than unity (η). Thus, the design check may be expressed by Equation (8):

$$F_d \leq \frac{R_d}{C_{SF}} \quad (8)$$

or, alternatively, multiplied by an allowable utilization factor less than unity:

$$F_d \leq \eta R_d$$

In this manner, the safety margin is expressed by a single safety factor ($1/\eta = C_{SF}$) applied to the design value of strength (R_d) for each design check.

Safety factors (C_{SF}) or allowable utilization factors (η) stated in RCS rules or equivalent shall be used for the ULS condition.

For both the SLS and ALS, the safety factor or allowable utilization factor shall be taken as unity.

9.7.5 Reliability-based methods

Structural reliability analysis may be used to demonstrate that a satisfactory level of reliability is achieved for a particular design solution. For such an application, the governing basic variables shall be described by appropriate probability distributions, and random process theory shall be utilized to estimate the probability of occurrence of governing design situations.

The following principles shall be applied when performing a structural reliability analysis.

- a) Structural reliability analysis shall not replace good engineering judgement.
- b) When more than one failure state (limit state function) governs the reliability of a structural component, or when more than one component constitutes the structure being analysed, the corresponding system reliability should be evaluated, in addition to the component reliabilities.
- c) When relevant, consideration shall be given to time-dependent degradation of the resistance of the structure.

- d) To the extent possible, minimum target reliabilities should be established based upon calibration against well-established cases that are known to have adequate safety.
- e) Target reliabilities shall be commensurate with the consequence of failure.
- f) The conduct of reliability analyses shall include sensitivity considerations with respect to important variables.

9.8 Special design issues

9.8.1 General

The special design topics covered in this subclause primarily address local strength issues. They can be dealt with variously as ULS, SLS and ALS. The designer, in conjunction with the regulator (where one exists), shall be responsible for allocating each of these topics to the appropriate limit state category.

Some of these topics relate to events with an annual probability of exceedance of the order of 10^{-4} , for which representative values for design variables are not easy to determine. In such cases, it can be advantageous to use risk assessment as a means of both assessing the event and mitigating the consequences of the event.

9.8.2 Slamming

In the case of monohulls, slamming effects shall be taken into account in the design of the bow (including bow flare, bow side and forward bottom), turret and stern. Slam effects can be determined in accordance with RCS or equivalent procedures. The designer shall ensure that these procedures reflect state-of-the-art understanding of the slamming phenomenon and the magnitude of its effects for a particular floating structure, draught and environment, including the lack of forward speed. Slam impulses can also produce dynamic excitation (whipping) and vibration (springing) of the hull that generally amplify the global bending moments and shear forces.

For slamming on the hulls of semi-submersibles and spars, some of the same principles as for monohulls apply.

Slamming on slender components in the splash zone is discussed in 7.5.5.4.

9.8.3 Green water

Green water effects can be determined in accordance with RCS or equivalent procedures. The designer shall ensure that these procedures reflect state-of-the-art understanding of the green water phenomenon and the magnitude of its effects for a particular floating structure, draught and environment, including the lack of forward speed, see 11.2.4.

9.8.4 Sloshing

Sloshing analysis shall be performed for affected tanks of floating structures as necessary, see 7.6.2. Such analysis and design may be performed in accordance with RCS or equivalent requirements and should normally include non-linear effects.

9.8.5 Wave impact on elevated deck

Direct wave impact on an elevated deck should be avoided by appropriate design of the air gap, see 8.10. Localized wave impact may be permitted, provided that such effects have been properly accounted for in the design, both locally and globally.

9.8.6 Local structure and components

The following local structure and components and their integration with the main hull structure require particular attention with respect to local strength, fatigue and/or wear requirements and shall be checked to ensure satisfactory performance.

- a) Structure supporting mooring system components such as fairleads, winches, etc. This structure shall withstand, as a minimum, the action effects corresponding to a mooring line loaded to its minimum breaking strength.
- b) Scantlings immediately surrounding large openings, especially turret openings, moonpools, etc. At such openings, continuity of primary longitudinal structural components shall be maintained as far as practicable, and reductions in hull section modulus shall be minimized and compensated for.
- c) Deck support structure for process and other equipment, including the connections to the hull frame to allow for hull deflections.
- d) Riser termination and supporting structure.
- e) Scantlings associated with structural discontinuities and major changes of cross-section.
- f) Structure supporting attachments to yoke-moored monohulls and external turrets.
- g) Breakwaters.
- h) Thickness of internal structure in locations susceptible to excessive corrosion.
- i) Proportions of built-up components shall comply with established standards for buckling strength.
- j) Watertight tank quadrants.
- k) Details of the ends and intersections of components and associated brackets.
- l) Shape and location of air, drainage and lightening holes.
- m) Shape and reinforcement of slots and cut-outs for internals.
- n) Elimination or closing of weld scallops associated with butt welds.
- o) Toes of "softening" bracket used to reduce the effects of abrupt changes of section or structural discontinuities.
- p) Boat landing, mooring and fendering systems. The combined fender/structural system should be capable of absorbing the energy of boat impact actions without overstressing the hull structure.
- q) Forecastle.
- r) Process and utility water intakes and outlets.

Operating requirements, as well as installation, maintenance and inspection needs, shall determine the number and location of access platforms, walkways and stairways.

9.9 Material

9.9.1 General

Material specifications shall be prepared for all structural materials intended for use in the construction of a floating structure. Such materials shall be suitable for their intended purpose and have adequate properties in all relevant design situations.

9.9.2 Material selection

When selecting a material, the following shall be taken into account:

- a) consequences of failure;
- b) degree of redundancy;
- c) presence of stress concentrations;
- d) accuracy of analytical stress predictability;
- e) susceptibility to fatigue actions;
- f) electrolytic (galvanic) corrosion generally and between different materials;
- g) minimum water and/or air temperature.

When determining criteria appropriate to material grade selection, adequate consideration shall be given to all relevant phases in the life cycle of the floating structure. In this connection, there can be conditions and criteria, other than those from the in-service operational phase, that govern the design requirements in respect to the selection of material. Such criteria can, for example, be design temperature and/or stress levels during marine operations.

When assessing the properties relevant to such materials, the following at least shall be among those considered:

- chemical composition;
- strength (first yield and ultimate);
- ductility;
- toughness (resistance to unstable fracture);
- thickness-dependence;
- weldability;
- temperature-dependent properties;
- fire resistance;
- corrosion resistance;
- mechanical resistance;
- chemical resistance.

Steel properties shall comply either with the requirements of an RCS or equivalent, or with the design class (DC) approach presented in ISO 19902.

9.9.3 Through-thickness tension

Transmission of tensile action effects through the thickness of a plate should be avoided as far as practicable, particularly in primary structural components. In cases where such actions cannot be avoided, the specification for the material shall include guaranteed through-thickness properties.

9.9.4 Aluminium substructures

Aluminium alloys may be used in the construction of structural components of floating structures. Such alloys shall be suitable for application in marine environments.

In addition to the general requirements on material selection given in 9.9.2, the following aspects shall be given particular attention in consideration of the appropriate grade of material in the design of aluminium structural arrangements:

- the influence of heat treatment in respect to the evaluation of representative structural strengths;
- possible reductions in material strength at, or adjacent to, welded connections;
- S-N data appropriate to aluminium structural details;
- heat-resistant properties.

9.10 Corrosion protection of steel

The structural arrangement shall be adequately protected against corrosion. The method of protection shall be suitable for its intended position and purpose.

External surfaces located in the region that is most severely exposed to wave action should be protected against corrosion by systems that are able to withstand the environment in this zone. If there is limited possibility to adjust the draught of the floating structure to carry out external inspection, maintenance and repair, a corrosion allowance should normally be included as a part of this system.

The system for corrosion protection of surfaces that are submerged under seawater (external surfaces, ballast tanks, etc.) should normally include a CP system with the possible addition of a suitable protective coating system.

Excessive levels of CP should be avoided to minimize the possibility of disbondment of coatings and the possibility of hydrogen absorption, leading to hydrogen-assisted cracking or weld heat-affected zones.

The corrosion protection philosophy (e.g. full corrosion protection throughout the lifetime of the floating structure, corrosion thickness allowance, or a combination of both) shall be fully consistent with the assumptions and criteria utilized in the assessment of minimum scantlings.

For monitoring of corrosion protection systems, see 18.5.2.6.

The corrosion protection systems utilized for monohull and semi-submersible structures should, as a minimum, comply with the requirements of an RCS or equivalent.

9.11 Fabrication and construction

9.11.1 General

General structural steel fabrication should be undertaken in accordance with the rules of an RCS or equivalent. Fabrication of tubular structures should be undertaken in accordance with ISO 19902:—, Clause 20.

The standard utilized as the basis for fabrication, particularly with regard to local and global tolerances, shall be consistent with the requirements of the standard utilized for the design of the structure.

In-built deformations resulting from standard shipyard fabrication sequences are normally not included in the design evaluation. However, when large structural components are fabricated separately and assembled, the significance of the validity of neglecting these in-built stresses should be evaluated.

Structural welding shall be undertaken by properly qualified personnel utilizing approved weld consumables.

9.11.2 Inspection and testing during fabrication and construction

Quality control, inspection and testing shall be performed to ensure compliance with the fabrication specifications. Relevant consideration shall be given to the importance of structural connections when determining the extent of the quality control, inspection and testing to be performed.

Inspection procedures shall ensure that fabrication, including any repairs, is undertaken in compliance with drawings, specifications and procedures.

Inspection undertaken during fabrication shall, as a minimum, include inspection of the following:

- qualification and acceptance of fabrication procedures;
- qualification and acceptance of relevant personnel;
- material quality;
- dimensional control (including alignment);
- preparatory work (e.g. assembly and fit-up);
- welding;
- a non-destructive test (NDT);
- repairs;
- corrosion protection systems.

9.12 Marine operations

All marine operations shall, as far as practicable, be based upon well-proven principles, techniques, systems and equipment, and shall be undertaken by qualified, competent personnel possessing relevant experience.

Analysis of the structure in the floating condition, or during launching, upending and in other transportation/transit modes, shall be performed in accordance with this part of ISO 19904, and/or ISO 19902:—, Clauses 12 and 22, as applicable. Reference should also be made to ISO 19901-6^[155].

9.13 Topsides/hull interface

In general, the design of the topsides structural arrangements shall follow the same principles as for the hull structure design. The limit states described in 6.3 shall be utilized considering site-specific environmental conditions.

Topsides structural design shall include, but not be limited to, consideration of the following:

- relative deflections in all three translation directions (e.g. hull deflections acting on topsides structure and supports);
- built-in deflections from fabrication tolerances at hull/topsides interface;
- the full operational loading range of the item being considered (e.g. full/empty combinations of tanks/pressure vessels);
- inertia components (e.g. caused by global rigid body motion);
- maximum angles of inclination (for both the intact and damaged conditions);

- solid water action effects (green water and wave slam);
- wind action effects;
- sloshing effects (partially filled tanks);
- local temperature effects (e.g. heat emissions from flaring);
- accidental action effects (e.g. helicopter crash scenarios, fire and blast, dropped, sliding and swinging objects);
- local dynamic effects (e.g. due to rigid body motions, machinery system-induced vibrations or vortex shedding);
- second-order bending effects ($P-\Delta$ effects).

For local, static structural design, the representative value of the wind velocity should be based upon a wind gust velocity with an averaging period not exceeding 3 s.

10 Fatigue analysis and design

10.1 General

Clause 10 provides general requirements and guidance for the FLS assessment of floating structures constructed in steel. Special FLS issues specifically concerned with monohulls, semi-submersibles and spars are dealt with in Clauses 11, 12 and 13, respectively. Fatigue of mooring systems and their points of attachment to floating structures are covered in ISO 19901-7. Fatigue requirements in relation to structures converted and/or reused are addressed in Clause 14.

Fatigue analysis and design can be performed using four main methods, normally described as

- a) deterministic,
- b) semi-probabilistic,
- c) (linearized) spectral analysis, and
- d) (non-linear) time domain analysis.

Of the four methods, the spectral method is the most relevant for floating structures. It represents the best compromise between rigour, accuracy and computational resources. However, where non-linearities dominate, it is usually necessary to resort to time domain methods for some of the critical cases and determine fatigue damage assessments from statistical consideration of a number of realisations of these simulations. In such cases, judicious application of time domain methods can allow the development of linear empirical results that can be incorporated into a spectral method.

Fatigue analysis shall proceed as a series of spectral fatigue analyses, linearized as necessary to cover a range of floating structure draughts, operating scenarios and (possibly non-linearly determined) mean offsets. Any resonant, rigid body responses shall be appropriately accounted for in the structure's motion analysis. Certain parts of the structure subject to, for example, slamming, sloshing and equipment vibrations, can require special consideration of dynamic and/or non-linear effects (possibly involving time domain analysis). Global model tests can also help in this respect.

Fatigue testing of full- or large-scale models may be used in lieu of an analytical fatigue assessment, provided it is fully documented as being suitable for such purposes.

Fatigue analysis and design procedures found in RCS requirements or equivalent may be used in place of the approach outlined here. Such alternative approaches should also be able to account for fatigue damage that arises from prior service and during transportation/transit and single- and/or multi-field fixed site deployment of a floating structure, as appropriate.

Where fatigue is assessed for prior service and an inspection history is available, previous assessments should be updated based on the findings of the inspections and consideration of whether defects have arisen, see 14.4.

10.2 Fatigue damage design safety factors

Minimum fatigue damage design safety factors that should be applied to the design service life are defined in Table 6. The factors are based upon a consideration of the following:

- the consequence of failure;
- accessibility for inspection and repair;
- the ability to predict fatigue damage.

Table 6 — Fatigue damage design safety factors

Consequence of failure	Fatigue damage design safety factor		
	Degree of accessibility for inspection and repair		
	Not accessible	Underwater access	Dry access
Substantial	10,0	5,0	2,0
Non-substantial	5,0	2,0	1,0

In Table 6, dry access refers to fatigue sensitive locations where the possibility for close-up detailed inspection and repair in a dry and clean condition exists. If either of these conditions is not fulfilled, the fatigue damage design safety factor shall be that appropriate for underwater access or not accessible. Consideration should be given to weather and the anticipated effects on operations in determining the accessibility of areas for inspection and repair.

When assessing the consequence of failure, consideration should be given to both structural effects and economic effects, particularly when a common type of detail subjected to similar action effects is used extensively throughout the structure (e.g. downtime, cost of repair).

Reductions in the factors presented in Table 6 may be used, provided an appropriate in-service inspection strategy is adopted.

Where crack propagation is likely from a location with a particular degree of accessibility to a location with a more onerous degree of accessibility, the latter shall dictate the choice of fatigue damage design safety factor.

Where adjustment in draught provides satisfactory accessibility for inspection and repair, a fatigue damage design safety factor appropriate to dry inspection may be used.

Whether the partial factor design format or WSD format is adopted, all action factors and material and/or resistance factors are equal to 1,0.

10.3 Outline of approach

For each critical detail or location, four main steps shall be performed as part of a spectral fatigue analysis:

- identification of a range of operating conditions to which the structure can be exposed throughout its planned service life (e.g. tank filling, cargo oil, ballast), and a corresponding representative set of modelling configurations (i.e. idealized structural models) which, when subjected to a set of linearized spectral analyses, provides an acceptable representation of the repetitive actions applied to the structure;
- evaluation of the repetitive action effects by determination of distributions of stress ranges for each modelling configuration;
- determination of fatigue resistance;
- calculation of damage accumulation and fatigue life.

A detailed evaluation of repetitive action effects normally involves a number of steps. These are listed below and described further in 10.4 to 10.11. Some of these steps are normally performed in connection with some other essential aspects of the floating structure design process. Since design is generally performed as a series of parallel tasks, some of these steps can be based on suitably conservative approximations to anticipated conclusions of other design tasks.

- a) Select environmental data.
- b) Identify representative operating conditions that contribute to, or strongly influence, the assessment of repetitive action effects (draughts, tank filling and ballast/cargo distribution arrangements, with/without attendant vessel or mooring/off-loading arrangement, etc.) throughout the floating structure's design service life.
- c) Use structural modelling of the floating structure to create representative modelling configurations.
- d) Identify discrete fatigue design sea states (i.e. discretization of the wave scatter diagram plus associated wind and current).
- e) Assess wind, current and slow drift to determine floating structure offsets and headings. Fatigue of the hull structure, particularly the side-shell structure, can be sensitive to heading and should be assessed as necessary.
- f) Determine motion response amplitude operators (RAOs) for each of the combinations identified in e). These analyses determine frequency-dependent transfer functions of sectional forces and bending moments, or stresses.
- g) Associate each fatigue design sea state with one modelling configuration to define one fatigue design situation.
- h) Apply sectional action effects to determine fatigue stress ranges in hull details. This involves developing detailed models of a structure from which nominal stress transfer functions can be deduced and for which stress concentration factors (SCFs) can be determined. Simplifications used to transfer global actions to detailed structural models shall be adequate and shall not neglect important fatigue loading mechanisms.
 - i) For each detail, determine SCFs for each component of stress, i.e. axial, in-plane and out-of-plane.
 - j) Determine stress range probability distributions.
 - k) Calculate fatigue damage using appropriate S-N curves for each fatigue design situation.
 - l) Multiply the calculated fatigue damage by the probability of occurrence of step g).
 - m) Sum all weighted fatigue damage from step l) over all the fatigue design situations of step g).
 - n) Determine in-place fatigue life as the inverse of the cumulative fatigue damage ratio.

10.4 Environmental data

Wave data shall be provided in the form of a site-specific wave scatter diagram supplemented by the long-term distributions of wave direction and, possibly, wave spreading around a mean direction. Wind and current data shall be provided on a joint distribution basis, where available, to assess structure heading, in particular for monohulls. For conceptual design, where site-specific data are not available, other sources of data may be used.

10.5 Structural modelling

Several levels of structural modelling should normally be performed. 3-D structural modelling can be required to investigate global response and to determine internal forces in the main structural components. Where such investigations are necessary, structural representation may be based on relatively crude models, with relatively large elements used to model hydrodynamic actions.

The internal forces from less detailed models are transferred to more detailed models to determine nominal stresses. Very refined modelling is necessary to derive geometric stresses or, more generally, SCFs, in all cases where RCS rules do not provide standardized solutions. The SCFs shall include all stress-raising effects associated with the geometry, except the local (microscopic) weld notch effect, which is included in the S-N curve. Different SCFs can apply under axial forces, and in-plane and out-of-plane bending moments. Shear and torsional effects may generally be neglected for slender space frame structures. For angle-stiffened plate structures, in-plane bending is precluded, but coupled torsional or tripping effects can be important.

When structural modelling at various levels of detail is used, and data are transferred from one model to another, the validity and consistency of the models and the data transfer shall be checked and documented.

Such modelling shall be performed using a suitable FE analysis package. General requirements for modelling are found in 9.4.1 with specific requirements for global and local models given in 9.4.2 and 9.4.3, respectively.

For new-build structures, design scantlings are as defined in 9.3.

10.6 Hydrostatic analyses

Hydrostatic analysis shall be conducted for a sufficient number of still-water conditions (including the effect of cargo and ballast tank filling) to ensure adequate information is available on hydrostatic stiffness for input to dynamic analyses. Hydrostatic analyses shall also be conducted on different draughts, for assessment of wave pressure effects on intermittently submerged panels below and above mean water line.

The time-varying stresses arising from changes in operating scenarios (changes in draught due to cargo ballast, tank filling, etc.) should be considered.

10.7 Response amplitude operators and combinations of actions

To the RAOs determined in 10.3 shall be added RAOs corresponding to the following:

- total hydrodynamic pressure arising from direct wave pressure (quasi-static component) plus dynamic components arising from diffracted and radiated waves and hull motion responses (these effects vary the draught and wave direction);
- intermittent wetting of the hull structure near the mean water line (for each draught, wave direction and hull orientation);
- dynamic (inertial) components of internal tank pressures induced by floating structure response;
- sloshing pressures;
- quasi-static and inertial components (in three directions) of the structure and topsides/equipment support reactions.

RAOs shall be expressed either in the form of real and imaginary parts or as amplitudes and phases to facilitate the handling of phase differences between wave action and response. Motion reference points shall be specified and sufficient information shall be provided to uniquely determine the relative phasing between any dynamic response and the incoming, undisturbed wave.

10.8 Stresses and SCFs

The most important factors influencing fatigue damage are the stress range at a location, the number of applied cycles of a particular stress range magnitude and the fatigue resistance of the material.

Stresses may be based on either the geometric (or hot-spot) stress approach described below or, alternatively, on the classification (or “nominal stress”) approach given in A.10.8. Whichever method is employed, the stress (or stress range) axis on the S-N curve shall correspond to the approach selected.

Nominal stresses shall be based on the section properties of the component under consideration. A global analysis model is normally used to determine nominal stress ranges in the vicinity of the connection.

In the geometric stress approach, a joint classification shall be assigned to the connection (or to a particular construction detail of the connection). The geometric stress shall then be determined at specific locations of the connection by multiplying the nominal stresses first by the appropriate SCF (if any) and then combining the axial, in-plane and out-of-plane stress components as given in A.10.8, accounting for any phase differences. Consideration should be given to the inclusion of the additional stress-raising effects due to the gross geometry of the joint (e.g. stress concentrations resulting from holes or local through-wall bending).

SCFs shall be derived from FE analyses (see 10.5), laboratory tests or empirical equations based on such methods. Derived SCFs shall be in a form consistent with the assumptions inherent in the relevant S-N curves. Where fatigue evaluation involves extrapolation of stresses to a considered hot-spot, documented recognized methods of stress extrapolation shall be adopted.

10.9 Stress range counting and distribution

Execution of the analyses of the structural models developed as discussed in 10.5 for each RAO and each combination of actions discussed in 10.7, results in a stress transfer function for each critical detail and/or location. Applying the wave spectra representing each fatigue design sea state, the stress spectra for each short-term condition can be determined for each critical detail and/or location.

Where the short-term response is narrow-banded the stress range may be assumed to follow a Rayleigh distribution. This assumption is commonly used, even when responses are not narrow-banded, as it generally leads to conservative results. More general methods may be used to assess the distribution of stress ranges and number of cycles, examples of which are given in A.10.9.

A rainflow counting process can be used to deal with the combination of low-frequency and wave-frequency stress cycles.

10.10 Fatigue resistance

Fatigue resistance shall be established using recognized, calibrated methods based on fatigue tests (e.g. S-N curves), cumulative damage ratio (Miner's Rule), see 10.11, fracture mechanics, or a combination of these. Application of these methods shall account for the effect of coatings, the presence of CP, and large plate thicknesses, as appropriate.

Suitable S-N curves (in air, in seawater with or without adequate CP, in oil tanks, etc.) may be obtained from RCS rules or equivalent, along with guidance on how these curves have been derived and should be applied.

10.11 Damage accumulation

For each loading condition, the specification of long-term metocean conditions (e.g. wave scatter diagram) together with the corresponding assessment of damage accumulation for each sea state or long-term

distribution of sea states, determines the total damage associated with the portion of any single year for which this fatigue design situation is applicable. Total damage in one year for all such scenarios is then summed. Damage arising from other sources such as transportation/transit, previous service, etc. shall also be determined as necessary and included in the damage summation.

The total damage is the cumulative damage in-place plus the cumulative damage arising from other phases in the life cycle, i.e.

$$D_{\text{Total}} = \left(\sum D_{\text{in-place phases}} + \sum D_{\text{other phases}} \right) \times C_{\text{SF}} \leq 1,0 \quad (9)$$

where

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| D_{Total} | is the total accumulated damage ratio throughout the life cycle of the platform; |
| $\sum D_{\text{in-place phases}}$ | is the accumulated, unfactored damage ratio during the in-place operational phases; |
| $\sum D_{\text{other phases}}$ | is the accumulated, unfactored damage ratio during operational phases, excluding in-place phases; |
| C_{SF} | is the appropriate safety factor from Table 6. |

The safety factor in Table 6 relevant to the in-place condition should normally apply to all phases in the structure's life cycle. However, a different safety factor may be used for the other phases, particularly prior phases, than the factor employed for the in-place phase(s), see also 14.4.4.

10.12 Fracture mechanics methods

Fracture mechanics methods may be employed to quantify fatigue lives of structural details, as described in A.10.12.

10.13 Fatigue-sensitive components and connections

The following components and connections are known to be particularly sensitive to fatigue actions and shall be checked to ensure satisfactory fatigue performance:

- foundations of equipment subjected to high cyclic actions, such as mooring winches, chain stoppers and foundations for rotating process equipment;
- components and/or structural details used to interface the mooring system with the main hull structure;
- main hull shell, bottom, decks;
- main hull longitudinal and bracket connections to transverse frames and bulkheads;
- openings in main hull;
- transverse frames; and
- flare tower.

11 Monohulls

11.1 General

Clause 11 deals with the design of monohull (conventional ship-shaped and barge-type) floating structures. The requirements of Clause 11 supplement, for monohulls, the general requirements and guidance provided in Clauses 9 and 10.

Structural design shall, as a minimum, comply with RCS rules or equivalent, written specifically for monohull offshore structures. National regulations can also apply, see 5.4. The additional requirements in Clause 11 shall also be satisfied.

RCS rules do not normally include specific structural design requirements for the construction and removal phases of an offshore floating structure. The general principles covering the design requirements for these phases are presented in Clause 9.

For conversion and reuse of existing monohulls, see Clause 14.

Monohulls may be either permanently moored on-site, or have disconnectable mooring and riser systems, see 17.2.4. Turret interface issues are addressed in 17.3.

Examples of special areas (as defined in 3.39) for monohulls are given in A.11.1.

11.2 General design criteria

11.2.1 Collision protection

Consideration shall be given to the need for suitable collision protection dependent on an assessment of the collision risk at a particular geographic location and applicable national regulations.

Monohulls that store oil shall comply with IMO MEPC Circ. 406^[129] requirements related to protection from the effects of collision, see A.11.2.1.

11.2.2 Deckhouse requirements

Living quarters, lifeboats and other means of evacuation shall be located in non-hazardous areas and shall be protected and separated from areas containing production facilities, oil storage, riser terminations and from the flare tower. Reference can be made to RCS rules or equivalent for definitions of hazardous and non-hazardous areas.

Positioning and arrangement of deckhouse structures shall comply with IMO and RCS requirements or equivalent. National regulations can also apply.

Minimum scantlings of deckhouses shall comply with the requirements of the RCS or equivalent, accounting for location on the hull, as well as green water and wave impact.

Consideration shall be given to blast wall requirements and passive/active fire protection, depending on the distance between the deckhouse and hazardous equipment as well as the conventional cargo pump room, and on the outcome of an explosion analysis.

11.2.3 Sloshing

Operational requirements can lead to individual cargo and/or ballast tanks being partially full most of the time and, therefore, possibly subject to sloshing effects. Such effects shall be considered in the design of cargo, ballast and other tanks, see 9.8.4.

11.2.4 Green water

Green water usually occurs during severe storm conditions, particularly for wave lengths similar to that of the length of the floating structure, and can occur anywhere along the entire length of the structure. Unless the structure has been designed with adequate freeboard, the main deck and deck-mounted equipment and structures (e.g. deckhouse) shall be designed for green water actions and effects. The occurrence of green water can be assessed from model tests or from diffraction calculations. This subject is in a state of rapid evolution and reference should be made to A.7.5.5.8 for guidance on current procedures and background documents.

Green water effects can be mitigated by appropriate bow shape design, including bow flare, and layout of deck-mounted equipment and structures. Deck-mounted breakwaters and other protective structures may be used to reduce effects on deck-mounted equipment and structures.

Adequate deck drainage arrangements shall be provided.

11.3 Structural strength

11.3.1 General

Monohull local structure and components shall be checked for the combinations of actions and limit states listed in Table 2 and Table 3 in accordance with the requirements of Clause 9. Additionally, the longitudinal bending and shear forces on the global structure shall be checked against corresponding longitudinal bending and shear strength criteria, in accordance with 11.3.3.

11.3.2 Scantlings

Design scantlings shall be as defined in 9.3.

Scantlings resulting from direct design analysis utilizing site-specific environmental criteria shall be checked to ensure that minimum scantling requirements are in accordance with RCS rules or equivalent. In any case, hull girder section moduli, moments of inertia and shear area (global hull girder properties) requirements shall not be less than 85 % of the corresponding requirements in RCS rules for ships in unrestricted service.

11.3.3 ULS-a and ULS-b longitudinal strength checks

11.3.3.1 General

Longitudinal strength checks shall be conducted for combinations of maximum still-water and wave-induced bending moments and shear forces. Both sagging and hogging bending moment and shear forces shall be checked at a sufficient number of sections along the length of the monohull in order to fully describe the bending moment and shear force distributions. The bending moments and shear forces shall be determined in accordance with Clause 9. A full range of design situations should be verified, including those arising from inspections/repairs of cargo tanks, see A.5.5.1 h).

The still-water bending moments and shear forces and wave-induced bending moments and shear forces shall include the effects of bottom slamming, where applicable. Wave bow slams and green water effects are usually treated as local actions, although wave bow slam can induce overall action effects as described in 9.8.2.

The longitudinal strength checks may be conducted using either the partial factor design format or the WSD format as described in 11.3.3.2 and 11.3.3.3, respectively.

11.3.3.2 Partial factor design format

The longitudinal bending-strength check shall be conducted using Equation (10):

$$\gamma_{f,s}M_s + \gamma_{f,w}M_w \leq M_u / \gamma_r \quad (10)$$

where

M_s is the maximum representative still-water bending moment;

M_w is the maximum representative wave bending moment;

M_u is the representative ultimate bending strength of the hull girder;

$\gamma_{f,s}$ is the still-water action effect factor, to be taken from Table 4 as the factor corresponding to the permanent, G , and variable, Q , action categories for the limit state combination, ULS-a and ULS-b, under consideration;

$\gamma_{f,w}$ is the environmental action effect factor, to be taken from Table 4 as the factor corresponding to the environmental, E , action category for the limit state combination, ULS-a and ULS-b, under consideration, and which, for the ULS-b combination and where the still-water bending moment represents between 20 % and 50 % of the total moment, may be reduced from 1,30 to 1,15;

γ_r is the partial resistance factor, to be taken as a minimum as 1,15, although a higher value shall be adopted if required by the RCS requirements or equivalent standard used in the assessment of longitudinal bending strength.

Equation (10) assumes M_s and M_w occur at the same cross-section. Should this not be the case, the moments at two or more cross-sections shall be examined to determine the most onerous combination.

When calculating M_u , the following effects on the ultimate bending strength of the cross-section shall be taken fully into account:

- a) influence of co-existing stresses (such as shear and transverse stresses as well as those arising from pressure effects) on the strength of the components comprising the hull cross-section;
- b) influence of buckling on component stiffness and strength, as also influenced by co-existing stresses and by the presence of typical initial geometric distortions and welding/rolling residual stresses in plate panels and stiffeners.

The shear strength check shall be conducted using Equation (11):

$$\gamma_{f,s} \cdot Q_s + \gamma_{f,w} \cdot Q_w \leq \frac{Q_u}{\gamma_r} \quad (11)$$

where

Q_s is the maximum representative still-water shear force;

Q_w is the maximum representative wave shear force;

Q_u is the representative ultimate shear strength of the hull girder;

and where $\gamma_{f,s}$, $\gamma_{f,w}$ and γ_r are as defined for Equation (10).

Equation (11) assumes that Q_s and Q_w occur at the same cross-section. Should this not be the case, the shear forces at two or more cross-sections shall be examined to determine the most onerous combination.

When calculating Q_u , the effects of co-existing stresses (such as longitudinal and transverse stresses as well as those arising from pressure effects) on the ultimate shear strength of the cross-section shall be taken fully into account.

11.3.3.3 Working stress design format

The longitudinal bending strength check shall be conducted using either Equation (12) or Equation (13):

$$M_s + M_w \leq \frac{M_u}{C_{SF}} \quad (12)$$

$$M_s + M_w \leq \eta \cdot M_u \quad (13)$$

where

C_{SF} is the value required by RCS rules or equivalent but not less than 1,34;

η is the value required by RCS rules or equivalent but not greater than 0,75;

and where M_s , M_w and M_u are as defined for Equation (10) and qualified according to 11.3.3.2.

