



35 wall thickness of typical dense phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines is beyond the known range of  
36 applicability for the pipeline failure equations used within existing failure frequency models.  
37 Furthermore, even though third party external interference failure frequency is not sensitive  
38 to the product that a pipeline transports, there is however a limitation to the application of  
39 existing UK fault databases with to onshore CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines as there are currently no dense  
40 phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines operating in the UK. Further work needs to be conducted to confirm the  
41 most appropriate approach for calculating failure frequency for dense phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines,  
42 and it is recommended that a new failure frequency model suitable for dense phase CO<sub>2</sub>  
43 pipelines is developed that can be readily updated to the latest version of the fault  
44 database.

45

## 46 **1. Introduction**

47 Carbon Capture, Usage and Storage (CCUS) is recognised by the United Kingdom (UK)  
48 Government (Department for Business, Energy & Industrial Strategy, 2017) as one of a suite  
49 of solutions required to reduce carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) emissions into the atmosphere and  
50 prevent catastrophic global climate change. In CCUS schemes, CO<sub>2</sub> is captured from large scale  
51 industrial emitters and transported, predominantly by pipeline, to geological sites, such as  
52 depleted oil or gas fields or saline aquifers, where it is injected into rock formations for  
53 storage.

54 The most efficient method for the transportation of CO<sub>2</sub> is via pipeline in the dense phase, i.e.  
55 above the critical pressure but below the critical temperature. This is because, in the dense  
56 phase, CO<sub>2</sub> has the density of a liquid but the viscosity and compressibility of a gas (Downie,  
57 Race and Seevam, 2007). The presence of impurities in the captured CO<sub>2</sub> will affect the critical  
58 temperature and pressure (Wetenhall, Race and Downie, 2014), and pipelines transporting  
59 this CO<sub>2</sub> may require operating pressures in excess of 150 barg to ensure single phase flow  
60 (Noothout et al, 2014).

61 The National Grid COOLTRANS (CO<sub>2</sub>Liquid pipeline TRANSportation) research programme  
62 (Cooper and Barnett, 2014a) was carried out to address knowledge gaps in the design,  
63 construction and operation of dense phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines in the UK. The aim of the programme  
64 was to develop a comprehensive Quantitative Risk Assessment (QRA) methodology for dense  
65 phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines, which could be used in routeing and design studies to ensure that the  
66 risk level from the CO<sub>2</sub> pipeline is as low as reasonably practicable in accordance with UK  
67 legislation. Calculation of failure frequency is an important part of a pipeline QRA and failure  
68 frequencies from all possible failure causes must be determined including corrosion, ground  
69 movement, mechanical and third party external interference. As part of the COOLTRANS  
70 research programme, a review was conducted to ascertain the technical basis and data on  
71 which existing models are used to calculate failure frequency due to third-party external

72 interference and to evaluate the suitability of the models for use as part of a QRA  
73 methodology for dense phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines. This paper documents part of the review.

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## 75 **2. The Requirement for a Failure Frequency Model for Dense Phase CO<sub>2</sub> Pipelines**