If M_u (or M_u/C_{SF} or ηM_u) is defined in terms of a limiting stress value, the cross-sectional properties used in the calculation of the moment of inertia and section modulus shall account for both the co-existing stress and the buckling effects noted in respect of M_u according to 11.3.3.2.

The shear strength check shall be conducted using either Equation (14) or Equation (15):

$$Q_s + Q_w \leq \frac{Q_u}{C_{SF}} \quad (14)$$

$$Q_s + Q_w \leq \eta \cdot Q_u \quad (15)$$

where Q_s , Q_w and Q_u are as defined for Equation (11) and qualified according to 11.3.3.2, and C_{SF} and η are as defined for Equations (12) and (13).

11.3.4 Local strength and details

In addition to the provisions of 9.8.6, special consideration shall be given to the following.

- a) The strength of the floating structure shall be evaluated in the transit condition. For a turret-moored floating structure or a floating structure with a moonpool well, the plating of the well should be suitably stiffened to prevent damage in transit. Particular attention shall be given to designing structure surrounding structural discontinuities.
- b) For yoke-moored and turret-moored floating structures, FE analyses of attachments to the hull shall be undertaken to ensure satisfactory stress distribution of concentrated mooring reactions into the hull structure.
- c) The effects of green water on local hull structure, including the design of a breakwater structure used to deflect water away from equipment on the deck, shall be considered.
- d) Proportions and thicknesses of structural components for reducing fatigue damage due to engine, propeller or wave-induced cyclic stresses shall be taken into account, particularly for higher strength steel components.

The procedures outlined in RCS rules or equivalent for structural details, including the effects of dynamic loading on the structure, shall be followed for the evaluation of local strength.

11.3.5 Topsides structural support

The effect of deformations of the hull shall be carefully considered in the design of the topsides structure.

Structural strength shall be evaluated considering all relevant design situations and action combinations. Scantlings shall be determined on the basis of criteria that combine, in a rational manner, the effects of global and local responses for each structural component, see 9.13.

The location of the process facility deck and structural arrangements shall comply with RCS and relevant national authority requirements. Particular attention shall be given to hazardous zones or divisions and provision of adequate access, see 11.2.2.

11.3.6 Load monitoring

Monitoring of operational (and relevant temporary) phases shall be undertaken. For such purposes, a loading computer for monitoring still-water bending moments and shear forces shall be installed on the floating structure.

12 Semi-submersibles

12.1 General

Clause 12 deals with the design of semi-submersible floating structures, including those with

- ring (continuous) pontoons,
- twin pontoons, and
- multi-footing arrangements.

The requirements of Clause 12 supplement, for semi-submersibles, the general requirements and guidance provided in Clauses 9 and 10.

Structural design shall, as a minimum, comply with RCS rules or equivalent, written specifically for semi-submersible offshore structures. National regulations can also apply, see 5.4. The additional requirements in Clause 12 shall also be satisfied.

RCS rules do not normally include specific structural design requirements for the construction and removal phases of an offshore floating structure. The general principles covering the design requirements for these phases are presented in Clause 9.

For conversion and reuse of existing semi-submersibles, see Clause 14.

Examples of special areas (as defined in 3.39) for semi-submersibles are given in A.12.1.

12.2 General design criteria

12.2.1 General

When the upper (deck) structure is required to be buoyant for a particular operating or temporary phase, or in order to meet stability requirements, consideration shall be given to the structural effects of the resulting actions. The effects resulting from variations in mass distributions during operating phases shall also be accounted for in the structural design.

Variations in stresses due to full/empty action combinations of pontoon tanks, including storage tanks if relevant, shall be explicitly accounted for when considering logical combinations of global and local responses in the design. In ring pontoons, the global effects of variations in pontoon tank loadings provide a significant contribution to the controlling stress components in the upper and lower flanges of the pontoon structural girder. If it is intended to dry-dock the semi-submersible, the bottom structure shall be strengthened to withstand such actions.

12.2.2 Limitations

Where limiting design criteria apply when changing from one phase to another phase (e.g. from a transit phase to an operating phase), these shall be clearly established and documented.

12.2.3 Damage tolerance

For braces critical to the integrity of the structure and exposed to accidental damage, the strength of end connections shall be greater than the strength of the brace.

Braces located underwater shall be watertight and shall be fitted with a leak detection system to make early crack detection possible.

When configuring the upper (deck) structure, consideration shall be given to addressing the consequences of the loss of a primary structural component as the result of an accidental event (e.g. collision, fire or explosion).

The overall integrity of the semi-submersible shall be assessed for the loss, in turn, of individual braces, if any. This situation shall be considered as an ALS and all relevant factors set to unity — see 9.7.3.2, 9.7.3.3, 9.7.4.2 and 9.7.4.3.

12.3 Structural strength

12.3.1 Critical connections

Particular attention shall be given to structural continuity, fatigue resistance and detailing in locations of stress concentrations, in relation to, for example:

- critical structural connections (including brace and column connections);
- openings (including moonpools).

12.3.2 Structural detailing

In design, particular attention shall be given to structural detailing and requirements for reinforcement in areas that can be subjected to high local forces, such as:

- lower deck structure subject to wave impact (including column run-up effects);
- mooring arrangements;
- areas prone to accidental damage.

13 Spars

13.1 General

Clause 13 deals with the design of spar floating structures. The requirements of Clause 13 supplement, for spars, the general requirements and guidance provided in Clauses 9 and 10.

Structural design shall, as a minimum, comply with RCS rules or equivalent written specifically for spars. National regulations can also apply, see 5.4. The additional requirements of Clause 13 shall also be satisfied.

RCS rules do not normally include specific structural design requirements for the construction and removal phases of an offshore floating structure. The general principles covering the design requirements for these phases are presented in Clause 9.

For reuse of existing spars, see Clause 14.

Examples of special areas (as defined in 3.39) for spars are given in A.13.1.

13.2 General design requirements

13.2.1 Model testing

Model testing or validated software should be used to evaluate, as a minimum, the following:

- upending;
- in-place ULS conditions.

Hull upending analyses should be confirmed through correlation with relevant tank model tests. The pre-“free flooding” upending condition should be analysed to assess design global moments and maximum hydrostatic pressure heads for the initial flooding stage. This is normally undertaken utilizing “quasi-static” analytical procedures. Time-domain dynamic analyses should be undertaken to simulate the response during the free flooding stage. Shear force and bending moments due to hydrostatic and hydrodynamic actions occurring during the upending operation shall be evaluated.

Model testing, if performed, shall be in accordance with 8.12.

13.2.2 Static equilibrium position

When determining the static equilibrium position, account shall be taken of significant variations in the specific gravity of the seawater over the height of the hull.

Account shall be taken of set-down effects, where relevant.

13.2.3 Global action effects

Current action effects can dominate the design of certain structural components. Accordingly, the range of 100 year return period design situations to address in accordance with 6.4.2 shall include situations in which current is the dominating metocean component.

Evaluation of global response shall include consideration of the following:

- added mass and drag action effects from strake systems;
- inertia action effects resulting from motion of the spar;
- second-order bending effects ($P-\Delta$ effects) including non-linear amplification of deflections due to rigid body rotation and second-order bending;
- diffraction effects resulting from large volume underwater elements.

13.2.4 Local action effects

Lateral and angular motions of a spar generate wave motions within the moonpool/centre-well, if any, and in ballast/liquid tanks. Such local actions resulting from these motions shall be considered with respect to both ULS and FLS.

Actions resulting from resonance effects of the water column in the moonpool/centre-well locations shall be considered.

Wave run-up effects shall be evaluated, where relevant.

External appurtenances (including strakes) shall be evaluated at ULS and FLS accounting for local drag and inertia action effects.

13.3 Structural strength

13.3.1 Critical interfaces

Particular consideration shall be given to ULS and FLS of critical interfaces, such as:

- hull/topsides interfaces including second-order ($P-\Delta$) bending effects, see 9.13;
- structural brace (truss) connections;
- riser/hull interfaces;
- fairlead/bending shoe design, see 9.8.6 and ISO 19901-7;
- interfaces at abrupt changes in stiffness (e.g. skirt/tank and truss/tank transitions).

Riser/keel interface design shall consider riser entry angles, bending and axial stresses, and wear. Detailed FE analyses of riser/hull interfaces shall be undertaken when evaluating both static and fatigue strengths. A wear analysis of the riser/keel interface shall be performed, as appropriate.

Consideration should be given to designing critical interfaces at relatively deep draughts, being less accessible or inaccessible, for relatively low limit state utilizations.

13.3.2 Fatigue

The fatigue analysis of riser/keel guide frames shall account for interaction between the risers and the guide frame including the effect of “sticking” of the risers against the guide frame, where relevant.

13.3.3 Structural details

In general, hull longitudinal stiffeners (those running the length of the hull) should be continuous at the intersection with horizontal structural components (e.g. decks, frames, ring stiffeners, etc). As a minimum, in the splash zone such penetrations should have double-sided “soft” brackets.

14 Conversion and reuse

14.1 General

Existing vessels may be converted for use as floating structures. Examples of the type of vessels likely to be converted are

- a) semi-submersibles, such as drilling semi-submersibles, construction and accommodation vessels, and multi-service vessels, and
- b) monohulls, such as drill ships, tankers and barges.

Floating platforms may also be modified and reused in other locations.

Clause 14 addresses the conversion, modification and reuse of an existing vessel. Areas addressed include

- minimum design, construction and maintenance standards,
- pre-conversion structural survey,

- effects of prior service,
- corrosion protection and material suitability, and
- inspection and maintenance.

The considerations and requirements stated in Clause 14 shall be considered as being additional to those of Clauses 9 to 13.

Major aspects associated with conversion/reuse include the structure's original design and basis of design (i.e. design criteria, methodology, standards, etc.), age, condition, maintenance and operational history, as well as the design, inspection and maintenance requirements for the converted structure.

The relative importance of these aspects are influenced by the structure's intended service, strength, fatigue and redundancy requirements, and regulatory/certification requirements.

14.2 Minimum design, construction and maintenance standards

A structure that is to be converted shall have been designed, constructed, and maintained (collectively referred to as "classed") under the rules of an RCS and certified by regulatory agencies. Existing structures designed, constructed and maintained using other rules may be used for conversion, provided that these rules are fully documented and can be established as equivalent to the rules of an RCS.

The converted structure shall be designed in accordance with Clauses 9 to 13, including appropriate references to current RCS rules or equivalent. In those cases where current RCS rules are inconsistent with the rules under which the existing structure was originally classed and compliance with current rules would be impractical, then a reassessment may be performed to confirm that the converted structure's design meets the intent of the current rules and regulations.

Major deviations between the requirements in effect at the time of the design and construction of the existing structure and current requirements shall be identified, and the acceptability for the deviation shall be fully evaluated on a fit-for-purpose basis.

14.3 Pre-conversion structural survey

The existing structure shall be subjected to a comprehensive structural survey prior to, or during, conversion. This "pre-conversion" survey shall establish the actual condition of the structure, including the existence of fatigue-related problems (i.e. cracking), scantling dimensions and the level of corrosion wastage. The survey results shall be used as the basis for the site-specific structural assessment of the converted structure and shall also provide the "baseline" condition for future in-service inspections.

The pre-conversion structural survey shall cover, to the extent practical, all structural components and details considered part of the main (or primary) structure and their intersections. As a minimum, the existing structure should be subjected to a detailed "close visual" inspection in accordance with the renewal (or "special") survey requirements of an RCS or equivalent, supplemented by the requirements of the appropriate provisions in Clause 18. The survey shall also include a significant level of non-destructive testing (magnetic particle inspection, eddy current testing, ultrasonic testing, alternating current field measurement, etc.) in order to identify fatigue-related problems and to determine the actual scantlings. Structural components and details having previous service problems (e.g. fatigue-related cracking, corrosion wastage) shall be inspected in detail (using non-destructive testing) to establish the adequacy of the prior repairs or modifications.

14.4 Effects of prior service

14.4.1 General

An existing structure will have accumulated some fatigue damage due to prior service as well as steel wastage due to corrosion (or wear), and could have experienced structural damage. Criteria for steel renewal due to corrosion shall be established and agreed with the owner based on minimum scantling requirements

and future anticipated corrosion rates. All damaged and/or corroded main (or primary) structure not meeting the agreed criteria shall be repaired or replaced during conversion. Other significant, structural damage (e.g. dented components) shall also be repaired. Guidance for determining the extent of fatigue-related damage associated with monohulls and semi-submersibles is provided in 14.4.2 and 14.4.3, respectively.

The recommended approach to account for the effect of prior service in the site-specific fatigue analysis can depend on the age of the structure, the extent to which the structure's previous operational history is known, the type of structural repairs and modifications made to structural components and details, and the results of the pre-conversion structural survey discussed in 14.3. The minimum allowable design fatigue life, accounting for the structure's prior service, is stated in 14.4.4.

14.4.2 Monohulls

The main (or primary) structure of a monohull comprises longitudinally stiffened bottom, side and deck plating and transverse and longitudinal bulkheads and frames. The critical areas associated with these structural components are typically located where these components intersect. Additionally, existing structural components connecting with, or adjacent to, new structural components (such as the turret structure, drilling moonpool and external turret/mooring connections) shall also be considered to be critical areas.

The principal effects of prior service associated with monohulls relate to material wastage due to corrosion. Fatigue damage of existing monohulls tends to remain localized, and generally does not affect the structure's integrity, unless fatigue-related problems have not been identified and repaired. The latter could occur if the original monohull had traded extensively in severe environments or if a design deficiency has resulted in cracking in repetitive details (e.g. side-shell connections or bottom longitudinal to bulkhead connections).

Structural strength and fatigue, inspection, maintenance and repair are particularly important for monohull structures converted to floating platforms. Additionally, the converted structure can undergo major modifications, such as incorporating an internal turret or a drilling moonpool. Therefore, site-specific strength and fatigue analyses on the converted structure shall be conducted. These analyses shall also account for any reduction in scantling dimensions identified in the "pre-conversion" structural survey, if the affected component has not been repaired or replaced.

Differences in the specific density of the oil (assumed in the original tanker design) and produced oil stored in the converted structure, can impose weight limitations on topsides, turrets and other items the floating structure has to carry after conversion. Consequently, when determining the weight of stored crude oil, the anticipated specific gravity of the produced oil shall be taken into account.

14.4.3 Semi-submersibles

The intersections of the main (or primary) components of semi-submersibles are typically highly stressed and/or prone to fatigue damage. These areas shall be subjected to site-specific strength and fatigue analyses. The analyses shall also account for any reduction in scantling dimensions identified in the "pre-conversion" structural survey, if the affected component has not been repaired or replaced.

14.4.4 Fatigue damage from prior service

An assessment of the fatigue damage sustained by the existing structure before conversion shall be conducted.

The accumulated fatigue damage shall be assessed via fracture mechanics/crack growth studies and/or detailed fatigue analyses of prior service, and the results of the structure's inspection histories.

Details with the highest fatigue utilizations should be inspected for fatigue cracks before service.

Remaining fatigue damage shall be determined in accordance with Equation (9) using the fatigue damage design factors specified in Table 6. In some cases, as specified in A.14.4.4, the fatigue damage design factor associated with prior service may be reduced from that specified in Table 6.

14.5 Corrosion protection and material suitability

14.5.1 Corrosion protection

Wastage due to corrosion is a major consideration for all types of steel structures operating in the marine environment and requires special consideration for conversion. The level of corrosion wastage is dependent on the environment (i.e. sea water, fuel oil, cargo oil, tank inerting system, etc.) that the steel has been (and in future can be) exposed to, the type of CP system used and its associated maintenance.

The existing structure's corrosion protection system can require replacement or upgrading for conversion. The specific requirements depend on the system's previous performance history and present condition, the condition of the existing structure, the refurbishing, repair and maintenance programmes to be conducted during conversion and throughout the operating life.

14.5.2 Material suitability

The steel grades used in an existing structure shall generally be considered acceptable if the vessel/floating structure was designed and constructed in accordance with RCS rules or equivalent, as stated in 14.2. However, conversion can result in the existing steel not meeting grade requirements in specific locations, such as in highly-stressed and/or fatigue-prone areas (or structural details), or for low-temperature applications. In these locations, such material shall be replaced if found not to meet specific requirements for fracture toughness, ductility, through-thickness properties, and weldability. Consideration should be given to conducting basic materials tests on a few representative samples taken from the existing hull structure, in order to clearly establish the properties of the material.

14.6 Inspection and maintenance

Comprehensive structural inspection and monitoring programmes shall be developed for the converted floating structure, see 5.8 and Clause 18, taking into account inspection and maintenance limitations for a permanently moored structure.

15 Hydrostatic stability and compartmentation

15.1 General

Adequacy of stability of a floating platform shall be checked for all relevant in-service and temporary phases. The assessment of stability shall include consideration of both intact and damaged conditions. When recognized standards are utilized in the assessment of damage stability, it should be ensured that the basis for the design situations and criteria adopted in the standard is compatible with the accidental event being addressed.

For intact and damage stability, floating platforms shall satisfy all applicable IMO provisions, see A.15.1.

For the stability checks, consideration shall be given to relevant detrimental effects, including those resulting from

- environmental actions, such as wind, wave (including green water effects), snow and ice accretion, and current,
- applicable damage scenarios (including owner-specified requirements),
- rigid body motions,
- free-surface effects in cargo and ballast tanks, and
- boundary interactions, such as mooring and riser systems.

The effects and consequences of accidental damage to the hull shall be considered. Manned control rooms shall be positioned to be above the waterline as determined for all damage conditions.

The effect of the extent of damage from penetration or flooding of one or more compartments shall be assessed in terms of stability, strength and impact on the environment, as outlined in IMO codes and RCS rules, see A.15.1. The location of the down-flooding points is critical in stability assessment. If site-specific ULS wind speeds exceed IMO requirements (see A.15.1), stability should be determined based on the site-specific data.

15.2 Inclining test

An inclining test shall be conducted when construction is as near to completion as practical in order to accurately determine the floating platform's mass and position of the centre of gravity. The test shall be conducted in accordance with an approved procedure.

Changes in mass conditions after the inclining test shall be carefully accounted for. Consideration shall be given to the conduct of a deadweight survey on a regular interval to ensure consistency between recorded and actual mass conditions. Where a significant discrepancy is found between the two conditions, consideration shall be given to carrying out a further inclining test.

In the case of conversion of a vessel (e.g. a MODU or a tanker) into a floating platform, consideration should be given to conducting an inclining test prior to conversion as a means of assessing the initial condition. An inclining test shall be conducted after major conversion, as in the case of a new-built structure.

15.3 Compartmentation

The hull of a floating structure shall be subdivided into a number of compartments to meet strength and stability requirements and to minimize consequence of damage, pollution risks, and possible risks of loss of the platform in the event of damage.

15.4 Watertight and weathertight appliances

Requirements for watertight and weathertight integrity shall be in accordance with IMO requirements, see A.15.4.

As a minimum, watertight closing appliances shall be installed for those external openings up to the water levels corresponding to

- a) an angle of heel equal to the first intercept between the righting moment and wind heeling moment curves in any relevant intact or damaged condition, and
- b) the required air gap for deck clearance.

The number of openings in watertight structural components shall be kept to a minimum. Where penetrations are necessary for access, piping, venting, cables, etc., arrangements shall be made to ensure that the watertight integrity of the structure is maintained through the appropriate design for the pressure and other action effects likely to occur in service and following damage (including wave impact effects). Closing appliances and their controls, indicators, actuators, power sources, etc., shall be arranged so that they remain capable of functioning effectively even in the damaged condition.

Openings above the waterplane in the damaged condition can be exposed to wave action and/or changes in the waterplane due to the dynamic response of the unit. Such openings should be weathertight.

Arrangements shall be provided to ensure that progressive flooding does not occur where individual lines, ducts or piping systems serve more than one watertight compartment or are within the extent of damage resulting from a relevant accidental event.

15.5 Special requirements for monohulls

For a monohull structure, in addition to the general compartmentation requirements given above, additional subdivisions can be required in the design of the hull to account for ballast water needed to control hull stresses (in all design phases) and for the storage of process-related liquids.

Additional requirements can arise from IMO regulations where oil is stored in the hull and in respect of the load line.

Requirements for weathertightness and watertightness of decks, deckhouses, doors, vents, etc., are generally provided by applicable flag state and national administration regulations. In the absence of mandatory requirements, the applicable IMO standards shall be used to provide design requirements.

16 Mechanical systems

16.1 General

Clause 16 addresses those mechanical systems that normally have a strong interface with the structural design of a floating structure and/or directly affect its use in offshore petroleum production operations. This clause should be regarded as complementary to already existing design rules and standards published by RCS and national authorities, which have well-developed design guidance for mechanical systems for ships and semi-submersibles, and to some extent for spars and other unique hull forms.

Mechanical systems of a floating structure can be broken down into the following main components:

- a) hull systems, including bilge, ballast, cargo handling, inert gas, crude oil washing, and tank sounding and venting;
- b) topsides production and utility systems;
- c) import and export systems, including cargo oil and material transfer;
- d) fire protection systems.

The vast majority of mechanical systems required for topsides production operations and their support (e.g. utilities and accommodation services) are not addressed here. However, hull deformations due to cargo loading and discharge and environmental actions can be an important consideration in designing structural support and piping flexibility for topsides systems, see 11.3.5. Furthermore, differences in typical marine standards used for design of hull systems, and offshore standards used for design of topsides production and utility systems, should be recognized and addressed in the design of system interfaces.

16.2 Hull systems

16.2.1 General

In addition to the specific requirements for hull systems, the following general considerations relevant to watertight integrity apply.

- a) Every inlet or discharge port submerged at maximum operating draught should be fitted with a valve that is remotely controlled from a manned control room. Such valves should fail closed unless overriding safety considerations require them to remain open. Systems that require their inlet/discharge valves to fail closed should not share a common inlet/outlet with systems that require their valves to “fail to set”, i.e. remain in their operating position on loss of control power.
- b) The status of valves, i.e. closed or open, designed to fail closed or to fail to set shall not be affected by the loss or restoration of control power.

- c) The status of a valve should be indicated at each position from which it can be controlled.
- d) Valve status indicators should be independent of the valve control system.

16.2.2 Bilge system

16.2.2.1 General

The function of bilge systems is two-fold:

- a) to serve as a drainage and discharge system for any fluids that have accumulated in the hull compartments and/or bilges other than tanks specially designed to contain liquid;
- b) to serve as an emergency discharge system in case of accidental flooding, for the purpose of securing safety of the structure and/or safety of personnel.

In its service as a drainage system, discharge of bilges overboard shall meet IMO requirements, see A.16.2.2. In its service as an emergency discharge system, when the safety of the structure or life is at stake, bilges may be discharged directly overboard.

Where drainage systems associated with hydrocarbon production interface with the structure's bilge systems, special care shall be taken to prevent migration of hydrocarbons to non-hazardous hull compartments.

16.2.2.2 Arrangement

With the exception of ballast, cargo and consumable tanks, all watertight compartments, passageways and machinery spaces shall be serviced by a bilge or a suitable drainage system.

These compartments shall be drained by at least two bilge pumps, with the backup pump(s) capable of delivering 100 % of the design bilging capacity with any single pump out of service.

Any hull compartment containing equipment essential for the operation and safety of the floating structure shall be capable of being pumped-out when the floating structure is in the "worst case" inclined (damaged) condition (i.e. at its maximum incline or list angle) as determined during the damaged stability analyses.

Spaces above deck which can normally be drained by means of a drainage system do not require a fixed pumping system.

If the bilge piping is tied into a topsides treatment facility, back flow into the bilge system shall be prevented.

Provisions shall be made to maintain the drains from hazardous areas completely separate from drains from non-hazardous areas.

16.2.2.3 Valves

All distribution boxes and manually operated valves in connection with the bilge pumping arrangement shall be in positions which are accessible under normal circumstances. Where such valves are located in normally unmanned spaces below the assigned load line and are not provided with high bilge water level alarms, they shall be operable from outside the space.

Bilge alarms shall be provided for all unmanned spaces with valves below the load line unless they do not affect the normal stability and/or damage stability.

All valves in machinery spaces controlling the bilge suction from the various compartments shall be of the "stop check" type and, where fitted at the open ends of pipes, shall be of the non-return type.

Valves in the bilge suction pipe connected to cargo or cargo stripping pumps shall be of the "stop check" type.

16.2.2.4 Pumps

Bilge pumps shall be of the self- or automatic-priming type, and shall either be capable of continuous operation in the absence of liquid flow or shall be automatically switched on and off by a monitoring device at the bilge suction point. Bilge pumping capacity shall be adequate to remove the maximum liquid input from non-failure operations (e.g. service water wash-down, fire water from deluge or hose reels).

For machinery spaces containing equipment essential to safety, independently powered pumps shall be considered, with one of these supplied from an emergency source of power.

Each bilge pump shall be capable of giving a velocity of water through the bilge main of not less than 2 m/s. When more than two pumps are connected to the bilge system, their aggregate capacity shall be no less effective.

16.2.2.5 Piping

The cross-sectional area of the main bilge line shall not be less than the combined areas of the two largest branch suction.

The internal diameter of branch suction, d (in millimetres), from each compartment shall not be less than that stipulated by the following formula, to the nearest 5 mm (but not less than 50 mm):

$$d = 2,15 \times \sqrt{A} + 25 \quad (16)$$

where A is the wetted surface area of the compartment, excluding stiffening components when the compartment is half-filled with water, expressed in square metres.

16.2.2.6 Chain lockers

Chain lockers, if provided onboard, shall be capable of being drained by a permanently installed bilge or drainage system or by portable pumps. Means shall be provided for removal of mud and debris from the bilge or drainage system.

16.2.2.7 Void compartments

Void compartments adjacent to the sea or to tanks containing liquids, and void compartments through which piping conveying liquids passes, shall be drained by a permanently installed bilge or drainage system, or, alternatively, by portable pumps or temporary hoses. The use of temporary arrangements should generally be avoided.

If portable pumps are used, two shall be provided, and both pumps and arrangements for pumping shall be readily accessible.

16.2.2.8 Bilge suction from hazardous areas

Hazardous and non-hazardous areas shall be provided with separate drainage or pumping arrangements.

Hazardous spaces typically requiring a bilge pumping system should include

- the cargo pump room,
- cofferdams adjacent to cargo tanks, and
- other watertight compartments in areas considered hazardous either due to their location or to the equipment and systems housed within.

Adequate provisions shall be made for removal of fluid accumulation in the bilges of hazardous spaces. This shall be accomplished by means of a separate bilge pump, or eductor, or bilge suction from a cargo pump or cargo stripping pump. The pump and associated piping shall not be located in spaces containing machinery or in spaces where other sources of ignition are normally present (e.g. electrical/lighting equipment, machinery capable of sparking, fans, etc.).

Fixed or portable pumps with drivers and controls provided for hazardous spaces shall be suitable for operation consistent with the nature of the fluids to be transferred.

16.2.2.9 Special considerations for semi-submersibles

Chain lockers which, if flooded, could substantially affect the semi-submersible's trim or stability shall be provided with a remote means to detect flooding and a permanently installed means of de-watering. Remote indication of flooding shall be provided at the central ballast control station.

At least one of the general service bilge pumps and all pump room bilge suction valves shall be capable of both remote and local operation.

Propulsion rooms or pump rooms in lower hulls which normally are unattended shall be provided with two independent high-level detection systems.

16.2.2.10 Special considerations for spars

A fixed bilge system is normally not installed for hull void spaces. To eliminate any liquid accumulations in hull void compartments, void spaces shall be accessible to portable pumps. At least two portable bilge pumps shall be provided along with equipment to allow deployment in any hull void compartment not fitted with a fixed bilge system. These void compartments may also be drained by use of temporary hoses connecting valved bilge outlets from the void space to a valved inlet on the bilge suction header that feeds the permanent bilge pumps.

16.2.3 Ballast system

16.2.3.1 General

The ballast system serves numerous functions, including

- adjustment of trim, draught and centre of gravity of the floating structure to maintain optimum stability and operating capabilities, and to improve response to environmental conditions,
- taking-on and discharging of ballast to adjust for the loading and discharge of cargo oil,
- dewatering of ballast tank compartments to facilitate inspection or maintenance, and
- damage control and change of centre of gravity.

16.2.3.2 Arrangement

Consideration shall be given to the ballast system's piping and control system arrangements during the design phase with regard to interconnection and proximity to cargo systems and tanks. The piping, as well as ballast piping passing through cargo tanks or connected to ballast tanks adjacent to cargo tanks, shall not pass through spaces where sources of ignition are normally present.

Ballast tanks that are not adjacent to cargo tanks, but which are connected, via the ballast system, to tanks that are adjacent to cargo tanks, shall be treated as the same level of hazard as tanks adjacent to cargo tanks. Thus, the ballast piping and pumps shall not be located in a machinery space in which a source of ignition is normally present, unless alternative measures satisfying RCS requirements or equivalent are provided. Reference should be made to the RCS rules or equivalent for guidance on ballast pump location.

The ballast systems on all types of floating structures shall be capable of pumping from, and draining, all ballast tanks when the floating structure is on an even keel or listing within the range of inclined damaged conditions.

16.2.3.3 Valves

All ballast tank isolating valves shall be arranged so they remain closed, except during ballasting operations. If remotely operated valves are installed, a means of manual control shall also be provided, and the design of the control system shall consider the effects of loss of control power and ensure that uncontrolled transfer or loading of ballast water does not occur.

Provision shall be made for a readily accessible means of isolation of the sea chest and intake system, or any discharge below the waterline level.

Where remote operation is provided by power-actuated valves for seawater inlets and discharges for operation of propulsion and power generating machinery, power supply failure of the control system shall not result in opening of closed valves.

All valves and operating controls should be clearly marked to indicate the function they serve. Means should be provided, both locally and remotely, to determine whether a valve is open or closed.

16.2.3.4 Piping

Pipes shall be arranged inboard of the zone of assumed damage penetration, unless special consideration has been taken with regard to damage stability.

Piping systems carrying non-hazardous fluids should generally be separated from piping systems that contain hazardous fluids. Cross-connection of the piping systems is permitted where means for avoiding possible contamination of the non-hazardous fluid system by the hazardous medium are provided.

16.2.3.5 Special considerations for semi-submersibles

Emphasis shall be given to redundancy and reliability of the ballast system, its control and monitoring instruments and its equipment during all modes of operation. A single-point failure on any piece of equipment, or flooding of any single watertight compartment, shall not disable the damage control capability of the ballast system.

The ballast system shall be arranged to prevent the inadvertent transfer of ballast water. The system shall also be designed so that the transfer of ballast water from one tank to any other tank through a single valve is not possible, except when such a transfer does not adversely affect the stability of the semi-submersible.

Each ballast tank shall be capable of being pumped out by at least two power-driven pumps, arranged so that tanks can be drained at all normal operating and transit conditions. The ballast pumps shall be of the self-priming type or be provided with a separate priming system.

The system shall be capable of raising the semi-submersible within three hours, or as specified by the regulator where one exists, starting from a level trim condition at deepest normal operating draught, to the severe storm draught.

The ballast system design shall prevent uncontrolled flow of fluids from one compartment into another, whether from the sea, water ballast or consumable storage. Ballast tank valves shall be designed to remain closed except when ballasting.

Remote-controlled valves shall fail closed, and shall be provided with open and closed position indication at the ballast control station. Position indication power supply shall be independent of control power supply, unless a 24 V d.c. system is used for both.

The ballast system shall be arranged so that even with any one pump inoperable, it is capable of restoring the semi-submersible to a level trim condition and draught, when subject to the design damage situations.

16.2.3.6 Special considerations for spars

The ballast system on a spar is typically made up of a series of deep well or submersible pumps for deballasting (one installed in each ballast tank) and arranged to discharge directly overboard or to a common ring main and then overboard. Ballast water is pumped into the tanks via another pump that is arranged such that it can supply ballast water to all ballast tanks. Isolation valves are provided in the ballast supply line to each tank.

System arrangements other than these may also be acceptable, provided they comply with all applicable standards.

The ballast system shall be arranged so that even with any one pump inoperable, it is capable of restoring the spar to a level trim condition and draught, when subject to the design damage situations.

16.2.4 Tank sounding and venting system

All integral hull tanks shall be provided with sounding tubes or other suitable manual means of determining the presence and amount of liquid in the tanks. The size of sounding pipes shall not be less than 38 mm in internal diameter. Sounding pipes shall be led as straight as possible from the lowest part of the tank to an accessible location. If sounding pipes terminate below the topmost watertight deck, for oil tanks they shall be fitted with a quick-acting self-closing valve, with a test cock underneath. Sounding pipes from other tanks can terminate with a valve or screwed cap. A striking plate should be mounted in the tank to prevent damage to the plating by repeated striking of the sounding rod.

All tanks, cofferdams, void spaces, tunnels and compartments not fitted with other ventilation arrangements shall be provided with vent pipes.

The arrangements of the tank structure and vent pipe shall be such as to permit the free passage of air and gasses from all parts of the tanks to the vent pipes. The vent pipes shall be arranged to provide adequate drainage. If overflows are used in conjunction with the tank vents, consideration should be given to their design to prohibit fluids from flowing from one watertight subdivision to another in the event of damage. In general, vent pipes should terminate on the open deck by way of return bends. All vent outlets should be fitted with a permanently attached means of closure. This means of closure should be an automatic inflow-retarding device, such as a vent check valve, dependent on the position of the vent relative to the final waterline after damage. The applicable international or national regulations and/or applicable RCS rules should be consulted relative to vent closure requirements.

The selection of tank vents and overflow locations shall consider damage stability effects and the location of the final calculated immersion line in the assumed damaged floating position. Tank vents and overflows shall be located so that they cannot cause progressive flooding unless such flooding has been taken into account in the damage stability assessment. In case of tank overflow with no alternate overflow locations, the pressure head corresponding to the maximum height of the vent pipes shall not exceed the maximum allowable static pressure of the tank.

Pump capacity and pressure head shall be considered when calculating the sizes of vent pipes. In general, for all tanks that can be filled by pump pressure, the cross-sectional area of the tank vents should be at least 125 % of the effective area of the filling line. If overflows are used in conjunction with the tank vents, then this criterion should be applied to the sizing of the overflow and a reduced vent size may be considered.

Recommended minimum sizes for vent pipes are

- 50 mm internal diameter for water ballast tanks and fresh water tanks, and
- 60 mm internal diameter for oil tanks.

NOTE The above recommendations are general, and the use of high capacity and/or high head pumps can require larger sized vent pipes.

The vent outlets from fuel oil tanks and cofferdams shall be fitted with corrosion-resistant flame screens having a clear area through the mesh not less than that required for the vent pipe. These outlets should be located in a position that minimizes the possibility of ignition of gases escaping from the pipe.

16.2.5 Cargo handling system

16.2.5.1 General

If oil storage is provided in tanks within the hull, a cargo handling system should be provided to serve the following functions, as appropriate:

- receipt and storage of stabilized crude oil from the production facilities;
- de-watering of “off-spec.” stabilized crude oil in dedicated reception tanks;
- de-oiling of produced water and/or slops;
- internal transfer between cargo tanks;
- transfer of “off-spec.” stabilized crude oil to the production facilities;
- transfer of an isolated stabilized crude oil parcel via the offloading system to an export vessel;
- simultaneous loading and offloading;
- allowing of regular tank washing operations;
- allowing of on-site tank inspection, maintenance and repair.

16.2.5.2 Arrangement

The cargo system shall allow sufficient isolation of tanks (e.g. “double block and bleed capability”) to allow entry by personnel.

The submerged tank valves shall be remotely operable from deck boxes on the upper deck or from a cargo control room. The use of fail-safe valves should be considered.

Cargo tanks may be fitted with heating coils to prevent wax formation and to maintain efficient flow characteristics for pumping.

The vent outlets from cargo tanks where the flashpoint of the cargo oil is above 60 °C and vent outlets from adjacent cofferdams shall be fitted with corrosion-resistant flame screens having a clear area through the mesh not less than that required for the vent pipe. These outlets should be located in a position that minimizes the possibility of ignition of gases escaping from the pipe.

The venting of cargo tanks where the cargo oil has a flashpoint below 60 °C should be accomplished by a closed venting system designed to ensure that the tanks cannot be subjected to excessive pressure or vacuum. On floating structures where an inert gas system is installed, means shall be provided to ensure adequate tank venting when a tank is isolated from the inert gas system.

16.2.5.3 Pumps

In selecting pumps to be used in the cargo system, care should be taken to ensure that the cargo transfer pumps are designed with consideration of in-service requirements (e.g. motions and frequency of offloading operations) and to minimize the risk of sparking.

16.2.6 Inert gas system

16.2.6.1 General

If oil storage is provided in tanks within the hull, an inert gas system should be provided to serve the following functions, as appropriate:

- control of constant design pressure in the cargo tank during all loading/unloading conditions;
- prevention of the ingress of oxygen into the tank area;
- purging of tanks of hydrocarbon vapours below the explosion limit range;
- control of maximum allowable oxygen content in the cargo tank area;
- enabling of gas-freeing of isolated tanks for personnel access;
- automatic control of produced gas in the event of upset or failure of product stabilisation.

The inert gas generating system shall be capable of producing dry inert gas with oxygen content of less than 5 % by volume.

16.2.6.2 Piping system

The piping system shall be designed to serve the following functions:

- transport of inert gas flow from the inert gas generating system via a central inert gas main and branch lines to each individual cargo tank;
- prevention of back flow from the inert gas main to the inert gas generating system by a deck seal arrangement or other suitable means of isolation;
- connection to a pressure/vacuum breaker to maintain the required design pressure in the tanks during normal operation;
- connection to the high and low pressure/vacuum breaker valves in a central stack to prevent the building of rapid overpressure;
- transport of purge gas from the gas free blower via a main line and branch lines to a selected tank;
- connection to a ventilation stack with flame arrestor to release excess purge gas.

In addition to integral tanks, consideration should be given to the possible need to supply gas to storage/process vessels on the deck of the floating structure (particularly FPSOs). National regulations can apply concerning these requirements.

Consideration should be given in the inert gas and ballast systems design to allow for the inerting of a ballast tank in the case of cargo leakage (via a crack or other means) into an adjacent ballast tank (or one that has cargo piping running through it).

As a means of reducing volatile organic compound (VOC) emissions on FPSOs, hydrocarbon gas blanketing may be considered in lieu of inert gas for controlling tank pressure and oxygen ingress and maintaining a non-explosive atmosphere in cargo tanks during normal operation.

16.2.7 Crude oil washing system

Crude oil washing (COW) systems should follow IMO requirements, see A.16.2.7.

An inert gas system shall be employed if a COW system is utilized.

16.3 Import and export systems

16.3.1 General

In general, a floating structure imports produced fluids from subsea wells and/or other nearby structures, and exports produced fluids into a fixed or mobile transportation medium such as a pipeline or tanker. In addition, solid and liquid materials, parts and supplies can be transported to/from the structure. Risers, cargo offloading systems, boat landings and material handling devices are normally provided to perform these functions.

16.3.2 General functions of risers

Risers are fluid conduits between subsea equipment and the floating structure. The riser system is the interface between a static structure on the ocean floor and dynamic floating structure at the ocean's surface. Riser system integrity includes not only fluid and pressure containment, but structural and global stability, as well.

Risers usually perform one or more of the following specific functions:

- conveyance of fluids between the wells and the floating structure (i.e. production, injection or circulated fluids);
- import, export or circulation of fluids between the floating structure and remote equipment or pipeline systems;
- guidance of drilling or workover tools and tubulars to and into the wells;
- support of auxiliary lines and umbilicals;
- other specialized functions such as well bore annulus access for monitoring of fluids injection.

Risers on floating structures cover the full range of production, injection, drilling, completion, workover and exporting operations. Risers for floating structures have additional requirements associated with operating multiple risers of potentially different types in relatively close proximity.

Design of the riser system itself is outside the scope of this part of ISO 19904. See A.16.3.2 for a list of references to standards and guidelines for riser system design.

16.3.3 Riser interfaces

Risers for importing produced fluids and/or exporting to pipelines are usually connected to some point on the hull structure or turret (typical of monohulls), or to the deck (typical of semi-submersibles and spars). Risers impose actions on the hull structure and can require local structures with receptacles for moment-reducing and/or tensioning devices. Local structures should be designed for the maximum static and dynamic actions and action combinations as specified by the riser system designer, see 9.8.6.

16.3.4 Cargo offloading system

16.3.4.1 General

Floating structure cargo offloading systems comprise one, or a combination, of the following:

- riser and pipeline export system, and/or
- tanker transfer export system.

If no storage is provided, the system generally consists of one or more cargo pumps and a metering system. In the case of storage (e.g. monohulls) the tanks are often manifolded to a central pump room or, alternatively, individual pumps are provided within each tank, see 16.2.5. Consideration should be given to pump and metering locations and provision of an adequate structural foundation to support such equipment.

Riser and pipeline export systems can be a pipeline either to a remote facility or to a nearby offloading point. In the latter case, hydrocarbons are offloaded under low pressure from the floating structure to an export tanker through a separate mooring and offloading system (normally a single point mooring) connected to the floating structure via risers and subsea pipelines. The offloading system shall be located at a suitable azimuth and at a sufficient distance away from the floating structure to allow for safe approach, departure and weathervaning of the export tanker when moored. A risk assessment shall be conducted to consider suitable mitigation measures to avoid collision between the export tanker and floating structure.

Two types of tanker transfer systems may be used:

- a) alongside transfer;
- b) tandem transfer.

16.3.4.2 Alongside transfer

An alongside transfer system consists of mooring equipment to secure the tanker alongside, fendering to prevent contact between the two hulls and a fluid transfer system using hoses or mechanical loading arms. Consideration shall be given to location of this equipment and associated local actions imposed on the hull. Limiting conditions for safe operation shall be specified in the MOM.

16.3.4.3 Tandem transfer

Tandem transfer consists of a mooring hawser arrangement and a floating or suspended hose system. Mooring hawsers should be of suitable material and construction for the intended service and should be manufactured and tested in accordance with appropriate standards (see A.16.3.4.3).

The maximum peak mooring force anticipated in service shall be used to size the hawser. The maximum peak mooring force and set of metocean conditions likely to cause such a force shall be clearly specified in the MOM. An appropriate means of monitoring the hawser force should be provided in the control room, along with a readout and warning of a high hawser force.

A suitable hawser termination and supporting structure shall be provided. The strength of the hawser termination and its supporting structure shall be greater than the breaking strength of the hawser.

Provision shall be made for supporting the hose termination and any associated hose storage equipment such as a hose reel or horizontal storage tray.

16.3.5 Material handling

Material handling systems include provisions for supply vessels to moor against the floating structure's hull and/or DP adjacent to the structure, as well as lifting and transfer systems to transfer material to and from the structure and onboard the structure.

Due consideration shall be given to provision of mooring points and fendering arrangements for safe and efficient loading and unloading of material from supply vessels.

In arranging critical equipment, the risks posed by dropped objects shall be considered.

Material handling on a floating structure is inherently more dangerous than on land or on a fixed platform, due to the structure's accelerations/movements. This additional risk shall be considered when planning transport routes and designing lifting and transport equipment. Accelerations/movements of the platform shall be taken into consideration in all transportation of objects and in the design of transport equipment. Operational restrictions should also be considered depending on the type of platform, its motion characteristics, handling means involved and actual weather conditions.

Material handling "below deck" is complicated by transport routes through bulkheads and decks which are parts of the floating structure's watertight compartmentation. This shall be borne in mind when transport routes are being designed.

16.3.6 Lifting appliances

Lifting appliances can be split into two main groups:

- a) offshore cranes used for material handling between the floating structure and another vessel, as well as internally on the floating structure;
- b) other lifting appliances used solely for lifts internally on the floating structure.

The following considerations apply:

- lifting appliances should be designed to RCS rules or other recognized standards for offshore lifting appliances, see A.16.3.6;
- area layout shall be designed to allow the use of relevant handling equipment/facilities;
- all transport equipment shall have adequate brakes or other facilities to stop inadvertent motion;
- transport routes should lead to a lay-down area or at least to a point where pick-up by a deck crane is possible;
- lay-down areas shall have adequate fenders to stop swinging loads causing damage.

For further information on lifting, reference should be made to ISO 19902:—, Clauses 8 and 22.

16.4 Fire protection systems

16.4.1 General

Fire protection measures on a floating structure consist of structural fire protection, firewater systems, fixed fire-extinguishing systems and alarms.

Fire protection requirements are usually specified in national standards. Reference should also be made to ISO 13702 and RCS rules.

16.4.2 Structural fire protection systems

Systems for structural fire protection are either active (e.g. water spray), or passive (e.g. insulation or intumescent coatings). In selecting a system, the following points shall be considered:

- active systems can increase water system capacity requirements and require provisions for drainage for firewater runoff;
- passive systems provide protection but need not represent a minimum weight solution;

- requirements for access to structural components under passive coating system for inspection;
- testing requirements for active systems.

16.4.3 Firewater systems

All floating structures shall have a firewater system that supplies hose stations throughout the structure. The system shall have sufficient redundancy so that a fire in any space or open area would not render the system inoperative.

A minimum of two pumps, each capable of supplying 100 % firewater design capacity, with separate sources of power should be provided, supplying a fire main fitted with isolation valves so that, if a section fails, the failure can be isolated and the remainder of the system remains operational.

Other fire protection systems that can be supplied from the fire main include but are not limited to

- foam systems, typically installed to protect produced hydrocarbon storage areas and helicopter decks,
- a process deluge system, and
- active structural fire protection (water spray) systems.

When sizing the firewater system, all high-consequence fire risk scenarios shall be considered and the system shall be sized to be capable of supplying all systems that would be required to operate simultaneously in any single fire risk scenario.

16.4.4 Fixed fire-extinguishing systems

Fixed fire-extinguishing systems are usually installed in machinery spaces, electrical equipment rooms and control stations. These systems include gaseous systems, sprinkler systems, water mist systems, foam systems and dry chemical systems, and can be manually actuated or automatically actuated by a fire detection system.

RCS rules and applicable national/international standards should be consulted for fixed fire-extinguishing systems for protection of the marine component of a floating structure.

Fixed fire-extinguishing systems for the industrial component of a floating structure (process facilities) shall be provided to address hazards associated with the process facilities in enclosed spaces containing process equipment, process-related machinery, hydrocarbon storage areas, electrical equipment rooms and other areas or spaces constituting a fire hazard.

16.4.5 Alarms

Flag and national administrations often have specific requirements for general alarm systems. In the absence of specific requirements in RCS or equivalent rules, IMO requirements should be complied with, see A.16.4.5.

17 Stationkeeping systems

17.1 General

A floating structure shall be provided with suitable means of keeping its position at the specific site of intended operation. These means typically consist of a stationkeeping system connecting the floating structure physically to the seabed, or a DP system whereby the floating structure is kept in position by means of thrusters, or a combination of both.

The design of stationkeeping systems shall be in accordance with ISO 19901-7.

The type of stationkeeping equipment involved depends upon the type of floating structure and the chosen system solution.

17.2 Mooring equipment

17.2.1 Winches

Monohulls, semi-submersibles and spars use mooring winches of the same type. Alternatives for mooring winching equipment are covered in ISO 19901-7. One winch per mooring line should be used if the mooring system is to be continuously adjustable. An alternative is to have a group of mooring lines served by one common winch; this alternative should only be used if continuous adjustability is not required. The winch pulling power should be specified when designing the mooring system, based on the worst allowable installation and/or adjustment weather conditions.

Mooring systems with fairleads should be capable of moving the chain/wire system sufficiently to make critical inspection of the moorings at the fairleads. Sufficient capability in terms of chain lockers or alternative means to secure the chain should be provided for this possibility.

The chain-bearing surfaces (e.g. winch chain wheel or chain jack latches) should be formed to suit the chain to be used.

17.2.2 Fairleads and chain stoppers

Chain stoppers on each mooring line shall lock the mooring line to the mooring attachment point once the required installation tension is reached.

Various types of fairleads or bending shoes should be considered and employed for routing of the mooring lines from the winches to the point where they leave the floating structure. Intermediate fairleads should be direction-fixed and the last fairlead before the line leaves the structure should be rotatable in at least one plane.

The chain-bearing surfaces (e.g. guide roller in wheel-type fairleads or chain-stopper latches) should be formed to suit the chain to be used.

Chain stoppers and fairleads and their supporting structures should be designed for a force equivalent to the minimum breaking strength of the mooring line, see also ISO 19901-7.

17.2.3 Monitoring and control equipment

Monitoring of mooring line tension or line angle should be performed to detect line failure, for example, by instrumentation, remotely operated vehicle (ROV) inspection or underwater cameras.

Local winch and chain-stopper control shall be specified, and can involve remote control and monitoring of winch, chain stopper and line parameters.

17.2.4 Disconnectable mooring

The mooring system may be designed for disconnection of mooring lines and risers to limit exposure to foreseeable design situations that would exceed specified mooring system design limits (e.g. severe metocean or ice conditions). In this case, the ability to forecast the limiting conditions, the frequency of such conditions and the time required for the disconnection should be considered at the design stage when setting the disconnect criteria.

Clear criteria for disconnect shall be established and stated in the MOM. Consideration shall be given to providing means and/or specifying procedures for verifying operability of the quick disconnect system throughout its operating life. If the structure is neither self-powered nor classed as an ocean-going vessel, seaworthiness (stability and motion response) of the structure in design situations that exceed the disconnect criteria shall be checked and procedures for manoeuvring shall be established.

17.3 Turret

17.3.1 General

A turret mooring system allows a monohull structure to rotate or weathervane around a geostationary turret that is physically moored to the seabed with a multi-line spread mooring system. A suitable bearing system shall be provided at the interface between the floating structure and the turret. A means for locking the turret to the hull and controlling the relative rotation should be considered, if relevant.

17.3.2 Turret structure

The turret structures supporting the mooring lines shall be designed for the maximum combined actions to which they can be subjected during service, including combinations in which one mooring line is missing.

Fatigue damage due to repetitive actions shall be assessed.

Wave slamming effects shall be considered, where appropriate.

Suitable access arrangements shall be provided to allow inspection and maintenance of the turret structure during its design service life.

17.3.3 Bearing system

17.3.3.1 General

The function of the bearing system is to transfer the forces between the turret and the hull. The working conditions of the bearing system depend on the type of system, but unless the turret is of the disconnectable type, the system shall be designed for actions resulting from the ULS design situation, exposure to salt water and ambient temperatures. If roller bearings are used, the bearing shall be adequately protected from seawater ingress by a suitable sealing arrangement and suitable lubrication arrangements. Contamination of the grease with dust should be expected.

17.3.3.2 Forces on the bearing system

The forces on a turret bearing system include, but are not limited to, the following action effects:

- mooring line and riser actions;
- buoyancy of the turret (varying with draught);
- inertia of the turret due to vessel accelerations;
- weight of the turret (inclination due to roll and pitch to be considered);
- global deformation of the structure;
- friction-induced bearing and swivel torques;
- hog/sag vessel deflections resulting in moonpool ovalization;
- effects due to entrapped water and added mass;
- effects induced by assembly tolerances and fabrication tolerances.

The bearing should be designed for the maximum combination of such actions as expected in service.

Local support structure shall be designed for maximum action effects and allowable deflections as specified by the bearing manufacturer.

Fatigue damage to bearings and local support structure due to repetitive actions shall be assessed.

Bearings shall be designed according to an internationally recognized standard, see A.17.3.3.

17.3.3.3 Alternative bearing designs

A number of different bearing types are used. The most common are

- a) roller bearings based on rollers in sealed grease-filled units,
- b) roller systems based on rails and large-diameter steel “bogie” wheels, and
- c) sliding bearings based on low-friction pads on spring supports sliding against a machined stainless steel surface.

A lower bearing system based on a rubber fender is installed as a back-up system for extreme mooring forces (this bearing is normally not in contact).

On some turret systems, all the force is transmitted by one bearing and on others there may be upper and lower bearing systems with the lower bearing typically transmitting horizontal forces only.

Where self-lubricating sliding bearings are used, expected wear rates and maximum total wear over the design service life shall be assessed using appropriate test data.

17.3.3.4 Inspection, maintenance and repair

The bearing system is vital for the safety and functionality of a turret-moored floating structure; therefore, the bearing function shall be maintained during the whole operational life of the structure. Where possible, access for inspection and maintenance shall be built into the systems; alternatively, a monitoring system shall be specified. In harsh environmental conditions, the bearing system should be designed with redundancy to secure the function of the turret (force transfer and structure rotation) in any weather conditions. The system should be designed to facilitate inspection, maintenance and repair activities at location, with a minimum of downtime.

17.3.4 Turning and locking systems

Some turrets have a turning system for controlling the rotational position of the turret relative to the floating structure. For naturally weathervaning structures with roller bearing systems, the system may be omitted. Generally, systems based on sliding bearings have a turret-turning system to avoid twisting the mooring lines and risers as the structure rotates to minimize the weather exposure. The system can be based on hydraulic cylinders and grippers, a rack and pinion system, etc.

The system performance is characterized by a turning force and a rotating velocity. The necessary force is determined as the maximum calculated turning resistance plus a safety factor. The necessity for a redundant system should be evaluated.

The necessary turning velocity depends on the maximum required rotational speed of the structure. This is a function of the expected heading change rate of the environmental actions. Normally, a full rotation (360°) in one hour should be sufficient, but this shall be determined for each structure based on a site-specific analysis.

18 In-service inspection, monitoring and maintenance

18.1 General

Clause 18 defines the requirements for structural integrity management of floating structures.

The extent of structure covered by these requirements includes

- a) the main structure, which can conveniently be divided into three zones — atmospheric, splash and submerged — bearing in mind that draught changes can occur for many floating structures,
- b) all structural attachments such as turrets, helidecks, flares, cranes and process decks, and their interfaces with the main structure,
- c) structural interfaces between main structure and riser system,
- d) non-structural attachments, i.e. any structural component that interfaces with the main structure and/or structural attachments whose deterioration can be detrimental to the integrity of the structure to which it is attached, including appurtenances and their connections (e.g. anodes or hydrophones), and
- e) CP systems.

Other major components of a floating platform (mooring systems, lifting equipment, riser systems, etc.) should also be subject to a similar regime of structural integrity management as that proposed here for the hull structure.

18.2 Structural integrity management system philosophies

18.2.1 General

Structural integrity shall be managed through a structural integrity management (SIM) system.

The designer has an important role in the initial specification and development of the SIM system, including the identification of how the structure is expected to respond and any limitations inherent in the design, whether in the form of loading limitations or environmental restrictions that apply to weather-sensitive operations. Effective implementation of a SIM system throughout the lifetime of the structure shall be the responsibility of the owner.

The owner shall ensure that suitable arrangements are in place for monitoring and maintaining the integrity of a floating structure throughout its life cycle. Such arrangements include

- planned maintenance and inspection of the structure,
- periodic assessment taking account of conditions in relation to original design expectations,
- assessment of damage or suspected damage, and
- arrangements for repair work in the event of damage or deterioration.

Periodic assessments should reflect current good practice and incorporate advances in knowledge and changes in risk level, as appropriate. The frequency, scope and methods of inspection should be sufficient to provide assurance, in conjunction with associated assessments, that the integrity of the structure is being maintained.

The purpose of the SIM system is to provide a formal process for ensuring the integrity of the structure throughout its intended design service life on a fit-for-purpose basis.

Implementation of a SIM system can benefit significantly from the effective design for access for inspection, maintenance and repair both internally and externally.

Approaches to dealing with structural integrity management vary depending upon field life, type of floating structure and sophistication of local infrastructure. In turn, these factors can influence the philosophical approach to the specification of a SIM system which can vary from one involving emphasis on the use of monitoring equipment to one with a preference for the extensive use of inspections. Irrespective of the philosophy, the resulting SIM system shall aim to maintain the integrity of the structure throughout its design service life.

Stages in the development of a SIM system are

- a) database development and data acquisition,
- b) evaluation, and
- c) planning.

In addition, while developing the SIM system, the designer should take into account the owner's intentions for its

- d) implementation.

National and regional regulations can require a SIM system to be documented in a form suitable for verification or for review by a regulator.

The activities within each stage are not necessarily mutually exclusive and overlap of activities between the various stages occurs.

18.2.2 Database development and data acquisition

The database shall consist of appropriate information relating to the life cycle of the floating structure. Typical examples are the following:

- a) appropriate details of ownership, delegated authority, chains of command both onshore and onboard, operational procedures, emergency procedures, standby vessel arrangements, and other information consistent with IMO requirements;
- b) details of the location (latitude, longitude, water depth), metocean details (wind, wave, current, tide, temperature, etc.), interpolated/extrapolated metocean parameters for design;
- c) design information, including the design basis and premise, the standards to which it was designed and other details (calculations and drawings, corrosion allowances, etc.); ideally, much of this should be in electronic format; areas, elements, components and other aspects of the design that were of concern to the designers or needed special attention during design should be well documented for ready appreciation and easy access by those developing and implementing the SIM system;
- d) results of any risk assessment, FE analysis, etc., in which integrity- and safety-critical elements have been identified;
- e) fabrication records including drawings, material certificates (including cross-referencing to location of the material within the structure), construction tolerances and compliance records, weld inspection records (ultra-sonic, x-ray, etc.), anomalies, defects, rectifications, repairs, baseline survey;
- f) for structures converted from other service, conversion records including structure surveys, structural inspection data, thickness measurements, condition of coatings and CP systems, weld inspection data, retrieval of design and fabrication information, service history, quality assurance (QA) records, materials datasheets, etc.

Particular attention shall be paid to special areas (see 3.39), such as turrets, helideck supports, fatigue sensitive zones, and areas where stress raisers or "hard termination" points exist. To ensure effective transfer of knowledge relating to special areas, the designers and construction supervisors shall prepare a structural critical inspection points (SCIP) report to be provided to the owner. Interfaces between major structural components and assemblies usually fall into the category of SCIPs (e.g. erection butt welds, topsides supports).

The database shall be stored in a readily retrievable format. A copy of the database should be kept onboard the installation, in addition to a master copy kept ashore by the owner.

18.2.3 Evaluation

Evaluation shall be floating-structure-specific and site-specific and be based on a fit-for-purpose philosophy. This shall centre on the intended design service life of the structure but shall, as a minimum, be reviewed by the owner annually and following changes in ownership, statutory regulations and location, and following accidents, repairs, modifications and reviews of inspection data. The review shall ensure that data gathered since the previous review, e.g. by general visual inspection, have been reported, assessed and incorporated in a comprehensible form.

Evaluation shall involve risk assessment, detailed analysis (including FE and cumulative damage analyses), and other forms of assessment as necessary — either of the overall structure or parts thereof where damage has arisen or occurred, or of special areas as appropriate. Risk-based inspection approaches can usually be of considerable benefit in the evaluation process and in the scheduling of inspections. Such approaches enable probabilities and risks to be explicitly evaluated and related back to target values.

Where a “safety case” regime is in effect through applicable national regulations, such safety cases can form part of the evaluation.

Evaluation shall consider continuing compliance with national regulations and standards or RCS requirements, as appropriate. If any of these regulations change during the structure’s life cycle, consideration shall be given to any appropriate corrective action.

In the case of a major conversion, typically involving a change of functionality or replacement or addition of new topsides modules, or even a complete mission change of the whole structure, the design of the structure can be subject to the national regulations in effect at the time of the conversion.

18.2.4 Planning

Planning shall identify the processes, procedures and techniques required to be implemented as a result of evaluation to ensure that the objectives of the fit-for-purpose assessment are realized. Failure mechanisms, deterioration rates and the consequences of failure shall be considered, in order to determine the methods, frequency and scope of inspections, and possible repair and change-out procedures.

A “walk-through survey” can often assist in the pre-planning stage. This helps identify departures from the as-built drawings (the drawings shall be updated accordingly), locations for attachment points, etc.

It is important to identify and examine all damage situations for each floating structure system and subsystem.

Some detailed aspects to be considered in the planning stage are discussed in 18.3.

18.2.5 Implementation

Implementation refers to the detailed execution of the processes, procedures and techniques identified during planning and should normally include programmes concerned with inspections, maintenance and monitoring, as well as identifying the need to effect repairs and/or change-outs.

Some detailed issues to be considered in the implementation stage are discussed in 18.4.

Data gathered during this stage, as well as information issued during the planning stage, should be incorporated into an update of the database, which itself should be undertaken at least once per year, unless justification is presented to extend this period.

The properties of crude oil can have an important influence on the structural performance of a floating production system, particularly if modest-to-large quantities of crude oil are stored onboard. Since the properties of crude evolve as the field is depleted, the effects of these changes should be monitored and assessed throughout the life of the field.

18.3 Planning considerations

18.3.1 General

Structures and structural connections, the failure of which would incur serious consequences in respect of safety, environmental or economic loss, shall be subject to particular attention in the planning of inspection, monitoring and maintenance.

The inspection plan shall incorporate any applicable requirements in national regulations and those of the RCS, as relevant. Appropriate provisions for underwater inspection shall be incorporated into the inspection and maintenance programme, as necessary. Methods of inspecting and maintaining the corrosion protection systems should be identified.

The inspection programme shall specify and describe all inspection activities to be undertaken during the design service life of the structure.

Particular attention shall be given to special areas, any known fabrication anomalies and defects, areas of suspected damage or deterioration, and repaired areas. The inspection schedule shall take into account locations highlighted by service experience and the design assessment. The scope of structural inspections shall include inspection of welds and parent material in critical areas.

18.3.2 Inspection categories

18.3.2.1 General

Inspections usually seek to identify symptoms and tell-tale signs that are evident on the surface and that originate from defects. In most cases, signs of damage are obvious before the integrity of the structure is impaired; however, it should not be assumed that this is always the case.

There are two categories of inspections:

- a) scheduled inspections;
- b) unscheduled inspections.

18.3.2.2 Scheduled inspections

Scheduled inspections are undertaken as a direct consequence of developing and implementing the SIM system.

A baseline inspection shall be carried out and recorded before the structure leaves the fabrication yard or before the structure is put into service. This shall establish the as-built condition of the structure. In practice, much of the inspection can be performed when the structure is in its final stages of building, conversion or outfitting. Inspection conducted on-site can be limited to quantifying the effects of installation.

Scheduled inspections shall be performed on a regular basis to monitor the condition of the structure and are normally performed during the implementation stage of the SIM system. Scheduled inspections basically aim to record departures of the structure from its condition at the time of the baseline survey. They can also record data that strictly form part of the baseline survey but which were missed or not collected at the time. Furthermore, they can record information relating to structural deterioration, accidents or significant occurrences of design situations that were not previously recorded, e.g. marine growth, coating deterioration, CP polarization and obvious damage.

Following the execution of modifications and/or repairs, they, together with any directly or indirectly affected elements or components of the structure, shall be inspected in order to record the details of such modifications and/or repairs and the effects on the structure. Such inspections shall record details and information consistent with the requirements of the baseline inspection.

18.3.2.3 Unscheduled inspections

Unscheduled inspections occur as a result of an unexpected event (e.g. an accident), exposure to a near-design-level event (e.g. a hurricane) or a change in ownership or platform location.

All accidents shall be assessed to identify appropriate inspection requirements. The extent of structure inspected shall be consistent with the severity of the accident. This shall, as a minimum, include the structure local to the contact or impact position as well as those more remote sections of the entire structure liable to be directly or indirectly affected. This requires recognition of the consequences of the local and overall dynamic response of structures to transient actions. Analysis can be necessary to identify the location and extent of such consequences.

In special circumstances, emergency repairs are necessary shortly after an accident has occurred and before any inspection has been conducted. In these cases, the emergency repairs can mask some consequences of the accident or induce further damage. Such consequences shall, if relevant, be documented, in addition to those arising from the accident itself.