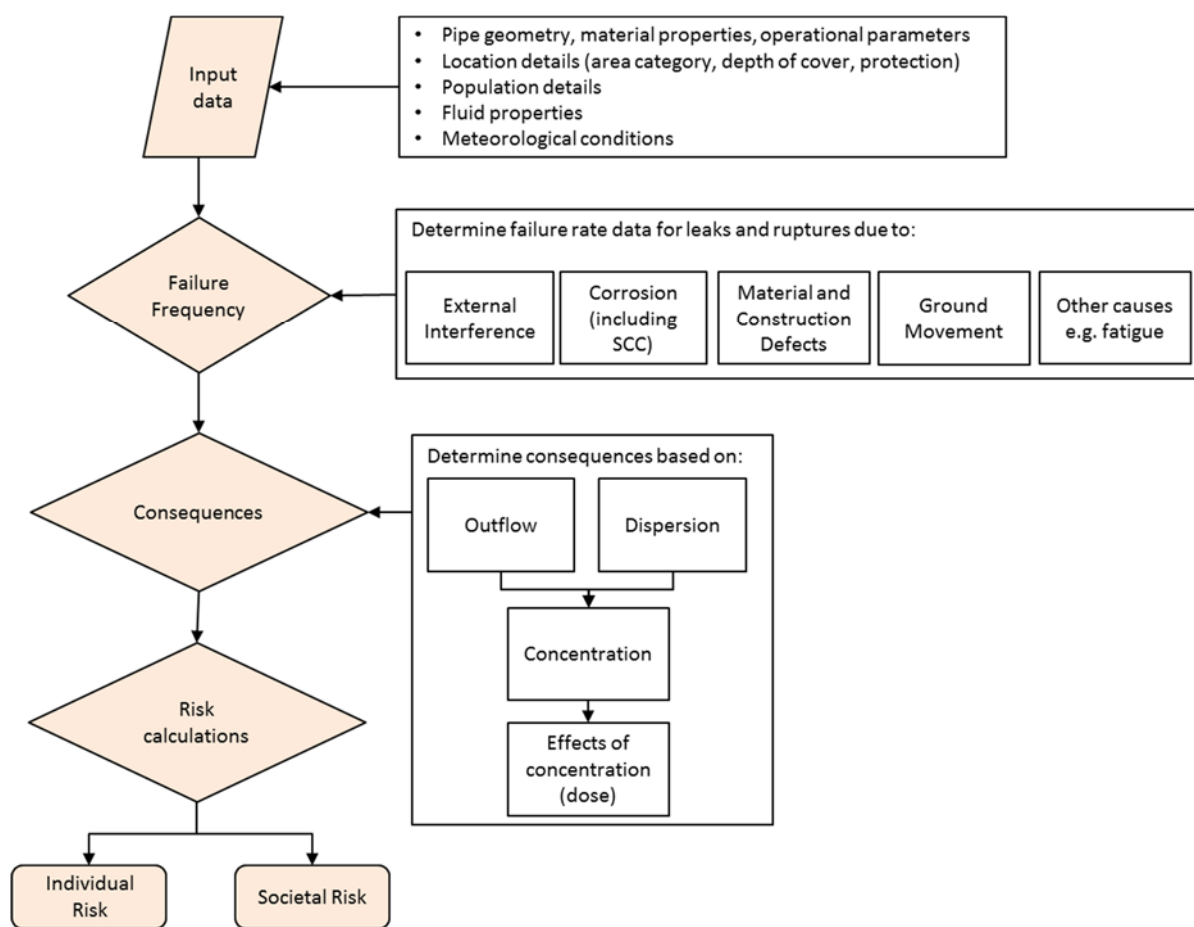
76 Being toxic, CO<sub>2</sub> is a hazardous substance, which in the unlikely event of an accidental release,  
77 could cause harm to people. To comply with UK safety legislation, the design and construction  
78 of proposed CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines requires compliance with recognised pipeline codes. Given that  
79 there are CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines operating in the US (Knoope et al., 2014), it may be desirable to adopt  
80 the United States (US) code for use in the UK. In the US, CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines are designed,  
81 constructed and operated in accordance with the US Federal Code of Regulations, Title 49,  
82 Volume 3, Part 195 - Transportation of Hazardous Liquids by Pipeline and the associate  
83 American Society of Mechanical Engineers (ASME) standards B31.4 and B31.8. However,  
84 according to the UK Health and Safety Executive (HSE) guidance (HSE, 2008), there are specific  
85 issues that prevent the adoption of the US pipeline codes within the UK. Firstly, the US code  
86 of regulations applies only to pipelines transporting CO<sub>2</sub> in the supercritical phase and  
87 therefore may not be completely relevant to pipelines conveying dense phase CO<sub>2</sub>, i.e. a  
88 subcooled liquid. Secondly, the standard for gas transportation, ASME B31.8, specifically  
89 excludes pipelines carrying CO<sub>2</sub> (in any phase), and whilst the standard for liquid  
90 transportation, ASME B31.4, does not exclude pipelines transporting CO<sub>2</sub>, it does not include  
91 CO<sub>2</sub> on the list of fluids for which the code is intended to apply. It was therefore concluded by  
92 the UK HSE guidance (2008) that there may be limited technical benefit in adopting US codes  
93 or standards, either in their entirety or in part, for CO<sub>2</sub> pipeline design and construction in the  
94 UK.

95 For the above reasons, it is required that the UK pipeline design code be modified in order to  
96 account for the pipelines transporting dense phase CO<sub>2</sub>. The UK code PD 8010: Part-1 defines  
97 the separation distance between a hazardous pipeline and a nearby population as the  
98 minimum distance to occupied buildings (MDOB) using a substance factor which gives  
99 cautious estimates of the MDOB according to the hazardous nature of the substance (BSI,  
100 2015). The value of the substance factor should be supported by reference to joint industry  
101 or project specific research and guidance on the routing of pipelines conveying CO<sub>2</sub> (Cooper  
102 and Barnett, 2014b). A QRA approach, which involves the numerical estimation of risk from a  
103 calculation of the frequencies and consequences of a complete and representative set of  
104 credible accident scenarios, is therefore required to ensure the safe design, construction and  
105 operation of a dense phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipeline.