Damage can arise as a result of a floating structure experiencing actions at, or near, the level of those considered in the design, such as the passage of large waves and/or wind gusts. In the case of such events, an inspection shall be conducted to identify the location and extent of any possible damage and/or other form of deterioration. Where damage is detected, an assessment shall be conducted to confirm the adequacy of the original design models and update these as required.

A change of ownership is likely to precipitate a revised approach to the way in which a SIM system database is evaluated, planned and implemented. The new owner shall verify the existing condition and establish an appropriate philosophy for inspection, maintenance and repair, taking into consideration the requirements of any statutory authority and those for the purposes of independent third party verification, as appropriate.

A change in the location of a structure can lead to the conduct of a revised baseline inspection or part thereof. In such a case, the database shall be updated to reflect, primarily, changes to the details of the location, the metocean data, and the metocean parameters for design. This then usually leads to a rerun of the evaluation stage of the SIM system to account for the effects of the transit from the previous site. Both of these can result in alterations to the conclusions of the planning phase of the SIM system.

18.4 Implementation issues

18.4.1 Personnel qualifications

All evaluations and the development and maintenance of the inspection strategy shall be performed by an appropriately qualified team of personnel who are

- familiar with relevant information about the specific structures under consideration,
- knowledgeable about corrosion and erosion processes and prevention,
- professionally competent in structural engineering, and
- experienced in offshore inspection tools and techniques.

These personnel should also be involved in any other phases of the structural integrity management cycle for the floating structure, for example, in subsequent risk assessments, where practical.

Only suitably qualified personnel, such as supervisors, inspectors, divers, ROV operators and data recorders, shall be assigned to perform inspections.

These persons shall be

- a) qualified to relevant standards, and
- b) trained, qualified and experienced in inspection and safe working procedures.

18.4.2 Equipment certification

Any equipment or measuring instruments used as part of a structural inspection and monitoring system shall be provided with current, valid calibration certificates, or a ready means of confirming that they remain within acceptable calibration standards.

18.4.3 Inspection programmes

The following types of inspections can be used when planning and implementing inspection programmes, some of which could be performed underwater.

GVI	general visual inspection
CVI	close-up visual inspection
TM	thickness measurements
WI	weld inspection
FMD	flooded member detection
CP	cathodic protection system inspection

Each of the inspection types is described in A.18.4.3 together with some of the techniques and types of equipment that can be employed to perform them. The list of techniques and types of equipment is not exhaustive and the owner may exploit other alternatives. The reliability, accuracy, precision and tolerance of the system, including the operating personnel, shall be established.

When developing the requirements for an inspection programme, an inspection at a general level may be specified (e.g. GVI compared with CVI, CVI compared with TM or WI). Should evidence be discovered in the course of a general inspection that a more detailed type of inspection is needed, then the more detailed type of inspection shall be performed. For example, if coating breakdown is detected during a GVI, then a CVI and/or TM inspection should be performed immediately, to quantify whether the breakdown has allowed the onset of corrosion and, if so, to what extent.

If an anomaly is discovered during an inspection,

- its extent and seriousness shall be quantified by a more detailed type of inspection, or
- its possible progressive spreading or intensifying shall be assessed by analysis within the SIM system fit-for-purpose framework.

18.4.4 Preparations for inspections

18.4.4.1 Access

Precautions shall be taken to ensure safety during inspections. Tanks and spaces shall be made safe for entry and work. Any equipment that is needed to effect an emergency recovery shall be readily available and checked to ensure it is in full working order before any tank is entered.

All tanks and spaces subject to internal inspections shall be thoroughly ventilated to ensure they are gas-free prior to personnel entry. During inspections, they shall be monitored for pockets or emissions of hazardous gases. Casings, ceilings or linings, and loose insulation where fitted, are to be removed as necessary for examination of plating and framing. Staging, rope attachment points (for abseiling) or other safe forms of support are to be provided to enable access to all parts of tanks and spaces subject to CVI, TM and WI.

Some floating platforms can adopt a particular draught or trim to make specific areas of their hull or critical structural details accessible for inspection, maintenance and repair.

Inspection of areas that are predominantly above water or in the splash zone can be undertaken during quiet sea conditions by providing moveable staging from which an inspector can apply the appropriate type of inspection or measurement.

Some areas of the hull, specific structural details and appurtenances and associated coatings remain submerged or in the splash zone throughout the design service life and can only be inspected, maintained or repaired by a ROV or diver, or by building a temporary cofferdam around them.

For safety reasons, the use of a ROV should be preferred to a diver intervention.

Operational planning and preparation should be carried out to ensure that all activities associated with the intended inspection, maintenance or repair can be performed within weather windows or restricted time-slots consistent with other platform systems.

18.4.4.2 Cleaning

In preparation for inspections, all spaces shall be cleaned, including the removal from surfaces of all accumulated loose corrosion scale, water, dirt, oil residues, etc. The spaces and surfaces should be sufficiently clean to reveal corrosion, deformation, fractures, damage, or other structural deterioration, and for the extent of these to be correctly measured and recorded. Cement and other bonded surface treatments shall be checked for adherence and removed if not sound or where the condition of the plating beneath is in doubt.

Some inspection techniques require coating removal (e.g. MPI) necessitating reinstatement following such inspection. Consequently, it can be advantageous to adopt techniques that do not require coating removal or thorough cleaning (e.g. eddy current, ACFM).

Anti-fouling coatings are generally applied to the external surface of the hull to prevent build-up of marine growth. In some areas, coatings can be only partially successful, leading to the build-up of hard and soft marine growth, and it can be necessary to remove both types of marine growth before a CVI or other similar inspection can be performed. Care should be taken to avoid damaging coatings where they remain effective.

Most types of inspections performed on floating structures can be implemented without removing or damaging the coatings.

ROVs are generally capable of removing marine growth. Where divers are deployed as an alternative to, or in conjunction with, ROVs, care shall be exercised to ensure that water intake systems are not in use or activated when a diver is in the vicinity.

18.4.5 Inspection results and actions

The records of all inspections shall be entered into the database, see 18.2.2. Should any deterioration or damage be detected, an evaluation shall be performed to quantify the effect on the floating structure's integrity. Should the deterioration or damage be found in a special area, this should be reflected in the level of evaluation performed. If such evaluation determines it to contain substantial corrosion, such an area should be subject to increased CVI and TM as determined by the SIM system.

18.4.6 Maintenance programmes

Maintenance programmes shall be developed by the owner based on the expected life of the mechanical system or component under consideration. The supplier/manufacturer can be of considerable help in preparing an appropriate maintenance programme. In preparing maintenance programmes, however, account shall be taken of conditions under which the floating structure is operating that can lead to premature breakdown of the system or equipment, and contingency plans shall be developed accordingly.

18.4.7 Monitoring programmes

Monitoring programmes can be used to help check the condition of a floating structure over a period of time and in the carrying out of day-to-day operations. They can be fully continuous, as in the use of tension measuring devices for mooring lines, or discrete, as in most of the techniques discussed in A.18.4.3.

Techniques have been, and are constantly being, developed that can monitor various forms of damage and deterioration, and which alert the owner when advanced to a stage where action is required to prevent further progress. The results of such techniques should be assessed on a regular basis in conjunction with the database, in order to assist in the identification of significant deterioration.

18.5 Minimum requirements

18.5.1 General

For cases where a formal risk-based approach has not been pursued to determine locations and intervals of inspections, this subclause specifies the minimum scope and periodicity of inspections to be performed. These minimum requirements are intended to supplement those of any applicable standards or RCS rule or equivalent, where in use.

For monohulls and semi-submersibles, the provisions of this subclause are based on well-documented experiences.

For spars, the equivalent experience base is less developed. In this case, the designer shall ensure that these minimum requirements remain adequate as the technology matures.

For innovative designs, best professional engineering judgement and a degree of caution are necessary. Guidelines should be provided to encourage operating personnel to make occurrence reports so that these can be properly evaluated.

The following minimum requirements have been developed for floating structures with design service lives in excess of 10 years and which can move location and change owner.

18.5.2 Minimum inspection requirements for main structure

18.5.2.1 General

The general requirements as stated in 18.4.3 shall apply.

Working within an overall asset integrity management framework, alternative inspection programmes may be used, provided they can be shown to satisfy levels of safety equivalent to, or greater than, those implied by the minimum requirements given below.

In general, when a detailed type of inspection is required to be performed due to evidence discovered in the course of a less detailed inspection, the more detailed type of inspection should be performed with at least the same frequency as that of the more general inspection type. It can, however, be necessary to perform more frequent inspections using the more detailed type of inspection to ensure that the integrity of the structure is not compromised.

Table 7 specifies minimum requirements for the type of inspection and the frequency with which each shall be performed for the main components of floating structures. Each of the inspection types is discussed further in the following subclauses.

Table 7 — Inspection requirements for main components (including CP systems)

Component	Location	GVI		CVI		TM		WI	
		<i>I</i> years	<i>E</i> %	<i>I</i> years	<i>E</i> %	<i>I</i> years	<i>E</i> %	<i>I</i> years	<i>E</i> %
Exterior structure ^a	Atmospheric	1	100	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Splash zone above water line	1	100	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Splash zone below water line and submerged	2,5	100	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Special areas	—	—	2,5	100	—	—	2,5 ^b	50 ^b
Interior structure ^a	Ballast tanks ^c	1	20	5	—	15 ^d	—	—	—
	Slop tanks	2,5	50	—	—	5	—	—	—
	Oil storage cargo tanks	2,5	50	2,5	50 ^e	5	—	—	—
	Storage tanks exterior (fuel oil, potable water, lubrication oil)	5	100	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Storage tanks interior (fuel oil, potable water, lubrication oil)	15	100	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Void spaces	5	100	—	—	5 ^f	—	—	—
	Machinery spaces	1	100	—	—	1 ^f	—	—	—
	Special areas	—	—	1	100	—	—	2,5 ^b	50 ^b
CP system	External	—	—	2,5	—	2,5 ^g	—	—	—
	Internal	—	—	5	—	—	—	—	—
Any	Showing substantial corrosion					1 ^h	100		

I inspection interval (in years)

E extent (percentage) of inspection

NOTE The extent applies to the total number of components, e.g. tanks.

^a Including girders, stiffeners, plating, attachments, appurtenances, openings, penetrations, vents and pipes.

^b The procedures according to 18.2.3 may be used to demonstrate longer intervals, and/or lesser extents are acceptable subject to the requirement of 18.5.2.5.

^c Ballast tanks are assumed to have a suitable hard coating, see A.18.5.2.1

^d More frequent intervals can be required where the coating breakdown is found.

^e One transverse section and adjacent frames (different ones at successive inspections) plus one transverse bulkhead together with adjacent transverse section and frame (opposite tank ends at successive inspections).

^f At discretion of owner.

^g Measure cathodic potential readings and check for fouling/damage.

^h More frequently if recommended by the owner.

In general, scheduled inspections should be performed within three months of the due date unless a written justification is submitted and accepted by all interested parties. Alternatively, a continuous inspection programme may be acceptable.

The intervals and extent of weld inspections required for special areas shall be critically evaluated and established such that the probability that a critical structural defect can develop within the interval between inspections is consistent with that to realize a reliability level equivalent to that implicit in this part of ISO 19904.

18.5.2.2 General visual inspection (GVI)

One of the main objectives of the GVI is to establish the condition of coatings. It is normally possible as a result of a GVI to assess this without resorting to a CVI. The coating condition shall be graded as follows.

Good: a condition with only minor spot rusting.

Fair: a condition with local breakdown of the edges of stiffeners and weld connections and/or light rusting over 20 % or more of areas under consideration, but less than as defined for poor condition.

Poor: a condition with general breakdown of coating over 20 %, or hard scale at 10 % or more of the areas under consideration.

If the coating is good, CVI and TM are not normally required. If the coating is fair, consideration should be given to performing a CVI annually and TM every 5 years. If the coating is poor, a CVI shall be performed annually, in addition to TM, if required by the owner.

18.5.2.3 Close-up visual inspection (CVI)

Special areas (internal) or areas where the coating condition is poor shall be subject to CVI annually unless more frequent inspections are recommended by the designer or as a result of a special structural assessment.

18.5.2.4 Thickness measurements (TM)

TM shall be performed on all areas suspected of suffering substantial corrosion. They should also be performed at the owner's discretion where the coating condition is poor and, in any case, at 5 year intervals where the coating condition is fair.

18.5.2.5 Weld inspections (WI)

The intervals and extent of weld inspections required for special areas shall be critically evaluated and established such that the probability that a critical structural defect can develop within the interval between inspections is minimized.

18.5.2.6 Cathodic protection system inspection (CP system inspection)

Sacrificial anodes should be examined for depletion and replaced if not in a satisfactory condition, taking due account of inspection intervals. CP potential measurements may be used to demonstrate the satisfactory performance of sacrificial anodes.

Impressed current system anodes and cathodes shall be checked for damage, fouling by marine growth and carbonate deposits.

Any repairs or replacements to the CP system shall be recorded in the database.

18.5.3 Minimum inspection requirements for structural and non-structural attachments

Table 8 specifies minimum requirements for the type of inspection and the frequency with which they are to be performed for the various structural and non-structural attachments.

Structural attachments not listed in Table 8 should be matched to the attachment in the table whose conditions of exposure, loading and maintenance most closely resemble those of the attachment in question.

Table 8 — Inspection requirements for structural and non-structural attachments

Attachment	Component	Location	Frequency of inspection years			
			GVI	CVI	TM	WI
Structural	Cranes	Foundation	—	1	—	5
		Pedestal ^a	—	—	—	—
	Flare/vent	Foundation	—	1	—	5
		Structure	1	—	—	5
	Deckhouse	Foundation	1	—	—	—
	Helideck	Foundation	—	1	—	5
		Structure	1	—	—	—
	Turret	Foundation	—	1	—	1
		Structure	—	1	5	5
	Hose-reel connection	Foundation	—	1	—	5
		Structure	—	1	—	—
	Riser support	Foundation	—	1	—	5
		Structure	—	2,5	—	—
	Process deck support	Foundation	—	1	—	—
		Structure	—	2,5	—	—
	Chain stoppers/table	Structure	—	2,5	—	—
	Hawser reel	Foundation	—	1	—	5
		Structure	—	2,5	—	—
	Drilling derrick support	Foundation	—	1	—	5
		Structure	—	1	—	—
Tandem mooring	Foundation	—	1	—	5	
	Structure	—	1	—	—	
Breakwater	Foundation	—	1	—	5	
	Structure	1	—	—	—	
Non-structural	External	—	2,5	2,5	—	
	Internal	—	5	—	—	
^a See A.18.5.3.						

18.5.4 Inspection results and actions

The effects of deterioration shall be assessed on a case by case basis. Such evaluation shall be performed in accordance with the provisions of 18.2.3.

18.5.5 Tank testing and watertightness

Tanks for product storage shall be tested with a head of liquid to the top of access hatches, for cargo tanks, or the top of air pipes, for ballast tanks. As a minimum, such tests shall be performed at five year intervals, or more frequently if the need is established by the SIM system.

Testing may be waived by agreement of owner, RCS and/or regulatory authority if coatings remain intact and no significant thickness reductions are found during inspection, unless structural modification to the tank has been performed. With such agreement, lack of leakage during operational filling of adjacent tanks may be taken to demonstrate watertight integrity.

Consideration should be given to the loaded condition of adjacent tanks when the test head is to be imposed. It is important to establish that the corresponding conditions were considered and checked by the designer. Caution is required, owing to the risk of damage arising during these tests.

For other floating structures that do not store large quantities of product, the watertight integrity of tanks, bulkheads, hull and other compartments shall be verified by visual inspection. Areas of severe corrosion shall be tested for watertightness, non-destructive tested or thickness gauged.

Annex A (informative)

Additional information and guidance

NOTE 1 The clauses in this annex provide additional information and guidance on clauses in the body of this part of ISO 19904. The same numbering system and heading titles have been used for ease in identifying the subclause in the body of this part of ISO 19904 to which it relates.

NOTE 2 In this part of ISO 19904, the verbal forms “shall” and “shall not” are used to indicate requirements strictly to be followed in order to conform to the document and from which no deviation is permitted.

NOTE 3 In this part of ISO 19904, the verbal forms “should” and “should not” are used to indicate that among several possibilities one is recommended as particularly suitable, without mentioning or excluding others, or that a certain course of action is preferred but not necessarily required, or that (in the negative form) a certain possibility or course of action is deprecated but not prohibited.

NOTE 4 In this part of ISO 19904, the verbal forms “may” and “need not” are used to indicate a course of action permissible within the limits of the document.

NOTE 5 In this part of ISO 19904, the verbal forms “can” and “cannot” are used for statements of possibility and capability, whether material, physical or causal.

A.1 Scope

Figures A.1, A.2 and A.3 show typical examples of the types of floating structures covered by this part of ISO 19904.

RCS rules and equivalent national documents are frequently referenced throughout this part of ISO 19904. Reference to specific RCS or equivalent documents, along with more general documents, are included in this annex. References [4], [20], [23], [46], [57], [68], [69], [75], [76], [77], [84] and [160] form a good basis for the overall planning, design and operation of floating offshore structures.

NOTE Mention of these particular references does not constitute an endorsement of all the methods and recommendations contained therein. It is therefore advisable to verify with RCS the latest versions of applicable rules. The references listed could be completely or partly superseded by newer or other rules.

The provisions of this International Standard do not apply to the structural systems of mobile offshore units (MOUs), including floating structures intended primarily to perform drilling and/or well intervention operations. These are covered by the IMO MODU Code^[127] and RCS rules, for example, References [19], [57], [122] and [161].

For details of structural design related to the use of concrete, see ISO 19903^[156].

For floating structures intended to operate in arctic environments, this part of ISO 19904 should be supplemented by ISO 19906^[158] or other suitable standards.

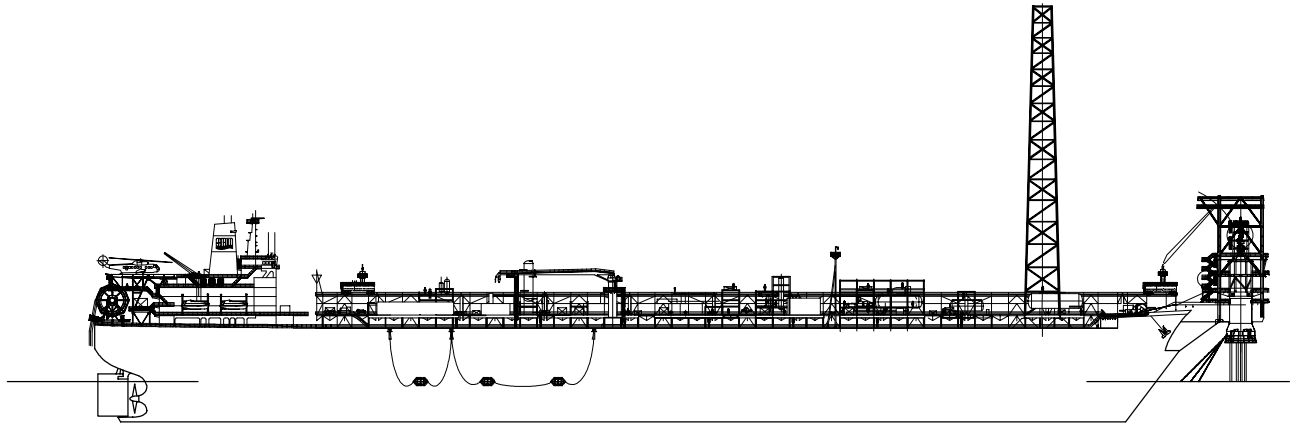


Figure A.1 — Monohull floating structure

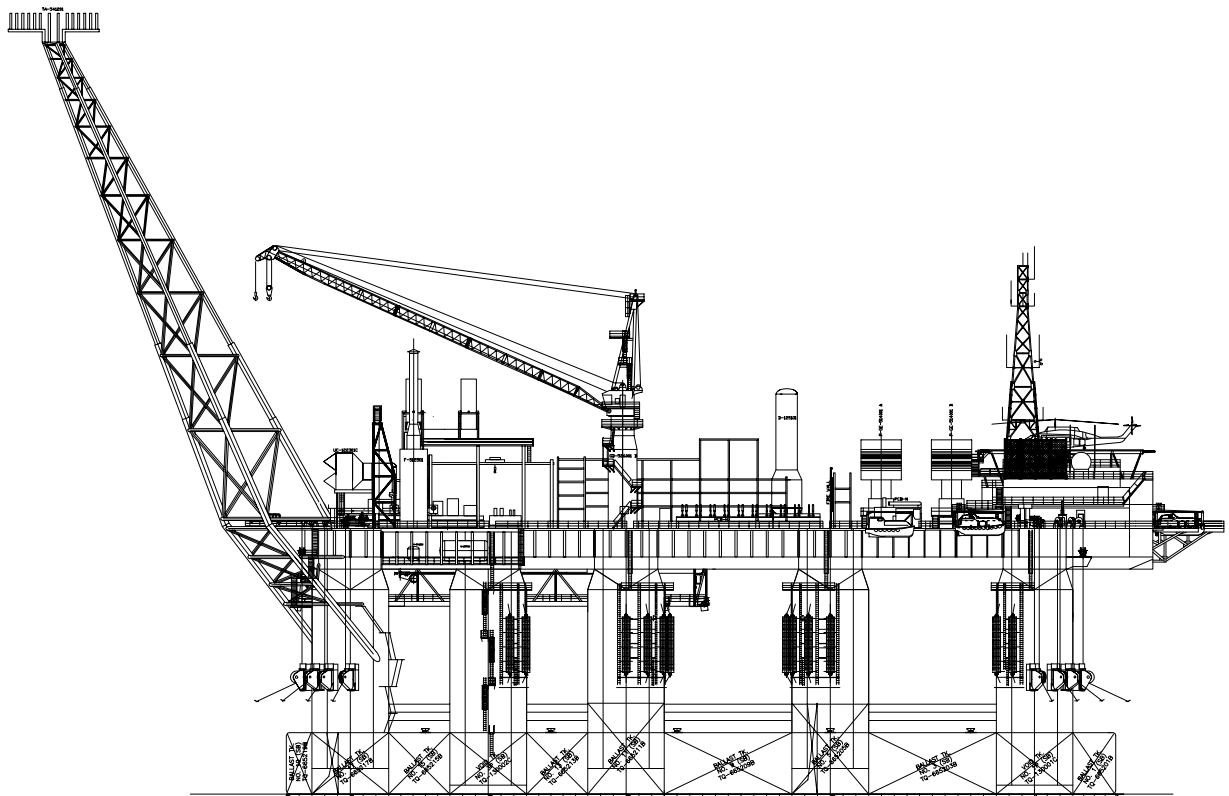


Figure A.2 — Semi-submersible floating structure

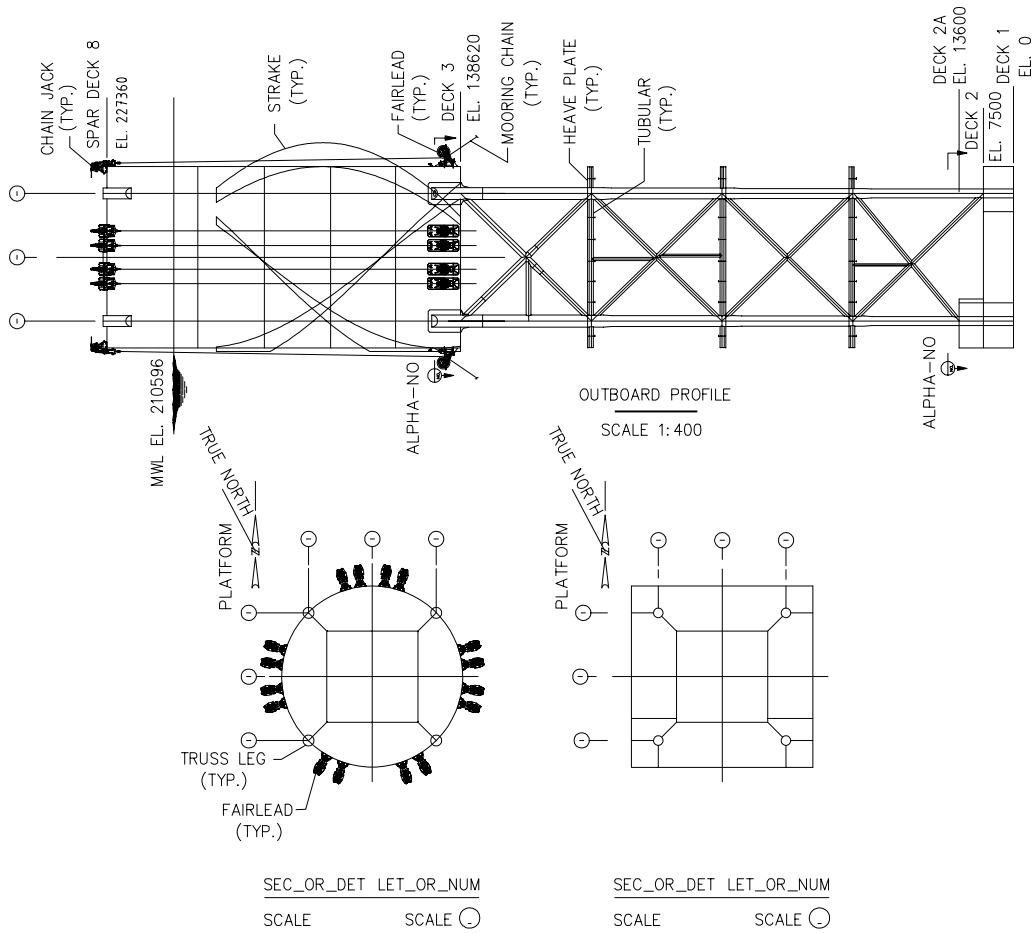


Figure A.3 — Spar floating structure

A.2 Normative references

No guidance is offered.

A.3 Terms and definitions

No guidance is offered.

A.4 Symbols and abbreviated terms

No guidance is offered.

A.5 Overall considerations

A.5.1 Functional requirements

In general, the functional requirements for floating offshore structures are identical to those for other offshore structures. Tension leg platform (TLP) requirements are to be included in ISO 19904-2^[157] or reference can be made to API RP 2T^[25].

Floating structures are generally used as an alternative to fixed structures for applications where the water depth would make bottom-founded structures impractical or uneconomical, or when ease of removal and redeployment of the structure are economically attractive.

Floating structures used mainly for drilling operations, or for construction, transportation, etc., are subject to the requirements of the IMO MODU Code^[127] and/or RCS rules^{[19], [57], [122], [161]}.

A.5.2 Safety requirements

In general, floating structures should be designed so that the arrangement and separation of various spaces — particularly living quarters — relative to oil storage tanks, are in accordance with IMO SOLAS regulations^[128]. However, the placement of machinery spaces above oil storage tanks may be accepted, on condition that an equivalent level of separation and protection is provided.

RCS rules or equivalent define areas or compartments of monohulls as “hazardous areas” according to their proximity to equipment, pipes or tanks containing certain flammable liquids and depending on whether or not these fluids are at temperatures approaching or exceeding their flashpoints. An example of this is given by Reference [59], while [72] describes safety principles and arrangements.

Guidance on the conduct of formal risk assessments is to be found in References [15], [70], [114] and [170].

On oil tankers, the main hazardous area extends over the cargo tank area up to a height of between 2,4 m and 3,0 m above the main deck. Hazardous areas also exist around tank vent outlets and any other areas connected with the loading or discharge of cargo. On monohull platforms the process equipment is accommodated on a deck structure constructed at a height of at least 3,0 m above the cargo/upper deck.

A.5.3 Planning requirements

As noted in ISO 19900, structural integrity and serviceability throughout the design service life are not simply functions of the design calculations, but are also dependent on the quality control exercised in construction, the supervision on-site and the manner in which the structure is used and maintained.

A.5.4 Rules and regulations

No guidance is offered.

A.5.5 General requirements

A.5.5.1 General

The design of a floating structure has many points of similarity with that of a seagoing ship. Accordingly, many concepts and rules can be extrapolated from those used in the shipping and marine industries. On the other hand, some notable differences exist and should be adequately accounted for, including the following.

a) Site-specific environment

For floating structures, strength standards set by RCSs are based on criteria relating to a world-wide trading pattern.

b) Dynamic actions characteristics

The actions on the hull of a floating structure are substantially different from those associated with seagoing trading ships, see Reference [16].

c) Effect of mooring system

Static and dynamic mooring and riser forces can be substantial, and their effects on the hull girder longitudinal bending moments and shear forces should be accounted for in the design calculations.

d) Long-term service at a fixed location

Seagoing ships generally spend a proportion of their time in sheltered water conditions. Permanently moored structures normally remain on station all the time and disconnectable structures only move off station in certain conditions and generally remain in the local area. In addition, the expectation of the field life can be in excess of 20 years.

e) Seas approaching from a predominant direction

For seagoing ships, in severe weather steps are generally taken to minimize the effects of such conditions, such as altering course or alternative routing. Moored permanent structures generally cannot take such evasive actions, and even those with weathervaning capability can experience a greater proportion of waves approaching from bow sector directions.

f) Zero ship speed

Although moored structures generally have zero forward speed, the use of zero forward speed in calculations where forward speed is a parameter is not necessarily conservative when estimating the effect of such calculations on a moored structure.

g) Range of operating loading conditions

Seagoing tankers have a fairly limited range of operational conditions and are typically “fully”-loaded or ballasted. Many types of moored platforms, in consideration of their oil storage capability, should be checked for a large number of design situations. These can include a full range, from ballast through intermediate conditions to fully loaded, returning to ballast via offloading.

h) Tank inspection requirements

Seagoing ships are generally taken to dry dock for periodic survey and repair. Permanently moored structures are usually inspected on station. Thus a full range of design situations should be verified, covering each tank (or combinations of tanks) empty in turn, in combination with site-specific environmental actions.

i) Change in return period from normal RCS requirements

Typical RCS rules for ships are based on providing adequate safety margins against events with a 20 year return period. This part of ISO 19904 provides instead that the design should be based on a typical return period of 100 years.

A.5.5.2 Structural design philosophy

Satisfactory protection against accidental damage may be obtained by a combination of the following measures:

- a) reduction of the probability of damage to an acceptable level;
- b) reduction of the consequences of damage to an acceptable level.

The use of ductile materials leads to a structure that does not collapse suddenly, because ductility allows a structure to redistribute internal forces and thus absorb more energy prior to failure. Measures for obtaining structural ductility include

- making the strength of connections greater than the strength of the members,
- providing redundancy in the structure, so that alternate load redistribution paths can be developed,
- avoiding dependence on energy absorption in slender struts and slender unstiffened and stiffened plates and shells with limited degrees of post-buckling reserve strength,
- avoiding pronounced weak sections and abrupt changes in strength or stiffness, and
- using materials that are ductile in the operating temperature range.

A.5.5.3 Design criteria

No guidance is offered.

A.5.5.4 Service and operational considerations

ISO 19900 provides the main service and operational requirements to be considered in the establishment of the design basis for floating structures. These include

- service requirements,
- manning,
- risers,
- equipment and material layouts;
- drilling rig access,
- personnel and material transfer,
- motions and vibrations,
- any special requirements,
- location and orientation, and
- removal.

A.5.5.5 Hydrostatic stability

No guidance is offered.

A.5.5.6 Compartmentation

No guidance is offered.

A.5.5.7 Weight control

Details on the implementation of mass distribution verification are given in ISO 19901-5^[154].

A.5.5.8 Global response

No guidance is offered.

A.5.5.9 Stationkeeping

Reference should be made to ISO 19901-7 for further information on stationkeeping systems.

A.5.5.10 Materials

Reference on materials can be found in RCS rules, for example, Reference [73].

A.5.6 Independent verification

General requirements in respect of quality control are stated in ISO 19900.

A.5.7 Analytical tools

When the global analytical model does not take account (or full account) of local action effects, or the global analytical model does not contain sufficient detail to analyse a certain response to the required accuracy, local detailed analytical models should be established to evaluate local structural response. Such a case normally applies to hull tank arrangements in structures with a relatively deep draught, where detailed FE analysis should be performed in order to evaluate responses from all relevant combinations of internal and external pressure actions. Combined responses from various action combinations are then normally developed by linear superposition of the individual action effects.

It is normally not practical to consider all relevant actions (both global and local) in a single model, for the following reasons, among others.

- Single model solutions do not normally contain sufficient structural detailing, e.g. for ULS structural assessment, response down to the level of the stress in plate fields between stiffeners is normally required.

EXAMPLE Internal structure not modelled in sufficient detail to establish internal structural response to the degree of accuracy required, or insufficient element type, shape or fineness (e.g. mesh size).

- Single model solutions do not normally account for the full range of internal and external pressure combinations.

EXAMPLE Internal tank pressure up to the maximum design pressure, maximum external pressures, full extent of internal and external pressure combinations.

- Variations in tank actions across the section of the structure.

EXAMPLE Where the structural section is subdivided into a number of watertight compartments across its section.

- Design situations that need not be covered by global analysis.

EXAMPLE Damage, inclined conditions.

- Single model solutions do not normally account for the full range of “global” tank loading conditions.

EXAMPLE Tank loading distributions along the length of the floating structure, asymmetric tank actions.

- Single model solutions need not fully account for all action effects.

EXAMPLE Viscous effects (drag actions) on slender members, riser interface actions and thruster actions.

Generally, single model solutions containing sufficient detail to include consideration of all relevant actions and design situations result in extremely large models with a very large number of load cases. Therefore, it is often more practical and efficient to analyse different action effects utilizing a number of appropriate models and superimposing the responses from one model with the responses from another in order to assess the total utilization of the structure.

In order to satisfy equations of equilibrium for floating systems it is not normally practical to apply action factors. In such cases, it is instead generally appropriate to factor the response rather than the action. However, when applying this approach to non-linear systems, considerable care should be exercised.

A.5.8 In-service inspection and maintenance

See A.18.4.3 for further information on inspection programmes.

A.5.9 Assessment of existing floating structures

No guidance is offered.

A.5.10 Reuse of existing floating structures

No guidance is offered.

A.6 Basic design requirements

A.6.1 General

The general principles on which requirements for the structural design of offshore platforms are based are documented in ISO 19900.

A.6.2 Exposure levels

Life safety categories and consequence categories are classifications of offshore structures according to different considerations. In practice, they represent intermediate steps to arrive at exposure levels, which combine the two classifications into a single scale. This provides a framework for design and assessment of structures with different levels of exposure (L1, L2 and L3), which, in principle, could be designed with different partial safety factors.

As the industry has yet to develop and agree on different sets of factors, the current edition of this part of ISO 19904 deals only with L1 structures. The requirements for L2 and L3 floating structures will be included as soon as industry-wide consensus is achieved. Alternatively, individual countries may introduce them in Regional Annexes.

The definitions of exposure levels given in this part of ISO 19904 are in accordance with the other, related International Standards in the series (see list in Foreword). Providing specific criteria and numerical values for the many parameters involved is not practical. Consequently, this part of ISO 19904 provides some guidance, to be supplemented by a degree of subjective judgment, best left to the owner in conjunction with the regulator.

A.6.3 Limit states

Examples of limit states are documented in ISO 19900.

A.6.4 Design situations

A.6.4.1 General

Design situations should be determined in accordance with ISO 19900 and with the provisions of ISO 19901-1.

Aspects to be considered in determining design situations include the following:

- service requirements for the intended function of the floating structure;
- expected service life for each function;
- method and duration of construction activities;
- expected method of removal of the structure and, where applicable, any intended relocation;
- hazards (accidental and abnormal events) to which the structure can be exposed during its design service life;
- potential consequences of partial or complete structural failure;
- nature and severity of environmental conditions (meteorological, oceanographic and active geological processes) to be expected during its construction and design service life.

A.6.4.2 Design situations for ULS

When actions act simultaneously, representative values may be determined based upon consideration of the joint probability of the events. Design values of representative environmental actions should always be established with the intention to result in the most probable largest (or smallest) action effect for the limit state under consideration. Different design situations can give rise to the most onerous action effects for different components in the structure.

A.6.4.3 Design situations for SLS

No guidance is offered.

A.6.4.4 Design situations for FLS

No guidance is offered.

A.6.4.5 Design situations for ALS

Monohulls based on converted tankers, which can have void or water ballast tanks in the side, concentrated around midships, can experience relatively large hull girder bending moments in the case where two adjacent tanks are damaged. Such bending moments can exceed the minimum RCS requirements for the intact structure by a significant percentage. Consequently, in addition to a check on the structure's stability (see Clause 15), the residual strength of the hull girder should be verified in the damaged condition.

A.6.4.6 Temporary phases

For temporary phase conditions, the reduction of the return period applicable for establishing the environmental actions may normally be taken as follows.

- a) For operations with a duration no greater than 3 days, design environmental conditions should be established such that the temporary operation is not initiated unless reliable weather forecasts provide adequate assurance that the limiting environmental design conditions will not be exceeded.
- b) For operations with a duration greater than 3 days but where it is possible to abort the temporary phase operation within a period not exceeding 24 h, design environmental conditions should be established

such that the temporary operation is not initiated unless reliable weather forecasts provide adequate assurance that the limiting environmental design criteria will not be exceeded. In such cases, the operation should be discontinued if the weather forecasts indicate environmental conditions in excess of those established as design conditions.

- c) For operations with a duration greater than 3 days, but where the operation does not involve risk of life, injury to personnel, or significant environmental consequences, a minimum of a one year return period should be used as the environmental design condition. This condition may take account of seasonal effects but should normally not be taken as being less than a two month seasonal span.

The structure, supported during construction by keel and bottom blocks on the dock floor, is generally launched by controlled flooding of the dock. During the undocking operation, critical aspects regarding the actions on blocks and the structure are difficult to predict. Accordingly, analyses are generally limited to the evaluation of the stability of the structure, which can be critical due to the light displacement.

Guidance on marine operations is given in ISO 19901-6^[155].

A.7 Actions and action effects

A.7.1 General

ISO 19900 contains general principles governing the definitions of actions, action effects and action combinations that can influence the safety of a floating structure or its parts throughout the structure's life cycle.

A.7.2 Permanent actions (*G*)

Permanent actions generally include, but are not limited to

- self weight of structures,
- weight of topsides permanent fixtures and functional equipment,
- weight of permanent ballast and equipment,
- deformations imposed during construction,
- deformations due to differential support settlement during fabrication,
- actions resulting from distortions due to welding,
- actions resulting from external hydrostatic pressure, and
- pre-tension in mooring lines, if of a permanent nature.

Control and monitoring of the mass and centre of gravity of offshore structures is discussed in ISO 19901-5^[154].

A.7.3 Variable actions (*Q*)

Variable actions generally include, but are not limited to

- actions due to personnel occupancy and associated logistics (helicopter landings, etc.),
- actions due to performance of the structure's operations (crane hook and drilling hook actions, etc.),
- actions associated with drilling operations,
- self weight of temporary structures and equipment,

- actions associated with stored materials, equipment, gas, fluids and fluid pressure,
- actions associated with installation operations,
- actions from fendering and mooring,
- actions from variable cargo, ballast and equipment,
- deformations due to global bending of the hull,
- all moving actions such as for movable drilling derricks, and
- deformations due to changes in temperature (including sea and air temperatures).

In the absence of specific requirements, the local design action intensities stated in Table A.1 (adapted from NORSOK Standard N-003^[167]) may be used in the structural design of the deck of a floating platform. Local action effects resulting from these action intensities should be combined with the corresponding global action effects for the structural components in question.

Table A.1 — Minimum local design action intensities for decks

Area	Local design ^a		Factor to be applied to distributed action for:	
	Distributed action kN/m ²	Point action kN	Primary design ^b	Global design ^c
Storage area	q	$1,5q$	1,0	1,0
Laydown area	q	$1,5q$	f	f
Lifeboat platform	9,0	9,0	1,0	d
Area between equipment	5,0	5,0	f	d
Walkway, staircase and platform	4,0	4,0	f	d
Walkway and stairway for inspection and repair only	3,0	3,0	f	d
Roof accessible for inspection and repair only	1,0	2,0	1,0	d

q is to be evaluated for each case as follows:

- storage areas for cement or wet or dry mud should be 13 kN/m^2 or ρgH , whichever is the larger, where
 - ρ is the mass density (in kg/m^3),
 - g is the acceleration due to gravity (m/s^2), and
 - H is the storage height (m);
- laydown areas are not normally designed for less than 15 kN/m^2 .

f is equal to either 1,0 or $(0,5 + 3/A^{0,5})$, whichever is the smaller, where A is the action area, expressed in square metres.

Wheel actions are to be added to distributed actions where relevant (wheel actions can normally be considered acting on an area of $300 \text{ mm} \times 300 \text{ mm}$).

Point actions are to be applied on an area $100 \text{ mm} \times 100 \text{ mm}$, and at the most severe position, but not added to wheel actions or distributed actions.

For actions on floors in accommodation and office sections, see ISO 2103^[137].

Handrails should be designed for $1,5 \text{ kN/m}$, acting horizontally.

^a Design of deck plates and stiffeners.

^b Design of deck beams and beam columns.

^c Design of deck main structure (and substructure). Global action cases should be established based upon "worst case", representative variable action combinations, complying with the limiting global criteria to the structure. For buoyant structures, these criteria are established by requirements to the floating position in still water, and intact and damage stability requirements, as documented in the MOM, considering variable actions on the deck and in tanks.

^d May be ignored.

A.7.4 Accidental actions (A)

A.7.4.1 General

Accidental actions typically result from, for example:

- collision/impact with or from a vessel, helicopter or other objects;
- dropped objects;
- fire and blast;
- change of intended pressure difference;
- leaks;
- unintended change in ballast distribution;
- unintended flooding of a hull compartment;
- failure of mooring lines(s);
- loss of DP system causing loss of heading;
- loss of propulsion or tug during transit to site leading to exposure to beam sea.

A.7.4.2 Collision

The energy absorbed by the floating structure during a collision impact is less than or equal to the total impact kinetic energy, depending on the relative stiffness of the impacted parts of the floating structure and the impacting vessel and also on the mode of collision and vessel operation. These factors may be taken into account when considering the energy absorbed by the floating structure.

For the North Sea and the Gulf of Mexico, typical standby vessel sizes and corresponding impact velocities are listed in Table A.2.

Table A.2 — Typical standby vessel sizes and impact velocities

Location	Typical vessel mass tonnes	Typical impact speed m/s
Northern North Sea	5 000	2,0
Southern North Sea	2 500	2,0
Gulf of Mexico	1 000	0,5

Typical added mass coefficients are 1,4 for broadside collisions and 1,1 for bow/stern collisions.

Reference should be made to IMO MARPOL^[130] and RCS stability rules or equivalent for typical collision zones.

A.7.4.3 Dropped object

No guidance is offered.

A.7.4.4 Fire and blast

When assessing blast overpressure actions and duration, consideration should be given to all relevant parameters, including the following:

- the stoichiometric composition of the explosive mixture;
- the position and volume of equipment, piping, etc., in the area;
- the venting arrangements, configuration of confining bulkheads, etc.;
- position of ignition within the area under consideration;
- dimensions of the area where the blast is expected to occur, etc.

The range of overpressures encountered in respect of hydrocarbon explosions in offshore oil and gas structures is normally about 0,5 bar although overpressures can occasionally reach values as high as 5 bar to 6 bar⁵⁾.

A.7.5 Environmental actions (*E*)

A.7.5.1 General

Environmental actions include, but are not limited to, actions caused by

- wind,
- waves,
- currents,
- marine growth, snow and accumulated ice acting in conjunction with other environmental actions, and their effects on variable actions,
- ice sheets or floes,
- temperatures (including effects on material properties), and
- earthquakes.

If special circumstances require consideration of seismic actions, reference should be made to ISO 19901-2^[152]. An in-depth presentation of actions on general structural types is given in EN 1991 Eurocode 1^[101]. Environmental conditions and actions are also covered by Reference [93].

A.7.5.2 Environmental site-specific data

Environmental statistics and characteristics are described in ISO 19901-1.

Global circulation currents are driven by large-scale global effects. Loop currents are associated with major ocean current circulation patterns, e.g. Gulf of Mexico loop current. Eddy currents are circulatory features shed from loop or other major circulation currents. Eddy currents can persist for several months or more. Internal waves are propagating waves that can occur at the interface between layers of fluids having different densities.

⁵⁾ 1 bar = 0,1 MPa = 10⁵ Pa; 1 MPa = 1 N/mm²

A.7.5.3 Wind actions

For monohulls that are similar in profile to very large crude carriers (VLCCs), wind coefficients may be taken from Reference [174].

Consideration should also be given to wind-sensitive topsides structures, such as flare towers, see also ISO 19901-3[153].

A.7.5.4 Current actions

For monohulls that are similar in profile to VLCCs, current coefficients may be taken from OCIMF Prediction of Wind and Current Loads on VLCCs[174].

A.7.5.5 Wave actions

A.7.5.5.1 General

Wave actions can normally be determined using either a deterministic or a stochastic description of the waves. For application to floating structures, first and higher order perturbation theories are generally used to describe the wave kinematics and resulting wave actions.

Examples of local hydrodynamic instabilities are

- vortex shedding on slender components;
- galloping effects on non-circular slender elements.

A.7.5.5.2 Actions on large-volume bodies

No guidance is offered.

A.7.5.5.3 Actions on slender components

Additional guidance on the choice of the appropriate values for the drag and inertia coefficients is provided in ISO 19902, RCS rules and similar guidelines.

This part of ISO 19904 is not sufficiently detailed to host a discussion on the selection of appropriate hydrodynamic coefficients for floating (and fixed) structures in practical design. The coefficients specified in the normative text are considered minimum acceptable values to ensure an adequate level of safety.

Depending on the wave theory used, an equivalent force coefficient may be employed.

The inertia coefficient for floating structures (and for dynamically-sensitive structures) is different than that for static fixed structures. For floating structures, a higher drag coefficient can be unconservative because it increases the damping level and thus decreases the dynamic response.

Accordingly, valid reasons exist to use different coefficients for the analysis of a static fixed structure and the analysis of a floating (or a dynamically-sensitive) structure. This is further described in the NORSOK Standard N-003[167].

A.7.5.5.4 Slamming on slender components

Time duration and lengthwise extent of slamming actions need consideration. These are short duration events localized near the waterline and depend, among other things, on the rate of immersion of the component. The formula in the normative clause is for instantaneous immersion of the entire component.

See References [67] and [177] for more information.

A.7.5.5.5 Higher order non-linear wave actions

When a linear, regular, first order wave is interacting with itself and a floating structure, actions of different nature arise. In addition to first order linear exciting wave actions, mean non-linear second order forces (drift forces) and non-linear forces varying in time with twice the first order wave frequency act on the structure. Effects due to analytical formulations higher than second order are usually neglected.

Irregular, random waves are modelled as the sum of a large number of elementary waves of given frequencies and amplitudes (a wave spectrum). Superimposing the contributions of the elementary waves, the resulting second order exciting actions contain three components. These are the mean actions (drift), actions varying in time with a frequency equal to the frequency difference (slow drift), and actions varying in time with a frequency equal to the frequency sum (high-frequency actions).

The slow drift actions can be important for the design of stationkeeping systems for floating structures and for offshore loading systems. If current is present, the effect of the current on the mean drift actions and slow drift actions should be taken into account. These effects can alter the mean and varying actions and give rise to associated slow drift damping.

For large-volume structures with a small water-plane area, the slow drift actions can result in large vertical motions.

The sum frequency actions can have an important effect on the total wave action effects on certain types of floating structures. This phenomenon is often referred to as “springing” and is primarily associated with TLPs.

The higher order action effects should be determined by a consistent higher order theory with due reference to model tests.

A.7.5.5.6 Wave enhancement effects

No guidance is offered.

A.7.5.5.7 Shallow water effects

No guidance is offered.

A.7.5.5.8 Slamming and green water actions

Operational experience with trading and other ships has shown that slamming can result in structural damage, particularly on the ship's bottom forward.

The longitudinal extent of slamming depends on hull form and hull scantlings.

Slamming can result in high pressure on local structures and can cause damage in areas remote from the impact area, such as masts, crane posts, helideck supports, deckhouses, piping and equipment.

It is recommended that measurements be taken during the model testing programme to determine frequency, severity and extent of wave impact actions on the hull, so as to devise a suitable strategy for structural design.

Slamming can result in dynamic global bending moments and shear forces in the hull. First order (wave frequency) hull motions and slamming responses are both highest in waves of length approximately equal to the ship length. Slamming on both a flared bow and a flat forefoot can result in large moments. The flat forefoot is particularly susceptible to slamming at small draughts.

Recommended current state-of-the-art publications are References [51], [52], [53], [67], [111], [112], [177], [179] and [180].

A.7.5.6 Vortex-induced vibrations and motions

A.7.5.6.1 Simplified assessment of vortex-induced vibrations and fatigue

A simplified assessment of VIV-induced fatigue of a slender component may be performed using models linking the response amplitude to hydrodynamic parameters such as reduced velocity, Keulegan-Carpenter number and current to wave flow ratio.

The following procedure may be applied.

- a) Assume undisturbed current velocities by neglecting the influence of the waves.
- b) Assume a representative velocity profile.
- c) Identify the planes of vibration for the relevant mode shapes of the component.
- d) Determine the natural frequencies and mode shapes for the component's bending in the cross-flow direction based on analytical models or by FE analysis.
- e) Define a band of local vortex shedding frequencies f_s along and around the component using Equation (A.4) — typically $Sr = 0,14$ to $0,25$.
- f) For each modal frequency, identify the portions of the component that fall within the limits of the local shedding frequency.
- g) Identify the most likely mode shapes to be excited by VIV and select the one with the highest curvature (typically, this is the mode with the highest frequency among the “probable modes”), however, care needs to be taken to ensure that fatigue damage associated with other mode shapes is accounted for.
- h) Assume a vibration amplitude of the component for the anticipated mode equal to

$$a_v = 1,3 \times d \tag{A.1}$$

where

- a_v is the vibration amplitude;
- d is the member outside diameter.

- i) Compute the corresponding stress range:

$$S = C_{SCF} E \kappa d \tag{A.2}$$

where

- S is the stress range;
- C_{SCF} is the stress concentration factor (if applicable);
- E is the material (Young's) modulus;
- κ is the curvature;
- d is the member outside diameter.

- j) Estimate the fatigue damage by application of the relevant S-N curve as

$$D = C_1 f_n T_1 S^{m/C} \tag{A.3}$$

where

C_1 is the average number of seconds per annum = $3,15576 \times 10^7$ s.

D is the fatigue damage ratio;

f_n is the frequency of the relevant mode, expressed in hertz;

T_1 is the design life of the member, expressed in years;

and where m and C are constants defining the S-N curve.

- k) Then perform a weighted summation of computed damage over the long-term current distribution for velocities and direction.

A.7.5.6.2 Multi-modal response analysis based on empirical models

If significant VIV-induced fatigue damage is likely, more thorough calculations should be conducted. The next level of refinement typically involves methods for multi-modal response analysis based on empirical or semi-empirical values of the hydrodynamic coefficients. One way of achieving this is by application of a generalization of the procedure given in A.7.5.6.1. There are also two other main approaches for calculating the response, see A.7.5.6.3 and A.7.5.6.4.

A.7.5.6.3 Modal response in the frequency domain

This approach can incorporate general current profiles. Typically, a FE formulation is adopted. A correlation function for the loading process at two points along the component, as a function of their relative distance, is introduced. The parameters used in the model for the calculation of action and action effects generally require calibration with model field data.

A.7.5.6.4 Response in the time domain

For this approach a substantial database of cross-section tests is required giving hydrodynamic coefficients, frequencies and phase angles for various combinations of incident velocity and cross-section vibration. If a time domain simulation can be shown to give a statistically stationary response, a response spectrum can be constructed.

A.7.5.6.5 Methods based on solution of the Navier-Stokes equations

The analysis based on solution of the full Navier-Stokes equations consists of a set of 2D fluid-flow analyses for sufficiently many cross-sections along the component, including modelling of the dynamic boundary conditions. The direct solution of the complete flow equation is currently restricted to low Reynolds numbers (no turbulence in the near wake). Validation of the numerical results by sensitivity studies with respect to key parameters should accordingly be performed. Comparison with results obtained from full-scale or model experiments is also essential for calibration and fine-tuning of the numerical algorithms.

A.7.5.6.6 Methods for reduction of VIV

Particular emphasis should be given to those cases where the vortex shedding frequency is a multiple of one or more resonant frequencies.

The vortex shedding frequency may be calculated from

$$f_s = Sr \frac{v}{d} \quad (\text{A.4})$$

where

- f_s is the vortex shedding frequency;
- Sr is the Strouhal number;
- v is the flow velocity normal to the slender member axis;
- d is the member diameter.

Vortex shedding is related to the drag coefficient of the member considered. High drag coefficients usually accompany strong, regular vortex shedding or vice versa. Thus, the Strouhal number is a function of the Reynolds number for smooth, rounded members.

Moreover, for rounded, hydrodynamically smooth members, the vortex-shedding phenomenon is strongly dependent on the Reynolds number (Re) for the flow, as follows:

- $10^2 \leq Re < 0,60 \times 10^6$ periodic shedding
- $0,60 \times 10^6 \leq Re < 3 \times 10^6$ wideband random shedding
- $3 \times 10^6 \leq Re < 6 \times 10^6$ narrowband random shedding
- $Re \geq 6 \times 10^6$ quasi-periodic shedding

For rough members, the vortex shedding should be considered strongly periodic in the entire Reynolds number range.

For determination of the velocity ranges where vortex-shedding-induced oscillations can occur, a non-dimensional reduced velocity, v_r , is used:

$$v_r = \frac{v}{f_m d} \tag{A.5}$$

where f_m is the natural frequency of the pipe.

Another parameter controlling the motions is the non-dimensional stability parameter for VIV, K_s , defined as

$$K_s = \frac{2m_e \delta}{\rho_w d^2} \tag{A.6}$$

where

- ρ_w is the mass density of seawater;
- m_e is the effective mass per unit length;
- δ is the generalized logarithmic decrement of damping defined by either

$$\delta = \delta_s + \delta_h \tag{A.7}$$

or

$$\delta = 2\pi\xi \tag{A.8}$$

where

δ_s is the logarithmic decrement of structural damping;

δ_h is the logarithmic decrement of hydrodynamic damping;

ξ is the fraction of critical damping.

As a guideline, VIV in current and waves can occur when the parameter ranges in Table A.3 are fulfilled.

Table A.3 — VIV occurrence regions

Member located in	Cross-flow excitations		In-line excitations	
	v_r	K_s	v_r	K_s
Wind	$4,7 < v_r < 8,0$	$K_s \leq 25$	$1,7 < v_r < 3,2$	—
Current	$3,5 < v_r < 16,0$	—	$1,0 < v_r < 4,5$	$K_s \leq 1,8$
Waves (dominant) and current	$3,0 < v_r < 16,0$	—	$1,0 < v_r < 4,5$	$K_s \leq 1,8$

If the screening shows that VIV is likely to occur, the actions and effects arising from this phenomenon can be assessed using one of the following approaches, in order of increasing complexity:

- a) simplified assessment of vortex-induced vibrations and fatigue (A.7.5.6.1);
- b) multi-modal response analysis (A.7.5.6.2 to A.7.5.6.4);
- c) computational fluid dynamics solving the Navier-Stokes equations (A.7.5.6.5);
- d) laboratory tests.

All four methods may be used for slender components (risers, umbilicals, tubular members, etc.), but only c) and d) apply to large-volume structures.

If the calculated VIV-response suggests potential problems, there are two main approaches for reducing the VIV effects:

- modification of the component properties, i.e. tension, diameter, structural damping;
- introduction of vortex suppression devices.

Several different methods exist for reducing the amplitude of VIV. It is usually possible to avoid the resonant cross-flow region when the highest reduced velocity is below 3,0, i.e. below the resonant region. To be well above the resonant area is much more complicated. There is always a higher natural mode with a frequency that corresponds to the vortex shedding frequency.

A second possibility is to add vortex suppression devices to the cylinders. These can be divided into the following three categories, according to the way they influence the vortex shedding:

- surface protrusions (wires, helical strakes, etc.) triggering separation;
- perforated shrouds, axial slats, etc. (breaking the flow into many small vortices);
- near wake stabilisers, preventing the building of the vortex street.

A.7.5.7 Marine growth

Marine growth is a common designation for surface growth on offshore structures, caused by plants, animals and bacteria. The marine growth characteristics are governed by the biological and oceanographic conditions at the actual site.

The specific gravity of marine growth is in the range of 1,0 to 1,4, depending on the type of organism.

A.7.5.8 Snow and ice accretion

No guidance is offered.

A.7.5.9 Direct ice action

No guidance is offered.

A.7.5.10 Temperature effects

No guidance is offered.

A.7.5.11 Tidal effects

No guidance is offered.

A.7.5.12 Geotechnical hazards

No guidance is offered.

A.7.6 Other actions

A.7.6.1 Stationkeeping actions

Action effects caused by the stationkeeping system are presented in ISO 19901-7.

A.7.6.2 Sloshing actions

Major factors involved in sloshing are

- tank dimensions,
- filling level of tank,
- metacentric height,
- natural periods of structure motions and of cargo and/or ballast motions, usually in roll and pitch modes, and
- floating structure draught.

A.7.7 Repetitive actions

No guidance is offered.

A.7.8 Action combinations

When actions act simultaneously, representative values may be determined based upon consideration of the joint probability of the events. In the absence of site-specific joint probabilities, combinations of environmental action events that can be considered for the ULS condition are listed in Table A.4. For many types of floating structure, it is not always obvious as to which environmental design situations control the design. Identifying the most onerous maximum (or minimum) responses is a process often referred to as “response-based criteria”.

Table A.4 — Recommended annual probability of exceedance of selected action effects for combinations in the ULS condition

Combination	Action effect resulting from					
	wind	waves	current	ice/snow	earthquake	sea level
1	10^{-2}	10^{-2}	10^{-1}	—	—	10^{-2}
2	10^{-1}	10^{-1}	10^{-2}	—	—	10^{-2}
3	10^{-1}	10^{-1}	10^{-1}	10^{-2}	—	mean
4	—	—	—	—	10^{-2}	mean

A.8 Global analysis

A.8.1 General

Floating structures are dynamically excited by wind, waves and current. Wave and current actions on the hull of a floating structure are covered by large-body hydrodynamic theory. In addition to ordinary wave frequency actions, these structures are also subject to slow-drift excitation from waves and wind. Some structural forms (e.g. spars) are also sensitive to vortex-induced motions due to current and waves.

Floating structures are kept on location by stationkeeping systems, which generally consist of moorings, sometimes combined with thrusters, or dynamic positioning systems. The restoring force characteristics of a mooring system are given by the number of mooring lines, line layout pattern, pretension level, and restoring force characteristics of each line. Traditional catenary mooring lines are composed of wire and chain segments (often in combination with clump weights and buoys) to achieve the required restoring and line characteristics. Taut mooring lines are often used for deep water applications.

Depending on the structure's functions, risers of various types and sizes connect the structure to the seabed, to pipelines, or to other field components. Riser tensions and pretensions act on the structure.

Moorings and risers are slender marine structures and have similar static and dynamic behaviour. It is therefore possible to apply the same methodology for global analysis of mooring lines and risers.

A more detailed description of the procedures to be used for the global analysis is to be found in ISO 19901-7.

A.8.2 Static and mean response analyses

A.8.2.1 General

The most significant environmental actions for floating structures are normally those induced by wave actions. The characteristics of waves can either be described by deterministic design wave methods or by stochastic methods using wave spectra. Deterministic methods are used when sea states are represented by regular waves defined by wave height and wave period. Stochastic methods are used if the irregular nature of the sea is a significant design parameter. The sea states are then represented by wave spectra, which are characterized by significant wave height and peak spectral period or mean zero-crossing period.

Stochastic methods for response analysis of large body structures are in principle recognized as the best methods for simulating the irregular nature of wave actions. Computer tools for such analyses are available and global response is normally evaluated by stochastic methods.

Stochastic results are not well-suited for structural design, as simultaneity of the internal force/moment and stress distribution is lost. A regular wave analysis allows for evaluation of force/moment and stress distribution diagrams, while retaining phase information.

The preferred method for determining global responses is to undertake a long-term response analysis, calculated based on the site-specific wave scatter diagram. The short-term response for design purposes can then be calculated with a long-term probability of exceedance during a specified time. An alternative to using the full scatter diagram is to develop a 100 year contour line on the scatter diagram and to calculate the global action effects for a range of short-term sea states on this contour line in order to find the maximum value. If contours are used the uncertainty associated with the wave period should be accounted for.

It should be noted that the structural response of a floating structure is sensitive to wave period (length), e.g. maximum hull girder responses for monohull structures often occur in sea states with waves of a length equal to the length of the floating structure.

A.8.2.2 Static equilibrium in still-water condition

No guidance is offered.

A.8.2.3 Mean response analysis

The response of the floating structure to mean environmental actions may be used for frequency domain analysis, or as the initial condition for time domain analysis. Additionally, the mean structure response is generally required for dynamic analyses of risers and moorings.

A.8.3 Global dynamic behaviour

Dynamic response may be computed in the frequency or time domain.

The linear response to steady state actions may be determined in the frequency domain.

Transient response is most easily determined in the time domain, or by using recognized charts or formulae for dynamic amplification.

A.8.4 Frequency domain analysis

The most significant limitation of frequency domain techniques is that all non-linearities in the equations of motion are ignored or replaced by linear approximations. Typical non-linearities are introduced by viscous damping, drag-induced actions, time-varying geometry, horizontal restoring forces and variable water surface elevation. In most cases, these non-linearities can be satisfactorily linearized. This can be accomplished by linearizing a term about some operating point, or through another suitable technique (equivalent energy dissipation, etc.).

In cases where both time and frequency domain techniques can be considered, the frequency domain often has the advantage of fewer and simpler computations. In the case of large floating structures, where wave scattering and radiation is important, the inviscid hydrodynamic properties are most conveniently calculated in the frequency domain.

A.8.5 Time domain analysis

Time domain solution methods are often used for final, detailed design stages and for checks on frequency domain solutions. Furthermore, time domain methods are usually used for extreme condition analysis, but are not normally used for fatigue analysis.

A.8.6 Uncoupled analysis

The second step is the time-consuming part of the uncoupled analysis, and is normally carried out for critically loaded mooring lines and risers, one by one.

A.8.7 Coupled analysis

The main drawback to the coupled approach is that the computational effort needed is significantly higher than for the uncoupled analysis.

A.8.8 Resonant excitation and response

Examples of resonant responses generally not directly excited by linear wave actions are

- the roll resonance of a barge/ship or of a spar with a low transverse metacentric height (GM),
- the heave resonance of spars or semi-submersibles,
- the surge, sway and yaw resonance of a moored floating platform,
- internal centre-well resonance, and
- ballast or cargo tank sloshing modes.

This list is not intended to be exhaustive.

Among mechanisms known to create resonant excitations, a general class exists called Mathieu instabilities. These occur in situations where the system stiffness varies with time. Mathieu instabilities are known to occur as a consequence of variable hydrostatic stiffness of a semi-submersible or spar.

A.8.9 Platform offset

No guidance is offered.

A.8.10 Air gap

No guidance is offered.

A.8.11 Platform motions and accelerations

No guidance is offered.

A.8.12 Model tests

The numerical predictions and model experiment results are complementary. Through careful interpretation, each of these results can be used to partially circumvent limitations of the other. One of the greatest values of model tests is that the results are obtained without requiring any a priori assumptions about the nature of the responses. This is almost never true of numerical models. On the other hand, limitations in model test facilities and scale effects normally require substantial interpretation of the results to translate them into full-scale ones.

The primary objectives of model tests fall into three broad categories:

- a) to determine the response of a particular structural configuration;
- b) to validate methods for analytical or numerical prediction of system responses;
- c) to confirm that no extraordinary or unexpected behaviour of the tested configuration occurs.

Further information can be found in Reference [115].

A.8.13 Design situations for structural analysis

Full-scale measurements from similar structures may be used to support design assumptions and improve design estimates. In-service measurements may be used to confirm or improve design assumptions, and can provide a basis for revising earlier estimates of payload/operating limits and design service life.

A.9 Structural considerations

A.9.1 General

No guidance is offered.

A.9.2 Representative values of actions

A.9.2.1 General

No guidance is offered.

A.9.2.2 Representative values of actions for operating phases

No guidance is offered.

A.9.2.3 Representative values of actions for temporary phases

During the fabrication sequence, the actions acting on the structure generally depend on: the procedures and methods of erection and assembly followed by the yard; the facilities for handling and lifting the fabricated parts; the facilities used for the final outfitting (e.g. dock, slipway or quay).

Construction typically consists of prefabrication of small components and assembly of elementary blocks. After completion, the blocks are transported to the dock/slipway area for erection. The overall size and weight of the blocks are restricted by the production and hoisting capacity of the yard. The effect of lift-induced actions should be analysed to ensure stress levels and deformations are acceptable.

On the dock/slipway the blocks are positioned and welded to adjacent structures. Particular consideration should be given to support arrangements and proper alignment between blocks. Internal forces can be minimized by proper erection and welding sequences.

The installation of the structure consists mainly of the installation of its stationkeeping system (the foundation at the sea floor and the mooring system) and the hooking up of the floating structure to this system.

In most cases the removal operation is the reverse sequence of the activities carried out for installation and, consequently, similar considerations apply.

A.9.2.4 Actions at interfaces

No guidance is offered.

A.9.3 Design scantlings

Reference can also be made to the design considerations for scantlings specified in Reference [120].

A.9.4 Modelling

A.9.4.1 General

The extent of detail in a structural model is a balance between accuracy of results and limited resources. Model extent, FE type, element size, and level of detail should be consistent with the intended purpose of the structural model.

Appropriate element size is dependent on model function and stress gradient. In a global analysis where the function of the model is to simulate global structural response and identify governing load cases, element sizes in the order of structural panel size (spacing between the main girders), or girder depth are generally appropriate. The element size should be sufficient to ensure connectivity of structural elements included in the model. For a local model, element size should be significantly reduced. To evaluate structural response near stress concentrations (regions of high stress gradient), the element size should generally be of the order of the plate thickness.

Mesh quality can significantly affect predicted stress response. Selection of element type, size and shape should be appropriate to the analysis being undertaken. Sharp transitions in element size can distort the stress flow through a structural component, hence element size transitions should be placed away from the area of interest. Mesh quality should be reviewed to verify that distorted (and/or elongated) elements are not in areas of high stress concentration.

Boundary conditions should be defined so as not to significantly affect the results of the analysis in a detrimental manner, e.g. artificially constrain, support or stiffen the structural model. Model boundaries should be located sufficiently far from the area of interest that they do not significantly alter the results.

Specialized elements (e.g. contact elements) and/or techniques (e.g. constraint equations) should be used with extreme caution due to the complexities introduced into the models.

Sub-modelling and sub-structuring techniques may be utilized. These techniques can require additional verification due to the complexities introduced into the modelling process.

FE analyses should be carried out with verified computer codes. Well-documented element types with a proven track record in offshore structural modelling should be used for analysis models. Modern elements can be used if sufficient validation is performed with comparisons to more mature technology. Linear or higher order elements may be used.

A.9.4.2 Global models

Linear spring elements may be used to model mooring system stiffness provided the spring constants are calculated based on actual mooring system parameters. Ill-conditioning errors can occur where large rigid body displacements are required to obtain mooring force equilibrium. The possibility of such errors arising should be investigated. Where variations in mooring stiffness model parameters significantly affect responses, the acceptability of adopting linear spring elements should be evaluated.

For shell element or combined shell element/beam element global models, element size is normally similar to structural panel size. Where this is not possible, a less refined global model may be used to determine global response which should then be mapped to a more detailed model (with limited extent) for structural evaluation. Primary stiffening (stiffeners and girders) may be modelled by beam elements.

A.9.4.3 Local models

For components subjected to well-defined local actions, manual calculations may be adequate provided they are based on well-established empirical formulae or basic engineering principles. The actions used in these calculations should be based upon global responses and local actions acting on the component.

A.9.4.4 Response evaluation

When real and imaginary stress data are combined to determine the maximum response within a wave cycle, attention should be given to the fact that derived stress components (e.g. equivalent and principal stresses) are non-linear combinations of the basic stress components and therefore non-harmonic in nature. Establishing maximum values for these derived stresses over a cycle of a complex action requires searching for the maximum value by stepping through the cycle. Stress data should be determined at each 5° to 10° of wave phase when searching for maximum response.

Typically, artificially high stress gradients can occur in the following cases:

- near constrained boundaries, except at natural constraints such as symmetry;
- near sharp transitions in finite-element size;
- at locations where shell and solid elements are joined using boundary elements or constraint equations;
- at locations of artificially concentrated application of actions or forces.

Artificially low stress gradients typically occur in the cases where the element size is too large.

A.9.4.5 Model verification

Different action criteria and modelling techniques can be appropriate for different limit states. Different types of analysis can also be required for a given limit state, e.g. the analysis used for air gap as opposed to that used for ultimate strength for ULS.

A.9.5 Structural analysis

A.9.5.1 General principles

No guidance is offered.

A.9.5.2 Linear analysis

No guidance is offered.

A.9.5.3 Non-linear analysis

Generally, it is necessary to undertake parametric studies to evaluate different action histories in order to cover all modes of failure in structural components.

Most ULSs occur only when the structure has reached a state of non-linear behaviour. The ULS check is normally performed by carrying out a linear elastic response analysis of the structure to determine stresses or stress resultants (moments, forces) in the individual components, and checking that the ultimate capacity is adequate, component by component, using structural resistance formulations that can incorporate non-linear effects occurring at component collapse.

Component strength is normally determined by experimental methods, generalized by parametric or by non-linear structural analyses. If multiple stress/force components affect the component strength, the strength may be expressed by interaction equations.

A.9.6 Structural strength

References [2], [3], [26], [27], [84], [85], [86], [87], [92], [95] and [102] give guidance on ultimate and buckling strength design for a range of components and systems.

A.9.7 Design checks

A.9.7.1 General

Partial factor design and WSD approaches have been treated as parallel requirements in this part of ISO 19904. The motivation for this parallel approach is the everyday use of both approaches by the offshore industry in different countries.

Historically, WSD was not considered as checking the structure at the ULS. However the current view is that WSD is simply a partial factor design where, for linear response, the whole safety factor is applied to the material. (For non-linear responses, such as buckling, further adjustments to the design formulae are made so that the WSD method remains compatible with the ULS.) Therefore, limit state design can be considered as being valid when either WSD or partial factor methods are utilized.

The term *partial factor design format* is used rather than limit state design (or load and resistance factor design) in this part of ISO 19904. A comparison of the methods can be made via parallel design standards for offshore structures, including floating structures, for example, DNV OS-C101^[74] (partial factor) and DNV OS-C201^[78] (working stress).

A.9.7.2 SLS deflection limits

Guidance for deflection limits for both primary and secondary load-carrying components is presented in Table A.5.

Table A.5 — Limit deflection criteria in the SLS

Structural member	Span/Deflection
Primary load-carrying components	> 340
Secondary load-carrying components	> 250

A.9.7.3 Partial factor design format

Background to the derivation of reliability levels for offshore structures can be found in Reference [110].

A.9.7.4 Working stress design format

No guidance is offered.

A.9.7.5 Reliability-based methods

General principles related to reliability-based structural design are documented in ISO 2394^[138], while structural reliability of marine structures is addressed in Reference [94].

In principle, the purpose of structural design is to ensure an adequate degree of reliability. Analytical models utilized in structural design contain a set of basic variables representing physical quantities of random variables. The uncertainties associated with these random variables are caused by inherent random variability and/or insufficient data (or imprecise knowledge).

A.9.8 Special design issues

Sloshing is specifically addressed in BV Guidance Note NI 171^[63].

Further information concerning green water and wave slam actions and effects can be found in References [51], [52], [53], [67], [111], [112], [177], [179] and [180].

A.9.9 Material

A.9.9.1 General

For consideration of materials applicable to offshore floating structures, reference may be made to BV Rule NR 216^[54], DNV OS-B101^[73] and DNV OS-C101^[74].

A.9.9.2 Material selection

Selection of a higher toughness grade at the design stage makes the structure more tolerant of fatigue cracks and more capable of redistributing forces away from overstressed areas.

A.9.9.3 Through-thickness tension

No guidance is offered.

A.9.9.4 Aluminium substructures

The mechanical characteristics of aluminium alloys should be determined in accordance with ISO 6361-1^[139].

The following ECCS recommendations for aluminium alloy structures can be utilized in the design of aluminium structures: References [106], [107] and [108]. The design of aluminium structures is also addressed in ABS Rules for Building and Classing Aluminium Vessels^[18] and BV Rule NR 384^[56].

A.9.10 Corrosion protection of steel

Specific areas to be considered in the design of the corrosion protection system for the structure include the following.

a) External surfaces:

- underwater hull;
- waterline area;
- above waterline;
- deck areas;
- topsides.

b) Internal surfaces:

- void spaces (open and closed);
- machinery and equipment spaces;
- storage spaces;
- ballast tanks (active, passive, and reserve [dry]);
- cargo and slop tanks (tankers, barges);
- fuel tanks;
- fresh water tanks;

- drill water tanks;
- other tanks (for example, brine).

Two types of systems (or approaches) are typically used to provide corrosion protection for the structure: coating (paint) systems and CP (sacrificial anodes, impressed current) systems. These systems are typically used in combination to provide a complete corrosion protection system for the structure. CP systems are far more effective when used with coatings because they then need only to protect against coating breakdown, see References [83] and [164]. CP systems are normally an aid for maintaining the condition of a coated structure and not a substitute for the coating.

The corrosion protection system requirements for a specific surface or tank depend on the type and required duration of service. For example, the system requirements can vary for an “active” ballast tank (i.e. tanks having continuous changing of sea water), “passive” ballast tanks (tanks maintaining a constant amount of sea water), cargo oil tanks and drill water tanks. Additionally, the type of coating system selected (e.g. epoxy-base, “float-coat” type) depends upon the structure’s inspection programme, in terms of personnel access and cleaning requirements.

When evaluating the requirements for a corrosion protection system, the following aspects should be among those considered:

- required design life of the corrosion protection system;
- consequences of corrosion damage;
- accessibility for inspection, maintenance and repair;
- exposure to corrosion-aggressive environments;
- exposure to erosive environments or mechanical damage;
- the complexity of the local geometry;
- galvanic effects between different materials.

References [58], [66], [96], [103], [104] and [165] give some indication of requirements for corrosion protection.

Allowing for a diminution for structural hull thickness is discussed in Reference [97].

A.9.11 Fabrication and construction

Further information on general construction and repair principles can be found in Reference [123].

Weight control should be effected in accordance with the requirements of ISO 19901-5^[154] for which, with respect to weight control classification, a floating structure should be treated as being of Class A.

In the areas surrounding critical connections, continuity of strength is normally maintained through joints with axial stiffening members and shear web plates being made continuous. Particular attention should be given to weld detailing and geometric form at the point of the intersections of the continuous plate’s components with the intersecting structure. Guidelines on fabrication and testing of offshore structures are given in DNV OS-C401^[80].

Welds at critical connections should have smooth profiles without undercut.

Penetrations through load-bearing structural members should be carefully detailed and, where necessary, reinforcement should be fitted. Evaluation of the structural strength adjacent to openings should include consideration in respect to both static and fatigue resistances. Penetrations through structural components

critical to structural integrity should be minimized, and areas where penetrations are prohibited should be clearly shown on fabrication drawings.

A.9.12 Marine operations

Marine operation requirements are given in ISO 19901-6^[155].

A.9.13 Topsides/hull interface

General requirements and guidance applicable to topsides structural arrangements are given in ISO 19901-3^[153]. National regulations and requirements can also apply.

A.10 Fatigue analysis and design

A.10.1 General

Fatigue-related documents of general applicability in the design and assessment of floating structures include References [6], [17], [65], [88] and [113].

A.10.2 Fatigue damage design safety factors

An early source for the fatigue design safety factors was NORSOK Standard N-004^[168], where almost identical categories and similar factors were recommended, but where, instead of the 5,0 that appears in Table 6, the value 3,0 was adopted. ISO 19902 adopts similar categories (with the exception of “dry access”) and identical safety factors. One argument that supports the use of 5,0 instead of 3,0 is that because cycle numbers are presented in logarithmic format, then safety factors follow similarly.

A.10.3 Outline of approach

No guidance is offered.

A.10.4 Environmental data

No guidance is offered.

A.10.5 Structural modelling

No guidance is offered.

A.10.6 Hydrostatic analyses

No guidance is offered.

A.10.7 Response amplitude operators and combinations of actions

No guidance is offered.

A.10.8 Stresses and SCFs

Nominal and geometric stresses

In fatigue, a distinction is made between the classification (or nominal stress) method, in which SCFs are implicitly included in the design curve, and the geometric (or hot-spot) stress method where SCFs are explicitly accounted for and only weld notch effects are included in the corresponding S-N curve.

In components modelled by beam elements, nominal stresses are stresses that are parallel to the longitudinal axis of the component, i.e. axial stress, in-plane bending stress and out-of-plane bending stress. Shear and torsional stresses may be neglected. The structural geometric stress method is well established for tubular structures, and stress components should be combined in accordance with the provisions of ISO 19902.

For large, plated structures, geometric stress design methods are evolving. Shell or solid elements on the order of $T \times T$ (where T is the plate thickness) can be used at the points of stress concentration. The geometric stresses can be defined by surface stress extrapolation, or by extracting and extrapolating shell bending and membrane stresses to the toe of the weld. The corresponding S-N curves are similar to, or slightly below, those for tubular structures.

In the classification method, the nominal stress should be determined in a manner consistent with the stress determination used to establish the S-N curve for the detail (typically an area of 0,3 m \times 0,3 m), and should have a clearly defined principal stress direction which is aligned with the way the detail was tested. The underlying theory and results from studies in this area have been reported in References [99], [100], [117] and [118].

Stress concentration factors

SCFs are necessary to account for local changes in geometry, such as at welds, changes in thickness or diameter, or offset of member centrelines.

In the geometric stress approach, parametric equations and other published sources are available for the geometric SCFs of many common geometries (e.g. butt welds in pipes). Sources for SCFs for less common geometries are scarcer. Thus, FE modelling, physical models or other methods can be necessary to define these SCFs explicitly. Notch SCFs are included in the appropriate S-N curve category so only the geometric SCFs need be considered.

It is critical that as-fabricated components conform to the limiting assumptions of the analytical model. Not only is it important to ensure that the defect size distribution of the fabricated component is less than the defect size analysed, but also that the weld profile conforms to that modelled. This is especially important for areas such as the root of single-sided butt welds where the weld profile may be difficult to achieve and to inspect.

In fracture mechanics fatigue analyses, SCFs and their gradients are used to include notch effects in the stress intensity factor solution. The results of the fatigue crack growth rate and maximum tolerable flaw size calculations can be influenced by the values of the geometric and notch SCFs. Both global and notch geometry effects are included in the cyclic as well as the maximum stresses, see A.10.12. An effort should be made to capture the decay of the notch SCF as the crack progresses in from the surface.

A.10.9 Stress range counting and distribution

Frequency domain analysis is normally well suited for determining cyclic stress ranges for fatigue analyses. Stress histogram data generated from frequency domain analyses should include a sufficient number of stress blocks and wave approach directions to accurately represent lifetime stresses.

A simplified approach to stress range counting is to combine the distributions of stress ranges over a set of short-term sea states that correspond to the long-term occurrence of a particular fatigue design sea state, thereby determining a distribution of stress ranges for this longer period. In this case, it has been found that a two-parameter Weibull distribution is useful for an empirical representation of stress ranges.

Various improvements have been published to enhance cycle-counting formulae. Alternatively, realisations of stress time histories may be generated and rainflow-counting routines used to identify and count distributions of stress ranges. For a review and discussion of these methods, see Reference [45] or [46].

A.10.10 Fatigue resistance

The S-N approach assumes the availability of lower bound representative S-N curves for the components being analysed. These curves are intended to be representative of material environment, cyclic stress range and frequency, mean stress and level of CP, as appropriate.

Residual stresses in or around welds can be assumed to have magnitudes equal to the yield stress in tension. Stress variations in or around welds can hence be assumed to always range downwards from the yield stress in tension. For fatigue-dominated conditions, applied stresses are typically less than half the yield stress; therefore, the associated stress ratio (maximum stress divided by minimum stress) is greater than zero. Consequently, for welded connections, stress range is the sole stress parameter that governs fatigue, while mean stress and stress ratio are unimportant parameters.

Weld improvement allowance may be considered, if necessary, during construction and/or at later assessments, although it is not good practice to allow for such effects at the design stage.

A.10.11 Damage accumulation

In some cases, the S-N curve is replaced by a discrete series of stress range steps (or bins) and the damage is accumulated on the basis of the accumulation of damage for each bin. In such cases, a minimum of twenty bins should be used to discretize a continuous S-N curve.

Closed-form expressions are available for integration of accumulated damage for Rayleigh and Weibull distributions of stress ranges applied in conjunction with piecewise linear S-N curves. These are usually expressed in terms of gamma functions and incomplete gamma functions. It is important to check the definitions of these functions, since different definitions and normalization conventions are applied.

Fatigue damage from multiple simultaneous sources (e.g. wave frequency actions, slowly varying second order wave actions, wind actions and vortex-induced vibrations) should be calculated by adding the stresses, followed by raising the combined stress range to the power m (from the S-N curve). Calculating fatigue damage independently from separate sources can be seriously unconservative.

Normally, potential accidental damage (e.g. a dented panel following boat impact) may be ignored in fatigue assessments because such damage lasts a relatively insignificant period relative to the design service life. However, where a preferred orientation or listed attitude of a damaged floating structure is liable to generate large fatigue actions on critical structural components, the likely rate of such fatigue damage should be checked.

A.10.12 Fracture mechanics methods

Fatigue damage estimates may be undertaken by the use of fracture mechanics methods^{[47], [48], [49]}. The fatigue damage is a function of the range of stress intensity, initial and final flaw sizes, and material crack growth constants from the Paris equation. The Paris law variable ΔK is the stress intensity factor range and is defined as a single term parameter that incorporates the effect of changing crack length as well as stress magnitude range. The parameter ΔK may be calculated from available solutions for an assumed crack model at each increment of crack growth, given the crack geometry and the applied cyclic stresses.

In fracture mechanics assessment of a defect, a failure criterion should be defined to set the amount of crack propagation allowed in a component prior to failure. The maximum total stress relevant for a design situation, including the maximum stress and any relevant residual stresses, should be used in the assessment.

The crack model assumed for the stress intensity factor solution should reflect the as-fabricated geometry, including local stress concentrations and plausible initial flaw locations, types and sizes. Realistic account of the life expended in crack initiation should be included as this can represent a substantial portion of the design life, for non-welded details in particular. The cyclic stress range that is used in the calculation of the stress intensity factor range is the stress range modified by an appropriate SCF. The stress intensity factor should include the effects of local geometry and all applied membrane and bending stresses.

A.10.13 Fatigue-sensitive components and connections

Experience from tankers operating in the UK North Sea shows that longitudinal cracks can occur in the fillet weld between longitudinals/stringers and the side shell. The cracks were found to be associated with s/T ratios larger than 50 (where s is the spacing between longitudinals/stringers and T is the plate thickness). The cracks are typically caused by three mechanisms: local plate bending due to lateral pressure, twisting caused by unsymmetrical longitudinals/stringers, and deflection of the primary members of the hull girder (stringer deflection). Consequently, low s/T ratios should be chosen during design, and fatigue assessment should be performed in sizing the proposed scantlings.

A.11 Monohulls

A.11.1 General

General guidance on monohull floating structures is given in RCS rules — for example, References [2], [61], [69] and [160] — while a rational approach to the basic monohull configuration selection is presented in Reference [186].

Examples of special areas for monohulls are the following:

- tank bottoms for corrosion; corrosive environments can exist under accumulations of sludge in the bottoms of cargo tanks, and given the access and planning difficulties described below, an owner can decide to invest more time and effort during the design and fabrication phases to ensure that some areas are more fully protected against corrosion and fatigue;
- salt water ballast tanks and tops of cargo tanks, for corrosion;
- stiffener/bulkhead and stiffener/bulkhead/side-shell connections, both in the outer shell (due to wave action), and in cargo tanks (which can experience prolonged, severe sloshing actions), for fatigue;
- turret mountings and bearings, for hull flexure effects;
- mooring attachment details, for fatigue, corrosion and wear;
- cargo handling systems and equipment, for corrosion;
- structural supports and deck equipment, for green water impact actions;
- riser terminations and restraints (usually in the turret area), for fire hazard.

In addition, the following areas should be examined for adequate fatigue life in the midship area, turret area, and in the fore-most and aft-most cargo tank areas:

- a) representative attachments and penetrations to main deck and bottom plating;
- b) bottom, inner bottom, side shell, inner side, longitudinal bulkhead and deck longitudinal end connections to transverse frames and transverse bulkheads;
- c) end connections/bracket terminations (bracket toe and flange toe) of transverse frames;
- d) end connections (corner details)/bracket terminations of longitudinal stringers;
- e) block erection butt welds in deck and bottom plating;
- f) topsides and crane supports to deck (and relevant welds below deck);
- g) turret hull girder support structure;

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- h) representative scallops and mouse holes of structural connections adjacent to deck and bottom plating and at side shell;
- i) at the details of scallops in transverse girders (at penetrations for the longitudinals);
- j) upper and lower knuckles of transverse frames;
- k) hopper knuckle, horizontal stringer to bulkhead connections, cross ties and bilge keels.

A.11.2 General design criteria

A.11.2.1 Collision protection

IMO MEPC/Circ. 406^[129] is a comprehensive document describing minimum requirements and the application of double sides or other means of limiting pollution in case of a collision, for both new-build FPSOs/FSUs and conversions. The document provides guidance on how to apply requirements written for tankers to FPSOs and FSUs.

For new-build tankers, IMO MARPOL^[130] requires a double hull. For new-build FPSOs, IMO MEPC/Circ. 406 reduces this to double sides.

IMO MARPOL allows the operation of existing single-hull tankers for a number of years, depending on their age and design. The principle is that in the course of time single-hull tankers disappear (they are “phased-out”). IMO MARPOL Regulation 13G describes this process in detail. IMO MEPC/Circ. 406 allows the conversion of existing single hull tankers into FPSO/FSU, independent of their age, provided that a number of other requirements stated in IMO MARPOL are met. IMO MARPOL Regulation 13G is, according to IMO MEPC/Circ. 406, not applicable to FPSOs or FSUs.

In this part of ISO 19904, the determination of a suitable collision protection is based on the assessment of the collision risk. Where collision risk is reduced by the use of ballast tanks and void tanks in the side, these tanks should be effectively spread over the vessel length in order to mitigate the impact of damaged and flooded tanks on damaged stability and residual hull girder strength.

IMO MARPOL requirements for tankers are generally enforced by, or on behalf of, a flag state. Monohull floating structures used for storing oil are generally regulated by the coastal state (referred to as the *national authority* in this part of ISO 19904). IMO MEPC/Circ. 406 gives guidance and recommendations to the coastal states on how to apply IMO MARPOL, Annex 1, to FPSOs and FSUs. This part of ISO 19904 requires compliance with the guidelines contained in IMO MEPC/Circ. 406 as a minimum, whether the floating offshore structure is flagged or not and whether or not required by the national authorities.

It is to be also noted that national authorities can overrule flag states and impose stricter double hull requirements on the floating offshore structures under their jurisdiction.

A.11.2.2 Deckhouse requirements

No guidance is offered.

A.11.2.3 Sloshing

References for sloshing are given in A.9.8.

A.11.2.4 Green water

References for green water action and related design issues are presented in A.7.5.5.8.

A.11.3 Structural strength

A.11.3.1 General

No guidance is offered.

A.11.3.2 Scantlings

Scantling requirements in the various RCS rules generally give similar outcomes. However, when dealing with monohulls in benign waters, the permitted reductions on scantlings compared with the unrestricted service condition requirements vary significantly. As very little technical material was available to substantiate the use of any particular level of reduction, the most conservative of the RCS permitted reductions has been adopted in this part of ISO 19904.

A.11.3.3 ULS–a and ULS–b longitudinal strength checks

A.11.3.3.1 General

Wave-induced bending moments and shear forces should normally be determined as indicated, i.e. by reference to Clause 9. However, for conceptual or preliminary design, RCS rules formulations provide appropriate preliminary values except in the case of wave-induced vertical shear forces when the following equations provide more suitable positive and negative envelope values:

$$Q_{wv-pos} = 0,45 f_{q_{wv-pos}} C_{wv} LB(C_b + 0,7) \quad (A.9)$$

$$Q_{wv-neg} = -0,45 f_{q_{wv-neg}} C_{wv} LB(C_b + 0,7) \quad (A.10)$$

where

Q_{wv-pos} is the positive wave-induced vertical shear force, expressed in kilonewtons;

Q_{wv-neg} is the negative wave-induced vertical shear force, expressed in kilonewtons;

$f_{q_{wv-pos}}$ is the distribution factor for positive wave-induced vertical shear force along the vessel length, to be taken as

= 0,0 at the aft perpendicular (AP)

= $1,59 \frac{C_b}{C_b + 0,7}$ for 0,2L to 0,3L from AP

= 0,7 for 0,4L to 0,6L from AP

= 1,0 for 0,7L to 0,85L from AP

= 0,0 at the forward perpendicular (FP)

and where, for values of L between those specified, the distribution factor is determined by interpolation;

$f_{q_{wv-neg}}$ is the distribution factor for negative wave-induced vertical shear force along the vessel length, to be taken as

= 0,0 at the AP

= 0,92 for 0,2L to 0,3L from AP

= 0,7 for 0,4L to 0,6L from AP

$$= 1,73 \frac{C_b}{C_b + 0,7} \quad \text{for } 0,7L \text{ to } 0,85L \text{ from AP}$$

$$= 0,0 \quad \text{at the FP}$$

and where, for values of L between those specified, the distribution factor is determined by interpolation;

C_{wv} is the wave coefficient, to be taken as

$$= 10,75 - \left(\frac{300 - L}{100} \right)^{1,5} \quad \text{for } 150 \leq L \leq 300$$

$$= 10,75 \quad \text{for } 300 < L \leq 350$$

$$= 10,75 - \left(\frac{L - 350}{150} \right)^{1,5} \quad \text{for } 350 < L \leq 500;$$

L is the length between perpendiculars, expressed in metres;

B is the moulded breadth, expressed in metres;

C_b is the block coefficient.

A.11.3.3.2 Partial factor design format

The partial factors prescribed in Equation (10) are based on those given in Reference [169]. One of the reasons for using this set of factors is that few other sets of requirements for ship-shaped offshore structures provide appropriate ULS factors.

The magnitudes of the partial factors are such that when the moment is at one of the extremes, i.e. pure still water moment or pure wave-induced moment, the product of the partial load and resistance factors approaches 1,50. When the moment is an equal combination of still water moment and wave-induced moment, the combined partial factors produce an overall safety factor of 1,24. Across the full range of combinations of still water and wave-induced moments, the average overall safety factor is 1,35.

In contrast, the overall safety factor for tanker structures, designed in accordance with the hull girder ultimate strength requirements of Reference [119] (see also Reference [120]), varies from 1,10 for still water dominated conditions to 1,43 for wave-induced action dominated conditions, both for sagging only. The average overall safety factor across the full range of still water and wave-induced sagging moment combinations is 1,27.

The smaller overall safety factor required for tankers is to be expected because of the shorter design return period to which it relates, 20 years, compared with the return period of 100 years for structures designed in accordance with this part of ISO 19904.

A.11.3.3.3 Working stress design format

For structures designed to WSD, RCS rules typically specify a utilization factor less than unity as a means of restricting the applied stress caused by the moment (or shear) to a proportion of yield stress. The proportion usually depends on whether the stress is a single stress value or a combined stress value calculated via the Maxwell-Huber-Hencky-von Mises criterion (usually referred to as the von Mises stress). For example, Reference [119] limits the von Mises stress in the deck to 90 % of yield and in the bottom to 80 % of yield when stresses are determined by FE analysis for a tanker at sea. Further, this same reference, when setting minimum hull girder requirements for total design bending moment, limits the midship hull girder bending stress when at sea to 91 % of yield. These first yield checks underestimate the ULS bending strengths of ships with stocky cross-sections because of the additional capacity available from plastic moment behaviour.

In contrast to the tanker requirements which relate to first yield, the WSD check Equations (12) and (13) refer to ultimate bending strength of the hull girder. Thus, for comparison between the overall safety factors for tankers and those for floating offshore structure, the difference between first hull girder yielding and hull girder ultimate bending strength has to be taken into account together with an allowance for the difference in design return periods. Expressed in utilization factor terms, a value of 0,75 is appropriate which, when converted into a safety factor, and rounded toward the average value adopted in the partial factor design approach, leads to a C_{SF} value of 1,34.

A.11.3.4 Local strength and details

No guidance is offered.

A.11.3.5 Topsides structural support

No guidance is offered.

A.11.3.6 Load monitoring

No guidance is offered.

A.12 Semi-submersibles

A.12.1 General

Decommissioning phases for semi-submersibles are not normally expected to affect the design of the floating structure and may normally be disregarded in the design phase.

Examples of special areas for semi-submersibles are the following.

- Because of their small water-plane area, semi-submersibles are particularly sensitive to increased weight or deck load and poor load distribution. It is particularly important to ensure that weight monitoring and control procedures are adhered to.
- Semi-submersibles are sensitive to water ingress, even if it occurs progressively in small amounts, so it is important to check the integrity and functionality of equipment for sealing openings in both external and internal watertight boundaries.
- Functionality and fail-safe operation of ballast control equipment.
- Stability during draught changes to survival or pontoon (inspection) draught.
- Fairlead attachments and any lengths of chain which can be subjected to persistent dynamic bending actions.
- Chain departure angles or tension monitoring instrumentation, particularly after moderate and severe storms. These can be the only indication that an anchor has dragged.
- Riser terminations, fixings and couplings. Quick connect-disconnect devices should be carefully monitored since they operate infrequently but in extreme conditions.

A.12.2 General design criteria

No guidance is offered.

A.12.3 Structural strength

Typical critical connections for semi-submersibles are

- brace connections in general (for example, connections to columns, pontoons, decks, and other braces),
- column/pontoon connections,

- column/upper hull connections, and
- pontoon/pontoon connections (ring pontoon).

A.13 Spars

A.13.1 General

Spars are normally deep-draught caisson (column) structures, where the topsides are connected to the hull structure by a bracing (or truss) system.

Spars can be designed such that the hull and topsides are fabricated independently. The hull structure can be floated horizontally to the installation site and then “upended” to a vertical position. The topsides can then be set on to the spar hull.

Spar hull configurations can vary in concept and in practical implementation. Spar hulls consist of some combination of the following components.

- Upper buoyancy tanks: upper portion of watertight compartments designed to withstand hydrostatic pressure and provide buoyancy and stability to support the structure. The watertight compartments can be utilized as variable ballast tanks in order to compensate for variable topsides actions. For protection against actions resulting from accidental events, double hull construction can be utilized at the waterline.
- Strakes: helical plate structure fitted to the outer portion of the spar hull to keep vortex-induced responses (e.g. as generated by high currents) at acceptable levels.
- Skirt/central truss system: a middle non-buoyant portion consisting of a stiffened cylindrical shell structure (“classic” hull form) or space frame “truss” hull form. This location in spars with a central truss system can contain a series of decks that trap water mass and provide hydrodynamic damping to limit heave motions.
- Lower buoyancy tanks: used for temporary buoyancy during tow-out and flooded during upending.
- Fixed ballast compartments: the lowest set of tanks, which can be filled with a dense material such as concrete or iron ore. The fixed ballast weight is designed to limit the spar’s pitch/roll motions and lower the height of the spar’s centre of gravity to provide more favourable stability characteristics.

Watertight compartments referred to in the above descriptions can theoretically be utilized for the storage of crude oil.

A centre-well or moonpool can run the depth of the hull to accommodate drilling, export, and production risers. Such centre-well/moonpool solutions are particularly advantageous in respect to self-supporting riser solutions.

A spar can accommodate a “conventional” topsides, including surface wellheads, and can be moored using either taut or catenary moorings.

Examples of special areas for spars are the following:

- deep-draught, empty tanks and void spaces; because of access difficulties it can be necessary to utilize special instrumentation and monitoring systems to ensure that these areas remain dry and corrosion free;
- fatigue in stiffener/side-shell connections close to the mean water line;
- mooring attachments and mooring departure angles (as for semi-submersibles);
- riser departure bell-mouths in the base of the spar.

A.13.2 General design requirements

The spar hull is upended by loading the hull unevenly such that it is unstable in the horizontal floating condition. This can, for example, be achieved by pumping water into the lower ballast tanks located near the keel. After this initial flooding, a “free flooding” stage begins (e.g. where, for a spar with a central skirt, the water flows freely into openings in the skirt).

Consideration should be given to dynamic pressures during upending operations including the possibility of actions imposed as a result of entrapped air.

A.13.3 Structural strength

No guidance is offered.

A.14 Conversion and reuse

A.14.1 General

No guidance is offered.

A.14.2 Minimum design, construction and maintenance standards

For the conversion of ships, see Reference [90].

A.14.3 Pre-conversion structural survey

No guidance is offered.

A.14.4 Effects of prior service

A.14.4.1 General

Guidance on typical corrosion rates can be found in Reference [182].

A.14.4.2 Monohulls

Experience gained concerning conversion and reuse of monohull structures can be found in References [162] and [178].

A.14.4.3 Semi-submersibles

No guidance is offered.

A.14.4.4 Fatigue damage from prior service

Provided that grinding below the surface to a depth of 1,0 mm is performed and that no fatigue cracks are found at the location (using an appropriate method described in 18.4.3), then the fatigue damage design factor for the relevant prior service may be taken to be less than that specified in Table 6.

Fatigue cracks growing from the weld root of fillet welds can hardly be detected by non-destructive testing and cannot be improved by grinding of the surface. It should also be remembered that if renewal of one area is performed by local grinding, there are likely to be other areas close to the considered region that are not ground and that can also experience significant dynamic loading.

A.14.5 Corrosion protection and material suitability

As for new designs, two types of systems are typically used to provide corrosion protection for the converted structure: coating systems and CP systems, see 9.10.

A.14.6 Inspection and maintenance

Reference [8] is useful for maintenance and repair strategies during conversion of a tanker.

A.15 Hydrostatic stability and compartmentation

A.15.1 General

For intact stability, see Reference [131].

For damage stability, see Reference [127].

Guidelines on documents to be submitted for stability study are addressed in Reference [64].

A.15.2 Inclining test

No guidance is offered.

A.15.3 Compartmentation

No guidance is offered.

A.15.4 Watertight and weathertight appliances

See the applicable provisions of Reference [131] and also [79].

Reference [116] provides guidance on the height of exposure above the waterplane for these weathertight openings.

A.15.5 Special requirements for monohulls

If oil is stored in the hull, IMO MARPOL^[130] stipulates the extent of damage to be assumed in damage stability calculations. The owner should decide, in conjunction with the regulator, the extent to which these international codes and conventions apply to a specific structure and location. Specific reference can be made to IMO MARPOL, Annex 1, requirements for floating units, and the associated guideline in IMO MEPC/Circ. 406^[129].

Reference should be made to IMO ICLL^[132] for requirements concerning self-propelled structures. Floating structures to which IMO ICLL does not apply require draught marks that indicate the maximum permissible draught as calculated under the terms of IMO ICLL.

A.16 Mechanical systems

A.16.1 General

For other hull utility systems not addressed in this part of ISO 19904, reference should be made to RCS rules and to the IMO MODU Code^[127].

A.16.2 Hull systems

A.16.2.1 General

No guidance is offered.

A.16.2.2 Bilge system

Generally, the requirements for arrangement and construction of bilge systems are covered by IMO SOLAS^[128], IMO MODU^[127] and RCS regulations.

Discharge of bilges overboard is governed by IMO MARPOL requirements^[130].

Where hazardous area bilge piping passes through spaces containing machinery or ignition sources, it is preferable for the piping to be an all-welded construction.

The requirement for separate drainage or pumping arrangements is to assure that non-hazardous spaces do not become hazardous due to vapour backflow through connections.

A.16.2.3 Ballast system

Items concerned with the design of the ballast system not covered in this part of ISO 19904 should comply with all other applicable provisions of the IMO MODU Code^[127].

IMO MODU Code^[127], IMO MARPOL^[130] and IMO SOLAS^[128] are sources to consider, and should be applied as relevant for the particular floating structure depending on the type of floating structure to be used, on the particular geographical location and on decisions made with respect to flag and class.

Reference should be made to IMO MARPOL^[130] for monitoring of oil in ballast water discharged overboard.

A.16.2.4 Tank sounding and venting system

No guidance is offered.

A.16.2.5 Cargo handling system

A.16.2.5.1 General

IMO MARPOL^[130] and IMO SOLAS^[128] should be applied as relevant for the particular floating structure depending on: the type of structure, the particular geographic location, coastal or national regulations and decisions made with respect to flag and class.

A.16.2.5.2 Arrangement

Operation in hazardous areas is discussed in IMO MARPOL^[130].

Cargo piping systems should be independent of all other systems, and should be routed so that they do not pass through tanks containing fuel oil, or through spaces where sources of ignition are normally present, unless the floating structure equipment is specifically designed for operation in hazardous areas, with the appropriate classification, and

- the space is continuously ventilated with no less than 20 air changes per hour,
- loss of ventilation is alarmed in a manned space, and
- combustible gas detection is installed.

The positioning and arrangement of cargo discharge/loading pipes within tanks should be evaluated and designed to minimize the possible build up of static electricity charges. Normally, this is accomplished by positioning the discharge as low as possible within the tank. Adequate provisions should be incorporated in the cargo system's design to allow for expansion of the cargo piping system.

A.16.2.5.3 Pumps

The space in which electric motor pumps are located should not contain equipment that can be a source of ignition. In general, these spaces are arranged to exclude all electrical equipment, with the exception of certified, intrinsically safe systems and explosion-proof lighting. Electric motor drives for the cargo pumps should be in a separate space with their shafts passing through a gas-tight bulkhead to the pump room via gas-tight shaft glands. However, electrical components, including explosion-proof or flame-proof motor drivers for cargo pumps, suitable for operation in hazardous areas, may be installed in the cargo pump room, provided the alternative conditions given in A.16.2.5.2 are satisfied.

An alternative to the electric-motor-driven pumps is hydraulically-driven pumps. This type of installation requires hydraulic power packs in the machinery space with hydraulic piping located on the main deck. The pumps are submersible and located in each cargo tank and are powered by the pressurized hydraulic fluid provided from the machinery space. This type of installation eliminates the concern of having hazardous areas inside the machinery space.

A.16.2.6 Inert gas system

A.16.2.6.1 General

IMO SOLAS^[128], IMO MARPOL^[130] and References [172] and [9] should be applied as relevant and depending on the type of floating structure and on specified operating procedures.

A.16.2.6.2 Piping system

Consideration may be given to alternative systems which would provide the same level of safety as an inert gas system. One type of system which may be considered is produced-gas blanketing. This type of system is an enrichment system which uses produced hydrocarbon gases to raise the concentration in the vapour spaces of cargo tanks above the explosive/flammable limits. Before such a system is selected, appropriate regulatory bodies should be consulted to determine its acceptability and the possible need to provide a back-up system to ensure an adequate supply of gas is available at all times.

A.16.2.7 Crude oil washing system

The requirements for COW systems are covered in Regulation 13 of IMO MARPOL^[130], IMO MEPC/Circ. 406^[129], and Reference [133].

Many designers opt to install a COW system, even though it is not required, for the purpose of sludge control in the tanks. In these cases, the provisions of the IMO COW^[133] relative to safety should be considered in the COW system's design.

A COW system should be provided for monohulls with oil storage. This can be the simplest and most cost-effective method of controlling the large quantities of sludge that build up over time. This is especially important if the crude is known to contain large quantities of wax.

A hot oil or hot water washing system should also be considered for tank cleaning. The water washing system makes preparations for tank entry much easier.

A.16.3 Import and export systems

A.16.3.1 General

Contamination of ballast water should be prevented in accordance with the Reference [134] and national regulations. This applies primarily to structures constructed in one location and then transported or towed to the final operation site after taking on some ballast water at the construction site.

A.16.3.2 General functions of risers

Production risers transport fluids produced from the reservoir. Injection risers transport fluids to the producing reservoir or a convenient disposal or storage formation.

Export riser systems usually include equipment similar to production/injection risers. The riser diameters are usually larger than those of production risers so as to accommodate total production through the floating structure. The system's cross-section is usually a single pipe forming the flow path compared to production risers that generally have multiple pipes and multiple paths.

The major functions of drilling riser systems are to provide fluid transportation to and from the well, support auxiliary lines, guide tools, and drilling strings, and serve as a running and retrieving string for the blow-out preventer. Low pressure drilling riser systems used on floating structures perform the same functions as riser systems on drilling vessels.

Most spar systems have been designed with the drilling blow-out preventer at the top of the riser. In such cases, the drilling riser is designed for the added requirement of containing maximum formation pressure.

Completion/workover risers are used to provide full bore, unrestricted access to a well for the purposes of completing or working over the well.

A summary of various guidelines and standards relevant for the design of different riser categories and riser components is provided by Tables A.6 to A.9. At time of publication of this part of ISO 19904, Reference [24] was the most relevant document for design of risers operated from floating production systems; see also Reference [71].

The other references to risers in this part of ISO 19904 have been superseded to some extent by the publication of ISO 13628-7^[145] (for workover/completion risers). For design of the riser system, it is essential that a base document be selected and adhered to in order to achieve consistency between the implied actions, action effects, design formats, safety factors, capacity models and material requirements.

An overview of standards applicable to production risers and production riser components is provided by Tables A.6 and A.7, respectively. Similar summaries applicable to drilling and completion/workover risers are given in Tables A.8 and A.9.

Table A.6 — Production risers — Standards reference table

Production riser	International Standard(s)	Other standard(s)	
	ISO	Primary source ^a	Secondary source ^b
By duty			
Extended well test risers	—	—	—
Production risers — oil, gas	—	API RP 2RD ^[24]	DNV OS-F201 ^[82]
Injection risers — gas, water	—	API RP 2RD ^[24]	DNV OS-F201 ^[82]
Export risers — oil, gas, multiphase	ISO 13623 ^[142]	API RP 2RD ^[24] ASME B31.4 ^[42] ASME B31.8 ^[43] US DoT 49 CFR 192/195 ^[185]	BS 8010-3 ^[50] DNV OS-F201 ^[82] DNV OS-F201 ^[82]
Service risers — e.g. pig delivery	—	API RP 2RD ^[24]	—
Umbilical risers	ISO 13628-1 ^[143] ISO 13628-5 ^[144]	—	—
By type			
Top-tensioned — multi/single-tube	—	—	DNV OS-F201 ^[82]
Flexible — unbonded	ISO 13628-1 ^[143]	API RP 17B ^[36]	API Spec 17J ^[39]
Flexible — bonded	ISO 10420 ^[141]	API RP 17B ^[36]	API Spec 17K ^[40]
Hybrid risers	—	API RP 2RD ^[24]	—
Compliant metallic risers	—	API RP 2RD ^[24]	DNV OS-F201 ^[82]
^a Applicable standards concerned with the type of riser (or riser component) specified in the first column.			
^b Either standards that address specified types of riser (or riser component) only as a secondary issue, or to RCS documents.			

Table A.7 — Production riser components — Standards reference table

Production riser components	International Standard(s)	Other standards	
	ISO	Primary source ^a	Secondary source ^b
Tensioners	—	API Spec 16F ^[34]	—
Connectors	ISO 13628-1 ^[143] ISO 13628-7 ^[145]	—	API Spec 17D ^[37]
Bend restrictors	—	API RP 17B ^[36]	—
^a Applicable standards concerned with the type of riser (or riser component) specified in the first column.			
^b Either standards that address specified types of riser (or riser component) only as a secondary issue, or to RCS documents.			

Table A.8 — Drilling risers — Standards reference table

Drilling riser	International Standard(s)	Other standard(s)	
	ISO	Primary source ^a	Secondary source ^b
Drilling — Exploration from floating MODU	—	API RP 16Q ^[35]	DNV OS-F201 ^[82]
Drilling — Development — From FPS	—	API RP 2RD ^[24]	DNV OS-F201 ^[82]
Drilling — Development — From jack-up	—	API RP 2RD ^[24]	DNV OS-F201 ^[82]
^a Applicable standards concerned with the type of riser (or riser component) specified in the first column.			
^b Either standards that address specified types of riser (or riser component) only as a secondary issue, or to RCS documents.			

Table A.9 — Completion and workover risers — Standards reference table

Completion and workover riser	International Standard(s)	Other standard(s)	
	ISO	Primary source ^a	Secondary source ^b
From MSV	ISO 13628-7 ^[145]	API RP 17G ^[38] API RP 16Q ^[35]	DNV OS-F201 ^[82]
From FPS	—	API RP 17G ^[38]	DNV OS-F201 ^[82]
^a Applicable standards concerned with the type of riser (or riser component) specified in the first column.			
^b Either standards that address specified types of riser (or riser component) only as a secondary issue, or to RCS documents.			

Single and multibore hybrid risers provide multiple flow paths from the seabed to a floating structure by a combination of vertical metal piping over most of the water column and flexible piping between the top and the floating structure. There are many possible variations. The typical key components of a hybrid riser are

- steel tubulars,
- buoyancy modules,
- peripheral lines (vertical steel pipe flow lines running the full length of the metal riser section),
- flexible jumper hoses (flexible pipes connected from the goosenecks at the top assembly of the metal riser to the support points on the floating structure),
- top assembly or upper riser connector package,
- air tanks, and
- riser base.

A single or multibore top-tensioned metal riser pierces the water surface and extends its rigid geometry all the way up to the deck of a vessel. At the top, standard tensioning equipment provides support for the riser. Top-tensioned risers have been used for applications such as import and/or export of fluids coming from subsea manifolds or templates. A top-tensioned metal riser can also support metal freestanding flow lines.

The metal riser joints, stress joint, lower riser connector package and riser base follow the same pattern as described for the hybrid riser.

A.16.3.3 Riser interfaces

No guidance is offered.

A.16.3.4 Cargo offloading system

A.16.3.4.1 General

A.16.3.4.1.1 Riser and pipeline export

The riser and pipeline export system involves the transfer of produced oil, gas, water or other products from the floating structure through conduits (risers) to subsea connections of pipeline (flow line), wellhead, template, or pipeline end manifold for transmission to shore or injection into a suitable geological formation. A separate offloading mooring system is used where separation between the floating structure and the export tanker is important for safety reasons or in areas where space is too limited to allow safe tandem transfer.

Unless the fluids are first transmitted to nearby booster pumping stations or compression and treatment structures, the floating structure should have high pressure gas compression, gas and water treatment and high pressure pumping facilities, to condition the produced fluids for export.

For a turret-moored, weathervaning floating structure, a high-pressure swivel (sealed, rotatable joint or coupling) or wrap-around hose system should be specified. If the swivel or wrap-around hose is already planned for the incoming production stream, it can be equipped with multiple paths to also accommodate the outgoing export risers.

A.16.3.4.1.2 Tanker transfer

Hydrocarbons can be transferred from the floating structure directly into trading tankers of opportunity or into dedicated shuttle tankers and barges, for export or shuttling to onshore or offshore terminals. Floating structure-to-tanker transfer can be accomplished using any one, or a combination, of the following transfer schemes:

- alongside (side-by-side) transfer, the method of transferring fluids from a floating structure to an offloading tanker which is moored side-by-side;
- tandem transfer, the method of transferring fluids from a floating structure to an offloading tanker, which is connected to the floating structure vessel in tandem;
- separate offloading mooring system transfer, the method of transferring fluids from the floating structure via one or more risers and subsea flow-lines to an offloading tanker, which is moored separated and remotely from the floating structure.

Both the alongside transfer and the tandem transfer can use a flexible offloading hose arrangement, an above-water hose boom, or a hard pipe swivel joint boom to transfer fluids to the offloading tanker. The flexible offloading hose can be left floating in the water or stored on a reel or any similar arrangement when not in use. The method of hose storage depends on the environment at a given location.

A dripless valve should be included as part of the system such that if quick disconnect is required no resulting pollution should occur.

Automatic valves should be set-up to close at a speed that minimizes the dynamic shock to the system. Also, it is important that good procedures and communications are developed between the offloading structure and the tanker to prevent inadvertent closing of valves.

An example of RCS rules for the classification of offshore loading and offloading buoys is given by Reference [60].

A.16.3.4.2 Alongside transfer

Alongside, or side-by-side, transfer of hydrocarbons is often used for offloading from a ship-shaped floating structure in areas with mild weather conditions. This method involves berthing or mooring an export tanker or a barge alongside the ship-shaped floating structure. Hydrocarbon products are then transferred through marine type hoses or loading arms to the cargo tank manifolds. These are usually installed amidships on either side of the export tanker or the floating structure. Pneumatic or foam-filled fenders should be used to avoid damage to each hull that could result from contact between the floating structure and the export tanker. A cargo hose derrick or a gantry arrangement should preferably tend the offloading hoses. Loading arms installed on the deck of the floating structure are self-powered systems with optional positioning and alarm functions. Tending of loading arms and offloading hoses should preferably be automated, and integrated systems should be used to signal an unsafe condition where fluid transfer needs to be shut down and disconnection initiated quickly.

The export vessel is secured to the ship-shaped floating structure by mooring lines, usually passed over from the floating structure to the export tanker. The side of floating structure selected for oil transfer usually depends upon

- location of process equipment, including flare, on the deck of the floating structure,
- the desired headings of the floating structure and tanker (i.e. bow-to-bow or bow-to-stern),
- prevailing environmental directionality, and often
- the natural tendency of a single screw export tanker to swing to port or starboard.

In either case, an emergency release system should be employed to contain the product in the event that loading operations are interrupted.

Transfer of oil between vessels moored alongside using one or more standard marine hoses should comply with Reference [173]. Hoses can be tended by one or more cranes or A-frame structures, or by a gantry mounted on the main deck of the floating structure.

Alongside transfers between vessels can also be accomplished using one or more marine loading arms mounted on the main deck of the floating structure. The loading arm assembly is typically constructed using constant motion swivel joints and rigid piping components, such that a powered movable pressure-containing piping system can convey fluid. Design requirements appear in Reference [171].

All low-pressure crude oil offloading or manifold piping installed on the floating structure should comply with RCS rules or equivalent for cargo oil piping. Where the shut-off pressure of any floating structure offloading pump exceeds the pressure rating of any hose, fitting, or loading arm, a relief valve should be installed on each offloading manifold or piping to prevent over-pressuring of the downstream loading system. Each offloading manifold should be equipped with a catch basin or drip pan, and manifolds should be spaced and positioned according to Reference [175].

A.16.3.4.3 Tandem transfer

Tandem transfer is a commonly used, low-pressure crude oil export system, which involves offloading of hydrocarbon from a floating structure to a tanker which is moored in-line with the floating structure. Floating structure and tanker can be arranged bow-to-bow or bow-to-floating-structure-stern, and the transfer of hydrocarbons can be made through an above-water hose boom, a floating hose or submerged hose, or a hard pipe and swivel joint boom-to-tanker system.

Compared to the alongside transfer method, the tandem transfer method can be used in harsher environments. The system offers better possibilities for quick disconnection and further separation between the vessels. Tandem transfer can be adapted for use with either a weathervaning or a spread-moored floating structure.

The tanker can be moored to the floating structure by one or more hawsers. A DP, thruster-assisted or supply boat/tug-assisted tanker can improve the operational safety of the transfer operation.

For tandem floating hose design, the offloading hose length, dimension and configuration depend upon the following parameters:

- environmental conditions;
- floating structure and tanker motions;
- distance between vessels based on mooring requirements;
- maximum amount of hawser stretch;
- location of offloading manifold on the floating structure;
- location of loading manifold on the export vessel;
- maximum freeboard of both vessels;
- slack allowance.

The above-water method of tandem transfer differs from the floating or submerged hose method in that the offloading hose or hard pipe with swivels rarely touches the water and is supported by a boom extended from the floating structure. The tanker and/or the floating structure should be equipped with DP thrusters or other means for stationkeeping to maintain a safe distance between the floating structure and the tanker. The safe distance between the floating structure and the tanker, and the resulting loading system length, depends upon the reach and height of the boom, the amount of hawser stretch and the tanker's capability for maintaining accurate positioning on the boom.

The hawser or mooring rope used for berthing an export tanker (except for alongside transfer) is usually of a nylon, polypropylene or polyester material, and of a braided, eight-strand construction. A monohull floating structure should be equipped with a quick-release hawser assembly connection, in case quick disconnection is needed. Hawsers should be sized and specified in general conformance with RCS rules or equivalent. Use of a hawser tension load monitoring system and recording device is recommended. Hawser angle with respect to the fairlead can also be monitored. Hawsers should be subjected to periodic inspection and testing at regular intervals.

Guidance on tandem loading is presented in Reference [184].

A.16.3.5 Material handling

Lifting and transport facilities should be available to handle all equipment items which exceed a certain minimum weight (e.g. 40 kg) and are out of reach of deck cranes. These facilities can be permanent, semi-permanent or portable.

- Permanent facilities include, for example, a permanently installed lifting appliance mounted on a trolley, which itself is installed on a permanent running beam.
- Semi-permanent facilities include, for example, padeyes for lifting, a portable lifting appliance and a truck/trolley.
- Portable facilities include, for example, a tripod, a portable lifting appliance and a truck/trolley.

The possible combinations are numerous.

For floating structures having several closed watertight decks, an enclosed, combined personnel/cargo lift is often a preferred solution for vertical transport through decks. An alternative system could be required should the lift be inoperable, e.g. due to vessel heeling.

For horizontal transport through watertight bulkheads, running beams with removable sections at doors are a possible solution.

A.16.3.6 Lifting appliances

Design requirements for lifting appliances are given by References [5], [21], [29], [30], [55], [98], [105], [109] and [159].

A.16.4 Fire protection systems

A.16.4.1 General

Alternative design and arrangements for fire safety are provided by References [12] and [81], or by other national and international organizations, for example, the National Fire Protection Agency (NFPA) standards.

A.16.4.2 Structural fire protection systems

Further reference should be made to the IMO MODU Code^[127].

A.16.4.3 Firewater systems

No guidance is offered.

A.16.4.4 Fixed fire extinguishing systems

Reference should be made to RCS rules for guidance on fixed fire extinguishing systems. National/international standards and codes, e.g. API RP 14G^[33], can also be referenced.

Reference should be made to Reference [166] for further information on the ratings of portable fire extinguishers.

Reference should be made to RCS rules and national/international standards, codes and regulations, and API RP 14G^[33], for requirements for portable extinguishers for protection of marine facilities, process facilities and related areas.

A.16.4.5 Alarms

The IMO Code on Alarms and Indicators^[126] describes appropriate requirements for alarms and indicators.

Reference should be made to API RP 14G^[33] and API RP 14C^[31] for guidance on fire detection systems in hazardous areas.

Reference should be made to RCS rules or equivalent for further guidance on fire detection systems in accommodation areas.

Reference should be made to RCS rules or equivalent, API RP 14C^[31] and API RP 14F^[32] for further guidance on combustible gas detection systems for enclosed and semi-enclosed areas.

A.17 Stationkeeping systems

A.17.1 General

Table A.10 gives an overview of relevant stationkeeping systems.

Table A.10 — Overview of stationkeeping systems

Structure type	Normal stationkeeping system	Alternatives
Monohull (fixed direction)	Spread moored	Catenary, semi-taut or taut lines
Monohull (rotatable)	Single-point moored turret	Catenary, semi-taut or taut lines; fixed heading or quick disconnect; DP or thruster assisted
Semi-submersible	Spread moored	Catenary, semi-taut or taut lines; DP or thruster assisted
Spar	Spread moored	Semi-taut, taut or catenary lines

A.17.2 Mooring equipment

A.17.2.1 Winches

Winches should meet the requirements specified in ISO 9089^[140] and the IMO MODU code^[127].

A.17.2.2 Fairleads and chain stoppers

For permanent mooring systems, the chain and fairlead should be aligned to ensure the chain is loaded in tension, thus avoiding bending loads on the links.

A.17.2.3 Monitoring and control equipment

No guidance is offered.

A.17.2.4 Disconnectable mooring

No guidance is offered.

A.17.3 Turret

A.17.3.1 General

Depending on the type of fluid transfer system between turret and floating structure, the freedom to rotate can be limited or not.

If a swivel type transfer system is used, then the floating structure can rotate without limitation in the horizontal plane in both directions around the turret.

Use of a hose-based transfer system, on the other hand, limits the relative rotation in either direction and the floating structure should have the capability to reverse the rotation to avoid hoses and cables being broken or disconnected. Thrusters can be used to turn the structure back if the rotation in one direction exceeds certain limits.

The transfer system is considered part of the topsides process system and is not discussed further in this part of ISO 19904.

A.17.3.2 Turret structure

No guidance is offered.

A.17.3.3 Bearing system**A.17.3.3.1 General**

The following references give design guidance for bearings: ABMA Codes^[41], ASME 77-DE-39^[44], ISO 76^[135] in combination with ISO 281^[136].

A.17.3.3.2 Forces on the bearing system

The mooring system normally introduces bending moments because vertical and horizontal forces are applied at the lower end of the turret while the bearing is very often located at the main deck level. For such systems, the global bending moment is absorbed by the bearing system. Uplift in the bearing system can occur — depending on the weight of the turret, the horizontal mooring force components, etc. Some turrets are equipped with a lower bearing system located close to the structure bottom, to absorb the horizontal reactions without introducing huge bending moments in the upper bearing.

Generally, the upper bearing system absorbs both vertical and horizontal forces, while the lower bearing system (if any) absorbs horizontal forces only.

A.17.3.3.3 Alternative bearing designs

Roller bearing systems should have small rotational resistance. As the floating structure rotates, the turret rotates back to its equilibrium position for a relatively small offset angle.

For a sliding bearing system, the friction in the bearing keeps the turret in its rotational position until it is rotated by a turning system. This means that if the structure is rotated without turning the turret back to its equilibrium, the turret rotates with the structure — introducing twist in the mooring and riser system. The breakout angle is defined as the twist angle of the mooring and riser system, for which the turning moment from these systems exceeds the frictional resistance in the swivel and bearing system. When this twist angle is reached, the turret breaks loose and rotates back to a new equilibrium position. The breakout angle should be documented for turrets with sliding bearings. The system should be designed such that excessive twisting of the riser and mooring system is avoided.

A.17.3.3.4 Inspection, maintenance and repair

No guidance is offered.

A.17.3.4 Turning and locking systems

No guidance is offered.

A.18 In-service inspection, monitoring and maintenance**A.18.1 General**

A study of good practice for inspection, repair and maintenance of monohull floating structures is presented by Reference [183].

A.18.2 Structural integrity management system philosophies

A.18.2.1 General

Structural integrity management is an overall process based on appropriate use and application of models for describing actions and structural strength, structural analysis methodologies, design rules, safety elements, workmanship, quality control procedures and site-specific requirements, all of them mutually dependent. The successful outcome of this process is based on an experience-based and time-tested balance of the uncertainties inherent in all the various elements. Modifications to any individual element or step of the process should be carefully considered in relation to the effect on the whole process, and on the overall reliability of offshore structural systems.

Given the variety of approaches available, it is expected that an owner inspection strategy document would set out the philosophy and approach to be adopted for each particular structure or for a group of structures in a specific geographical location. This strategy document should describe the intended use, the planned operating methods and the maintenance philosophy for the structure, taking into consideration the condition of the structure when purchased, the capabilities of staff and the availability of inspection techniques that could realistically be deployed in the area. The strategy document should be developed during the design process (whether for new-build or conversion) and updated and reissued prior to deployment. It should be reviewed and revised as necessary, e.g. after the first in-service inspection.

Arrangements for implementing the SIM system should start at the design stage by

- identifying critical design details,
- making provision for access to allow inspection, and
- recognizing the possible need for inspection and repairs in the field and making certain that a general provision has been included in the design to allow this to be realized.

Structural integrity management includes the following major activities:

- a) establishment of a monitoring system comprising strategy, inspection philosophy, evaluation/assessment methodology, acceptance criteria and reporting routine;
- b) development of a long-term monitoring programme which is subject to updating and revision;
- c) regular inspection planning and implementation;
- d) recording, evaluating and reporting inspection results;
- e) monitoring environmental conditions and strain in structural components where the representative values are highly uncertain;
- f) regular assessment of fitness-for-purpose, especially if inspections reveal unexpected deterioration;
- g) consideration of appropriate prevention and mitigation measures;
- h) development of emergency preparedness and response procedures for mobilization of personnel against failure of critical systems or evacuation planning;
- i) any changes in the structural configuration or the mechanical systems in Clause 16, which should also be reflected on the as-built drawings.

The SIM system should, as a minimum, provide a means of monitoring, within a reasonable level of confidence, the status of

- degradation or deterioration due to fatigue,

- the effects of any time-dependent structural damage,
- corrosion and corrosion protection systems,
- fabrication or installation damage,
- damage or component weakening due to overload,
- damage due to man-made hazards,
- excessive deformations,
- changes in lightship weight or buoyancy,
- changes in hydrostatic stability (for all operational situations),
- conditions or events which could cause damage, especially to the watertight integrity of the hull or internal compartmentation,
- defects in watertight doors, hatches, automatic shutting functions and on-board warnings, and
- defects in ballasting arrangements, tank soundings, valves and pumps.

It should also allow the detection of changes in patterns of structural deterioration that follow changes to operating systems and procedures so that corrective measures can be taken if these are felt necessary.

Guidance for monitoring is given in References [7] and [91].

A.18.2.2 Database development and data acquisition

The database should incorporate documents that provide good general descriptions of the main structural features so that engineers who did not participate in the original design or conversion are pointed to key structural aspects, liable to affect decisions about repair and maintenance.

If a floating structure is converted from an earlier function, some method should be established to allow access to the earlier data, particularly the classification inspections, integrity monitoring data resulting from previous inspections and fabrication details. These records are associated with the classification of the floating structure and the associated classification inspections and are particularly important since it is not uncommon for the rules and regulations applicable to the design to have evolved since the structure was built or subsequently repaired or converted. Detailed justification of dispensations against later requirements should be recorded since this can be important when performing subsequent modifications or repairs.

In establishing a database “from new”, it is important to recognize that data from a sister floating structure can give insight into expectations and possible weaknesses of the new floating structure.

Damage that has occurred during installation, or has only become apparent during the initial survey, should be identified, recorded and monitored.

Care should be given to interpretation and evaluation of unanticipated problems identified during inspection, which can be symptomatic of more severe problems in other related areas not scheduled for imminent inspection.

Some special areas are generic and not particularly configuration-specific, such as hard points and “poor/difficult detailing” that have been identified as such during fabrication, while others tend to be configuration-specific. For examples, see A.11.1 for monohulls, A.12.1 for semi-submersibles and A.13.1 for spars.

A.18.2.3 Evaluation

The effect of new rules and regulations on an existing structure is normally determined in some form of risk assessment.

For floating structures, watertight integrity of the hull is a major requirement, but integrity of internal compartmentation and piping are also important for controlling or limiting potential damage situations.

Many papers have been published calling for more effective risk- and reliability-based inspection approaches (e.g. References [11], [14], [15], [70] and [170]). These can be very important for drawing conclusions about un-inspected hull components based on results obtained from a smaller sample of inspection points. However, due to the possible interaction between highly localized construction faults and particular loading conditions, most inspections are still based on a requirement to inspect the entire hull in a five-year (typical) inspection cycle, and reliability-based approaches are used to supplement this requirement rather than to limit it.

A.18.2.4 Planning

There are at least four distinct aspects to planning inspections on an offshore facility:

- a) making available such equipment as necessary to allow the inspection to proceed safely and efficiently; where work is to be undertaken in an area containing a possible explosive environment, equipment should be checked and approved for these conditions;
- b) ensuring that the tasks can be implemented efficiently taking into consideration the simultaneous operational requirements imposed on the structure; to be certain that this is even possible, most of these considerations should be recognized and taken into account during the design stages (whether for new-build or conversion);
- c) ensuring careful, methodical coverage so that the equipment, compartments and acreage of steel receive adequate coverage over a protracted cycle of inspections;
- d) ensuring that any knowledge and insight into the condition or performance of the structure are taken into account sensibly in later inspections.

Published documents detailing inspection requirements and any inspection aids such as check lists or aids to identification of anticipated problems (such as fatigue cracks) should be consulted. Special equipment can aid the effective inspection restricted access areas.

It can be necessary to confirm that the planned complement of inspection staff and any back-up recovery teams are in position before work begins. Such inspection staff and recovery teams should be trained in working in confined spaces, as appropriate. For inspections on an operating floating structure, suitable isolation should be provided for crude and inert gas systems. Rescue and resuscitation gear should be fully functional and at hand. Test equipment should be in place to ensure a breathable atmosphere. Access facilities should be established and retreat arrangements should be checked to ensure that an injured worker can be recovered to a safe environment.

A.18.2.5 Implementation

The general plans for inspection should indicate how inspections are to be performed. The inspection team should be fully aware of any proposed operations and/or restrictions arising from structural modifications.

Monohulls satisfy substantially more and different criteria than trading vessels; nevertheless, much detailed information about implementation of inspection and maintenance can be obtained from publications relating to trading vessels. It is important to critically examine any guidance obtained from such sources, since many complications can arise in applying these to an operating production facility. Reference [124] contains basic safety requirements and Reference [125] contains detailed information for tank entry and all aspects of implementation of inspection on oil tankers.

The following is an indication of some other important requirements that relate, specifically, to an operating production structure.

- Tank inspections on a monohull take place during continuous loading operations while crude is being produced. This implies that careful consideration should be given during design to freeing and isolating tanks so that safe working conditions can be established for the inspection team.
- Gas freeing of tanks can be implemented with the floating structure at rest in slack wind conditions, and special measures should be implemented to ensure dispersal of any gas cloud that can be produced. Gas detectors can shut down production systems automatically if they are affected by a slowly dispersing gas cloud.
- It is usually impractical to fit conventional pressure/vacuum valves and gas freeing vents in the tank top deck below the process deck, and special arrangements should be incorporated in design.
- Inspection necessitates cleaning of the tanks to be inspected and disposal of any associated sediments, sludge and emulsions.
- Some structures are designed for high loading rates and careful planning should ensure that there is sufficient time to carry out the inspection. A loading sequence should be devised to ensure that the structure can withstand the hydrostatic bending moments associated with each empty tank or group of tanks.
- A through-thickness crack to an adjacent tank can also have serious repercussions for the inspection team if it could admit pressurized gas into the inspection area. The inspection team should be alert for this possibility and appropriate procedures and necessary equipment should be in place.
- Where rope-based access (rappelling) proves impractical, support platform access to areas requiring close-up inspection is an important consideration, given that the structure can move in response to wave motion. In many cases, ladders, walkways, staging, extending/articulating ladders and collapsible cradles should also be provided.
- The majority of inspection activities on a monohull are conducted within the hull rather than from the sea. However, it can be necessary or easier to inspect some areas of the hull from the sea and in these cases provision should be made for deployment of special hull cleaning equipment, for diving and ROV monitoring. These inspections should be integrated to interface with other marine and supply activities around the platform.

Most mobile semi-submersibles can deballast to survival or pontoon draught, thereby allowing parts of the underwater hulls, brace/hull and brace/leg connections to be inspected in the dry. While it can be necessary for a production platform to weather storms without draught change, it is important to retain the facility to allow inspection in the dry if at all possible. For most semi-submersibles, there is a minimum stability draught between normal operating and pontoon draught and it is important to ensure that, whatever topsides loading and load distribution changes are allowed, they do not prevent the semi-submersible's deballasting through the minimum stability condition.

During design, consideration should be given to structural redundancy and ease of access for inspection and maintenance. Special requirements against corrosion and fatigue can have been implemented at that time. Reference [128] gives guidance on providing means of access for trading tankers which are worthy of consideration on monohull floating structures, in particular. Experience on semi-submersibles shows fatigue-sensitive details are detected after they have been deployed, and action has to be taken to repair and strengthen these details while the semi-submersible is out of service between jobs. This is more difficult for a production semi-submersible and so more effort needs to be expended at the design and fabrication stage to avoid this situation. Even so, some structures are found to suffer from potential weaknesses after they have been deployed, and special surveys should be arranged on a regular basis to ensure the integrity of the structure. In some instances, inspection of details below mean water level and in the splash zone form part of these special surveys.

For a spar, special attention should ensure that deep-draught voids and empty tanks remain dry and thereby avoid corrosion build-up. The majority of a spar structure can be inspected from within but access to the lower parts of the structure can be difficult. Some critical items (truss connections, mooring fairleads, chains and riser bell-mouths, for example) should be inspected underwater by diver and ROV. However, a spar is normally deep-draught and there are items in the base which can be beyond normal diving depth. ROVs can be used to inspect/monitor these items and special operations (e.g. an atmospheric diving suit) can be used if unexpected repairs are required in these regions.

A.18.3 Planning considerations

A.18.3.1 General

The inspection programme should guide and control all aspects of the inspection and maintenance philosophy, and address

- overall design configuration,
- regulatory and RCS requirements (as applicable),
- field life potential,
- access arrangements,
- internal inspection,
- external and in-water inspection,
- inspection schedules,
- replacement schedules,
- methods and procedures,
- description of the extent and method of inspection,
- extent, frequency and circumstances for NDT,
- reporting and remedial actions, and
- inspection history.

It is important to recognize the different interests in the results of an inspection.

Statutory surveys should fulfil IMO requirements, such as References [127], [128] and [132], and the requirements of Reference [121].

Coastal or national regulations can prevail in some cases, particularly if some other “national asset” such as a recreation area or fishery or area of outstanding scientific interest could be affected by an accident or pollution incident.

The owner can desire more detailed information about the structural condition so that repair operations can be scheduled well in advance, including an in-depth knowledge of

- present state and estimated corrosion rates for structural components,
- present condition and expected rate of deterioration of the corrosion control system,
- existence, severity and potential for further development of structural defects, and
- potential for cargo contamination or a pollution incident.

Given the difficulty of organising offshore inspections, it is important to plan each operation to obtain the information required by all interested parties. MMS give guidance on planning inspections, survey and data management^[163].

A.18.3.2 Inspection categories

A.18.3.2.1 General

No guidance is offered

A.18.3.2.2 Scheduled inspections

The baseline survey takes place at the same time as the integrity monitoring database is being assembled and as-built models for the on-going evaluation of the floating structure are produced to represent the final, installed condition of the structure. If any structural details are identified as particularly critical, final thickness measurements can be taken or special monitoring instrumentation can be installed so that any future deterioration can be detected.

The baseline survey should record any details of the floating platform that cannot be recorded before installation is completed. For example, any final adjustments to anchor line tensions or the precise location of drag anchors are determined after installation and mathematical models for future mooring assessments should be updated accordingly.

In most instances a programme of periodic inspections is developed prior to installation. For a floating platform in which tanks are used regularly for crude oil storage, there can be benefits in engaging an inspection team on a continuous basis. The team is able to take advantage of periods when either production is low or offloading operations can be performed more frequently, to carry out cargo tank inspection and maintenance on a rotational basis. Typically, periodic inspections are organized on the basis of inspecting approximately one quarter of the platform internals in any one year with additional tasks planned to ensure an entire internal and external underwater inspection within a five-year period.

Modifications and repairs should be recorded carefully and unambiguously.

A.18.3.2.3 Unscheduled inspections

When a structure experiences an event close to, or exceeding, that for which it is designed, various changes can occur which need to be corrected. It is common, for example, for drag anchors to move slightly during design situations, and it can be necessary to re-tension anchor lines to maintain floating structure location and excursions within design specifications.

In many cases, RCS rules or international regulations can have changed since original installation and it is normal to reassess how the structure compares with the new requirements. If the structure does not fully meet the new regulations, the structure should be re-examined to ensure that it can continue to operate and, if so, under what terms. If new ownership leads to a change in certifying authority, the floating structure should be re-evaluated against the requirements of the new body to ensure that any accommodations or dispensations accepted by a previous authority are acceptable to the new one.

A change of location initiates a review of the baseline condition of a floating structure, although, if there is no associated change of ownership or structural modification, the programme of condition monitoring for the hull structure may progress relatively unchanged.

A.18.4 Implementation issues

A.18.4.1 Personnel qualifications

See Reference [28] for ultrasonic and magnetic examination of offshore structural fabrication and guidelines for qualification of technicians.

A.18.4.2 Equipment certification

Calibration procedures should be based, wherever possible, on well-established International Standards.

A.18.4.3 Inspection programmes

A.18.4.3.1 General

A useful way to distinguish different types of inspection programmes is by the locations of the structure to be covered. For structural inspections, which also cover such items as watertight integrity, riser and mooring attachments, it is normal to distinguish three zones: submerged, atmospheric (external, above submerged) and internal. The internal inspections can be further subdivided according to whether or not the areas to be inspected can be used for the storage of bulk hydrocarbons, ballast water or are normally void except for equipment and crew. The preparation, manpower and equipment that are to be deployed for inspecting these zones are substantially different and so these inspections tend to be scheduled separately.

Consideration should be given to providing charts and/or other location aids to allow inspection teams the possibility of quickly and accurately recording the precise location of any findings.

In general it is not practical to dry-dock for routine inspection and so special arrangements should be implemented to allow underwater inspection at site.

- Scraping of the hull can enable divers and ROVs to implement inspections of the underwater zones, and it can also be necessary to safeguard against fluid intakes that could trap a diver.
- Small inspection ROVs can also be deployed for the underwater inspection of ballast tanks, provided the ballast water is sufficiently clean that adequate lighting, visibility and contrast can be achieved.
- Internal inspections can be made more efficient by adopting an appropriate colour for surface coatings.

Reference [125], Appendix V, provides forms and procedures for data collection and reporting. For guidance on the inspection and maintenance of double hull tanker structures, see Reference [181]. While these are specific to the inspection of tankers, they form a useful general reference.

Rope-based access methods using the existing steel structure for rope anchoring points appear to be more effective for production platforms. Specialized equipment should be used to allow inspection of particular areas where access is difficult, e.g. bottom plating below bell-mouths.

A.18.4.3.2 General visual inspection (GVI)

GVI should be performed in accordance with ISO 17637^[148].

A GVI procedure is used to reveal large and/or general levels of damage and deterioration and to help identify cases where more detailed inspections could be necessary, particularly CVIs. A GVI requires satisfactory levels of ambient light and in interior spaces can require significant amounts of artificial lighting. Light-coloured coatings on surfaces, particularly those in interior spaces, can be of considerable assistance in identifying levels of coating condition and/or breakdown, the existence of cracks or fractures in elements of the structure, and the presence of deformations associated with buckling, gross distortions, and dent-type damages.

Areas where coating breakdown has occurred and the condition is determined to be poor are subject to a CVI and a TM.

Areas without coatings, such as storage tanks can suffer biological deterioration of the surface. This can be detected during a GVI but can often require a CVI to define its extent.

References [13] and [125] provide colour photographs to guide inspectors to standardized reporting of

- condition of coatings,
- levels, types and locations of corrosion,
- observed deposits or scale,
- repairs, and
- evidence of weld cracks.

Typically, inspections report the following:

- a) for coatings, whether the coating is intact, discoloured, blistered, subject to surface or deeper layer peeling or absent (percent effect);
- b) for corrosion, if absent, if manifest as stain marks, scattered, patchy or some percentage level; some measure of the extent of pitting, location of members affected and whether corrosion is restricted to particular areas or not (e.g. edges of stiffeners); if confined to specific details, such as weld lines or more general;
- c) for deposits/scale, coverage with moisture or any other type of droplets or film, its nature, perhaps colour, whether soft or hard, organic/biological or inorganic in origin (if known) and whether it is restricted to particular locations;
- d) for repairs, the evidence of the existence of a previous repair and its current status.

In view of the potentially serious repercussions of lack of bulkhead integrity, the inspection team should seek evidence of weep holes in bulkheads or around valves or pipe welds.

Inspectors should report evidence of structural overloading, whether in the form of plastic or severe elastic deformation (as evident from markings in coating, for example). Photographic evidence of earlier inspections is important to make inspectors aware of gradual changes over time that can indicate a chronic problem (and the need for remedial action).

The designer should provide guidance for the inspection team, including any locations where it is particularly important to recognize coating deterioration and corrosion.

A.18.4.3.3 Close-up visual inspection (CVI)

CVI should be performed in accordance with ISO 17637^[148].

A close-up visual inspection procedure is normally conducted within “arm’s length” of the surface under consideration. Suitable levels of ambient lighting are required. Light-coloured surface coatings can be of assistance in detecting the presence of cracks or fractures to the structure.

CVIs can be of assistance in determining whether TM and WI inspections ought to be undertaken and their likely locations and extents.

Special areas should, as a minimum, be subjected to CVIs on an annual basis, but it may be less frequent if recommended by the designer or manufacturer.

The use of head-mounted lighting and camera equipment can facilitate the recording of direct visual evidence of the condition of coatings and surfaces and the magnitudes of visible cracks and fractures.

Reference [125] provides general guidance as to where cracks can be anticipated and the form they can take. Photographic examples of the same may also be provided to inspection teams to guide them to specific details.

Again, it is important for the designer to provide guidance on particular areas where cracks can initiate. The inspection team should also be alert to unexpected cracks in other areas.

For a production platform that stores crude and can use inert gas to reduce the risks of fire and explosion, it is particularly important to detect any conditions that can cause through-thickness cracking. These can lead to contamination of other spaces and can also make it difficult to isolate the relevant areas for inspection and repair. Through-thickness cracking can also increase the risks to an inspection team, as they could be overcome by gases from an adjacent tank. Similarly, incipient leakage from crude or inert gas piping can cause changes to the atmosphere in a tank, which would be particularly dangerous.

A.18.4.3.4 Thickness measurements (TM)

Thicknesses are usually measured using ultrasonic techniques. The frequency and spacing at which TM are performed are a function of the perceived level of corrosion that has already taken place and its degree of uniformity.

Where access to plating is limited to one face for at least one sequence of inspections, it is prudent to perform TM, even though it is not strictly required on the basis of the evidence from the visible face of the plating.

TM should be performed in areas where the coating condition is considered to be poor.

To obtain meaningful data from ultrasonic thickness readings, a careful systematic approach is needed to the collection and recording of data. The number and extent of readings has to increase substantially if general rather than local corrosion rates are to be determined.

Because of the scale of most floating offshore structures, findings at one location can be considered representative of other similar areas. Designers and inspectors should be aware of differences between symmetrical locations since they can be affected by substantial differences in corrosion effects. For example, if the orientation of the floating structure is such that one particular side is more exposed to the direct heat of the sun than another, the elevated temperature can lead to more rapid corrosion.

A.18.4.3.5 Weld inspection (WI)

Weld inspections are performed to detect surface breaking and embedded defects. Several techniques are available for this purpose each of differing capability, ease of use and cost.

For surface breaking defects, these include MPI (magnetic particle inspection), EC (eddy current), ACPD (alternating current potential drop) and ACFM (alternating current field measurements).

NDT should be performed in accordance with the general rules specified in ISO 17635^[146], although reference can also be made to ABS Guide for Non-destructive Inspection of Hull Welds^[10].

For embedded defects, use is normally made of volumetric NDT techniques such as ultrasonics (see ISO 17640^[150], BV Guidance Note NI 165^[62] and DNV Classification Note No. 7^[89]), radiography (see ISO 17636^[147]), and X-rays.

NDT over coatings can be referenced in Reference [1].

Reference [125] provides sketches of the different types of cracks that have been observed in fatigue-prone areas. Several methods of crack detection are available, some better suited to internal inspection and others more adaptable to underwater application.

The relevant crack detection techniques are as follows.

- a) Liquid penetrant methods can be used to detect surface breaking cracks and crack-like flaws, but this method has not been developed for underwater use. It is also inconvenient in that it needs a clean, grease-free and oil-free surface to be used effectively.
- b) Magnetic particle inspection (MPI) is proven in use both for onshore and offshore inspection and should be performed in accordance with ISO 17638^[149]. It provides information, mainly about surface breaking cracks, being relatively insensitive to sub-surface damage. It has been a standard inspection technique

and is often the one against which other systems are judged. Typically, it allows crack lengths to be determined, ± 2 mm, and crack location to be recorded, ± 20 mm. MPI cannot directly detect the depth of a crack and therefore the severity of the flaw, so some other technique can be required to be deployed subsequently to complete the assessment.

- c) Eddy current (EC) is a non-contact electromagnetic inspection technique relying on the perturbation by flaws of eddy currents induced in the metal surface and should be performed in accordance with ISO 17643^[151]. It is primarily a method for detection of surface breaking cracks, although some depth penetration can be gained, depending on the frequency of the eddy current field and the metal.
- d) Alternating current field measurement (ACFM) is a non-contact electromagnetic technique developed specifically for underwater weld inspection. It allows the detection of surface breaking defects without the necessity for cleaning or removing the coating. ACFM methods enable flaw lengths and depths to be assessed. Recent trends in EC and ACFM techniques have been broadly similar with a high degree of computerization allowing data recording and analysis.
- e) MPI, EC and ACFM have been developed further for ROV applications and can be effective for underwater application. All are limited by accessibility of some areas to the probe, ROV and manipulator arm geometry, so careful consideration should be taken before deploying any technique as a sole means of inspecting critical structural details.
- f) A large number of ultrasonic techniques are applicable to sizing and locating flaws, particularly where these are located deep within or towards the remote side of a steel construction. They should be performed in accordance with ISO 17640^[150]. At their simplest, these methods are applicable to thickness measurement and can be used internally or externally by an ROV or diver. However, much more information can be deduced from an echo trace, and provided the inspector is free to arrange, adjust and interpret the images he receives, he can provide a detailed picture of flaws within a plate or weld area.
- g) Ultrasonic creeping wave (UCW) is one of a variety of ultrasonic techniques that uses a special probe to generate longitudinal surface waves confined to a thin layer of steel just under the steel/water or steel/air interface and hence it is well-suited to the detection of surface breaking flaws. Once a crack or other flaw has been detected, it can be necessary to deploy other methods to quantify its extent and assess its seriousness. In this respect, several more "on-shore" methods can be applicable within the hull while alternative methods are more effective underwater.
- h) Time-of-flight diffraction (TOFD) is a variety of those ultrasonic detection systems that rely on the time taken by signals diffracted by a flaw. It tends to be highly computerized but appears to be capable of more precise readings than other ultrasonic methods. Standard ultrasonic inspection equipment is not always intrinsically safe and care should be taken to ensure appropriate equipment is used within hazardous areas.

A.18.4.3.6 Flooded member detection (FMD)

FMD may be used to determine the occurrence of flooding of spaces that should be empty but have become flooded as a result of penetration of the watertight membrane. Such penetration can be the result of a fatigue-induced crack penetrating the full thickness of the membrane.

FMD can be a cost-effective way of detecting the presence of such defects, but care is required to ensure that the remaining life of the component so affected is not so short as to pose concern for the short-term integrity of the structure, or that down-flooding from any flooded compartment does not initiate a chain of events endangering the entire floating structure.

The reliability of the FMD technique varies with operator and system. The reliability of a FMD system should be determined if it is to be relied upon to check the presence or absence of through-thickness penetrations in components defined in special areas.

Experience with underwater inspection of fixed structures suggests that a diver or ROV can detect flooded components quickly and reliably. However, a flooded member can require urgent and costly repair to restore the component to its original un-flooded state.

For other floating structures, with larger diameter members, a flooded member equates to a single compartment damage condition and flooded member detection is inappropriate. With a single compartment damaged, the crew can be expected to become aware of the situation almost immediately because of the need to counter-flood or deballast some other compartment to maintain the desired trim and heel. If the relevant damaged compartment were a full ballast tank there can be some delay before the crew becomes aware of the damage, but flooded member detection would not be expected to help in this circumstance.

A.18.4.3.7 Cathodic protection system inspection (CP system inspection)

A CVI can be used to monitor the condition of CP systems, judgment being applied to estimate the extent of anode depletion and thereby a means of estimating remaining anode life.

Local potential measurements can also be used to ensure effective polarisation. Some cleaning is necessary to ensure good electrical contact with underwater structures but contact can be made above or below the water surface. The reference electrode should be placed as close as possible to the surface of the structure under test, e.g. within 50 mm from the surface for structural CP readings.

For impressed current systems, measurements of the current are required to quantify the effectiveness of the system. Electrochemical potential measurements monitor whether a CP system is functioning and the level of protection it is providing to some underwater areas of a steel structure. The potential difference between the structure and a reference electrode provides a measurement of the degree of protection being provided by an array of existing anodes. This method can be applied by a diver or an ROV deployed externally or internally within a salt-water ballast tank.

A.18.4.4 Preparations for inspections

A.18.4.4.1 Access

Safety is a prime concern in access to internals of tank structures. Plans should be prepared to show access not only for an able-bodied inspector, but also for recovery of a member of the inspection team or someone who has been overcome by fumes.

In some cases, floating access may be used to access the tops of ballast water tanks, but there should be adequate provision for entry and retreat.

Where inspection methods require openings to be made in the upper deck, these openings should be kept to a minimum.

Access arrangements may be permanent or temporary and should include

- rope anchoring points,
- ladders,
- walkways,
- staging,
- extended/articulating ladders,
- collapsible cradles, and
- independent staging systems.

Some typical external details requiring inspection access are

- rudders and rudder mountings, whether or not these structures are temporarily redundant,
- thruster mountings and fixings,
- corrosion protection anodes,
- sea water intakes with associated grillages and sea chests,
- mooring attachments to the hull (fairleads in the case of a semi-submersible or spar, or some rotating frame arrangement in the case of a variable-heading, turret-moored FPSO), and
- bell-mouth or bend restrictor constraints that control the configuration of a riser or flexible pipe where it interfaces with the hull.

Provision should also be made for safety harnesses and handrails. Access platforms and staging should take account of the likelihood of the floating structure's motions affecting their stability and the balance/stability of the personnel.

In some instances it may be preferable to make thickness readings from below the keel rather than from within a cargo tank. It may also be necessary to take electrical potential readings to ensure that specific areas continue to be protected by an impressed current or sacrificial anode.

Great attention should be given to the inspection of any welds used to mount equipment to the external hull, since these can act as crack-initiation sites with a capacity to affect the integrity of the surrounding structure.

A.18.4.4.2 Cleaning

Tanks need to be cleaned and kept free of noxious fumes that could be hazardous to the health of the inspection team, while the presence of any flammable gases needs to be kept well below the explosive limit. Tanks also need to be free of inert gas which can cause asphyxiation. Reference [124] specifies the standards for gas testing for tank entry.

Continuous forced ventilation of fresh air should be provided to the bottom of tanks during inspection.

A survey team should not enter or remain in any tank in which ballast water movement is taking place.

A.18.4.5 Inspection results and actions

Historical inspection records should remain accessible to the current inspection team. Particular care is needed with electronic/magnetic data storage so that provision is made for keeping reading and recording equipment serviceable and for transferring of records to a more modern medium.

Inspection results should also be held in a format that makes them accessible and easy to interpret for future inspection teams. Given the volume of information stored, it is unrealistic for a future inspection team to review all the data prior to a new programme of inspection. Hence it is important to review each set of data shortly after it has been assembled and make critical assessment of any particular areas or items that should be followed-up during subsequent surveys. For a large operational floating structure, it is likely that a full structural assessment, internal and external, can take a protracted period (typically five years). Thus, it is important to assess each partial survey for its likely implications for other parts of the structure that are not due for inspection for several years. If unexpected deterioration is detected in one area, it can be necessary to decide whether an unscheduled inspection of some other area should be made to assess the need for any intervention to arrest corrosion or cracking.

A.18.4.6 Maintenance programmes

A typical floating structure has extensive maintenance programmes associated with the process systems and any essential utility system located within the hull. The latter can be particularly extensive within a monohull. The other most common maintenance programmes for floating structures are associated with the mooring system, stationkeeping thrusters and with ballast handling. For monohulls, the turret bearings, the cargo off-loading pumps and the cargo-discharge handling systems also need regular maintenance. Maintenance of corrosion control arrangements such as coatings and CP systems, particularly within ballast tanks, is liable to be integrated with the inspection programmes.

A.18.4.7 Monitoring programmes

Most floating production systems employ smoke, gas and fire detectors to monitor safe operation. Similarly, many floating structures in rough sea areas operate some form of weather and motion response monitoring equipment. This is important for planning and controlling safety of weather-sensitive operations such as helicopter operations, supply and offloading. These systems also provide a record of severe weather encountered by the structure.

Where safety-critical structural systems are identified, instrumentation can be introduced to extend the monitoring system and provide records of critical parameters to alert operation or inspection staff to any deterioration.

Some typical monitoring programmes that have been implemented for different structural configurations are presented below by way of example.

a) Monohull:

- forces in critical mooring hardware and angle of departure of mooring lines;
- motion response monitors to support helicopter operations;
- ballast level monitors in the control room;
- motion monitoring in waves and swell (measurement can be a requirement of helicopter operation support).

b) Semi-submersible:

- forces in critical mooring hardware and angle of departure of mooring lines;
- crack growth and development in a critical structural member or brace;
- leak detection in non-flooded members;
- weight growth, weight distribution and stability;
- ballast-level monitors in the control room;
- motion monitoring in waves and swell (measurement can be a requirement of helicopter operation support).

c) Spar:

- humidity detectors where leak-before-break strategy has been adopted, as appropriate;
- tension in mooring lines.

A.18.5 Minimum requirements

A.18.5.1 General

If particular hazards have been identified during design, methods of reducing risk should also have been considered. These items should be reviewed carefully against early operational experience and any incidents recorded in mandatory occurrence reports to ensure that the correct assessments of risk have been made, particularly for new concepts.

A.18.5.2 Minimum inspection requirements for main structure

A.18.5.2.1 General

In general terms, minimum inspection requirements should be established as an essential part of the development of the asset integrity management system and it would normally be expected that the requisite inspection programme would be more extensive than the minimum laid out in this subclause.

Detailed discussions concerning the establishment of minimum inspection requirements are set out in RCS rules or equivalent, for example, Reference [181].

A hard coating is specified to be a chemically-cured coating normally used for new construction, or non-convertible, air-drying coating such as those used for maintenance purposes (organic or inorganic); typical "hard marine" coatings are based on epoxy, coal tar epoxy, polyurethane, chlorinated rubber, vinyl, zinc epoxy and zinc silicate.

A.18.5.2.2 General visual inspection (GVI)

No guidance is offered.

A.18.5.2.3 Close-up visual inspection (CVI)

No guidance is offered.

A.18.5.2.4 Thickness measurements (TM)

In special areas, consideration should be given to the installation of special equipment or ROV attachment points to allow frequent and reliable measurements of thickness or assessment of increasing rates of material wastage.

Substantial corrosion is considered to be present

- a) where a corrosion allowance was included during fabrication, or in areas where the thickness of either plating or stiffening elements has been reduced by wastage by more than 75 % of the allowable margins, but is within acceptable limits, and
- b) where no corrosion allowance was included during fabrication, or in areas where the thickness of either plating or stiffening elements has been reduced by wastage by more than 10 % of the thickness — where localized pitting is the prime cause of the reduced thickness, these reductions may be increased by 50 %.

The 10 % permitted for thickness reduction where no corrosion allowance was made is based on an interpretation of the work on the effect of corrosion on plate strength reported in Reference [176]. In relation to the consequential reduction in plate or stiffening element strength, this can be put into context as follows.

In Reference [119], Sections 10/2.2 and 10/2.3, limitations are placed on the slenderness of flange and web elements of stiffening elements and primary structural members to limit local structural instability. The form of the equation is

$$t_{\text{net}} \geq \frac{b}{C} \sqrt{\frac{S_{\text{yd}}}{235}} \quad (\text{A.11})$$

where

t_{net} is the net thickness of the element, expressed in millimetres, given by the gross thickness less the corrosion margin (half from each face of the element);

b is the width of the element, expressed in millimetres, i.e. stiffener spacing in the case of plating (including stiffened webs), outstand width (measured from centre-line of web) in the case of tables of I, Tee and angle sections, and depth of web (to tip for flat bars and bulb flats and to the inside face of tables for Tees and angles) in the case of webs;

C is the slenderness coefficient depending upon the element type and primary mode of loading

- = 100 for plate panels — compression — to hull and tanks
- = 125 for plate panels — compression — to other structure
- = 100 for web panels — shear
- = 12 for flange outstands — compression
- = 22 for flat bars — compression

S_{yd} is the yield stress of the element in question, expressed in Newtons per square millimetre.

Since outstand buckling tends to be an onerous buckling mode, consider the effect of a 10 % thickness reduction using the torsional buckling strength check in Reference [119], at Section 10/3.3.3. For a flat bar stiffener with tripping brackets set at the minimum required spacing (for primary members, this is 3 m), with a depth to thickness ratio at the above limit of 22, constructed of grade A steel, and attached to plating with a width to thickness ratio (between stiffeners) of 45, the ratio of elastic critical torsional buckling stresses after and before the 10 % reduction is 95 % if corrosion occurs to the flat bar only, and 81 % if corrosion occurs to the both the flat bar and the plating. However, in both cases, the ultimate strength, in stress terms, of the flat bar stiffener is unchanged, i.e. there is no reduction in resistance as a result of corrosion. This result arises because the stiffener, even with a depth to thickness ratio of 22, is relatively stocky and its non-dimensional slenderness is well within the 0,2 limit up to which stiffener torsional strength is equal to yield stress.

Notwithstanding, because the cross-sectional area of the stiffener is reduced, its strength (in force terms) will reduce directly in proportion to the reduction in cross-sectional area. Thus, the resistance of the stiffener will reduce by the same amount as its thickness is reduced by corrosion, namely 10 %.

Whilst checks of the effects of corrosion on other elements do not necessarily produce the same outcome as just obtained, such checks need to be put into context. For example, when conducting a survey of corrosion effects, minimum thicknesses can normally be recorded and used in the calculation. This minimum value is not necessarily representative of the average thickness, which is the value that dictates the elastic critical buckling stress and, therefore, the strength of the element. That is, using minimum thicknesses overestimates the extent of strength reduction due to corrosion. Furthermore, stiffened plated structures have good redistribution capabilities and the effect of local corrosion, in particular, has very little impact on the overall strength even if the local strength of one or two elements is reduced by 10 %.

A.18.5.2.5 Weld inspections (WI)

In special areas, consideration should be given to installing instrumentation and equipment to monitor crack growth rates.

A.18.5.2.6 Cathodic protection system inspection (CP system inspection)

No guidance is offered.

A.18.5.3 Minimum inspection requirements for structural and non-structural attachments

Crane inspection requirements are given in API RP 2D^[22].

A.18.5.4 Inspection results and actions

These could lead to a reassessment of hazards and risk levels which need to be taken into consideration in all future inspections.

A.18.5.5 Tank testing and watertightness

More specific guidance regarding tank testing is available in most RCS rules or equivalent.

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