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

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

113 The purpose of a CO<sub>2</sub> pipeline QRA is to determine the risks posed by the pipeline to people  
 114 located nearby. The procedure involves the identification of hazard scenarios and considers  
 115 both the probability and consequences of failure in order to calculate values for the individual  
 116 and societal risks. The QRA process is outlined by the flow chart in Figure 1, indicated by the  
 117 shaded boxes on the left hand side of the chart. This chart has been adapted from Figure 3 of  
 118 PD 8010: Part-3 (BSI, 2013) by modifying the consequence calculations to make them  
 119 appropriate for a toxic, rather than flammable fluid. The probability of failure is calculated  
 120 through determination of the failure frequencies for all credible threats to the pipeline. The  
 121 consequences of failure are calculated by considering the dose of CO<sub>2</sub> which an individual may  
 122 be subjected to following a pipeline release. The consequences of failure therefore require  
 123 prediction of the dispersion behaviour of a cloud of CO<sub>2</sub> following release. The consequence  
 124 modelling has been extensively researched (Molag and Dam, 2011; Koornneef et al., 2009),  
 125 however far less work has been published regarding CO<sub>2</sub> pipeline failure frequencies.

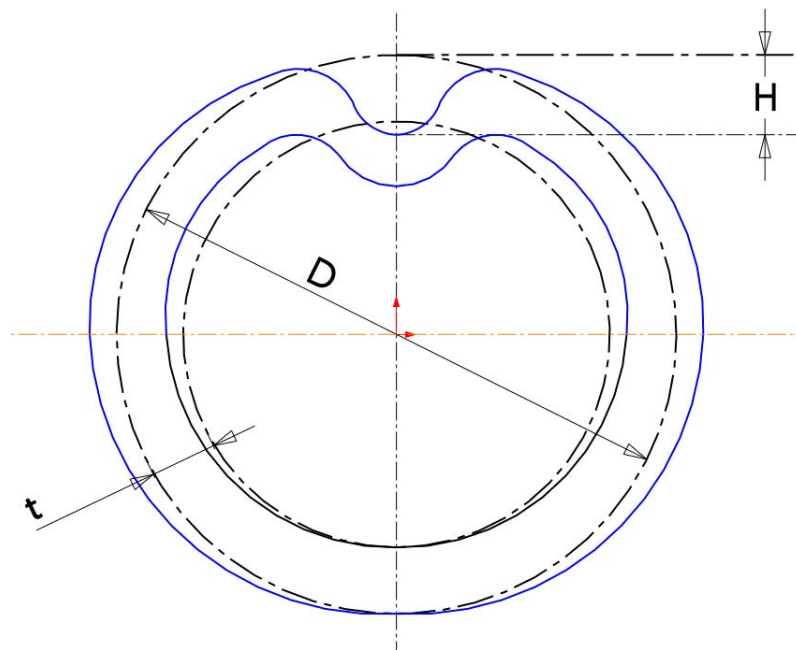


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Figure 1: – Risk calculation flow chart for CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines

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



148 Figure 2: A representation of a pipeline dent  
149

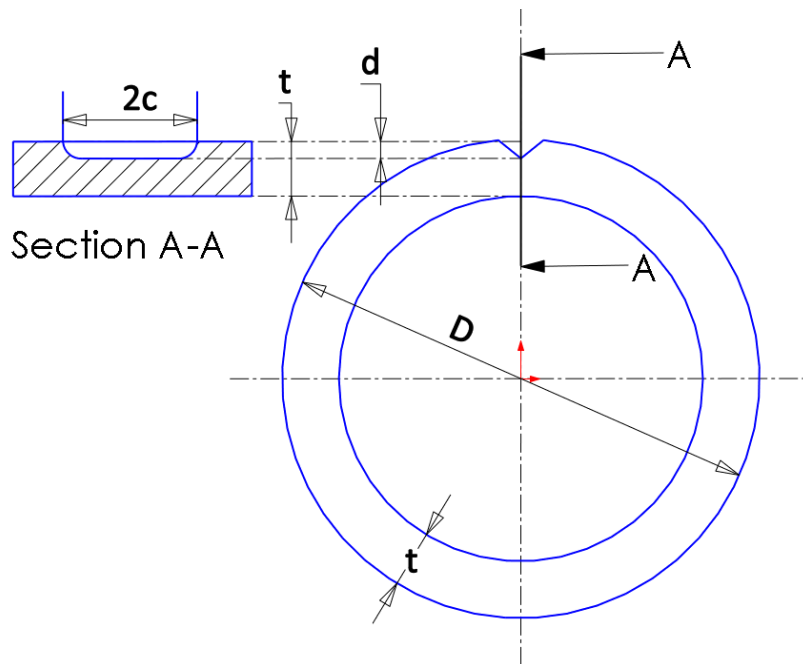


Figure 3: A representation of a pipeline gouge

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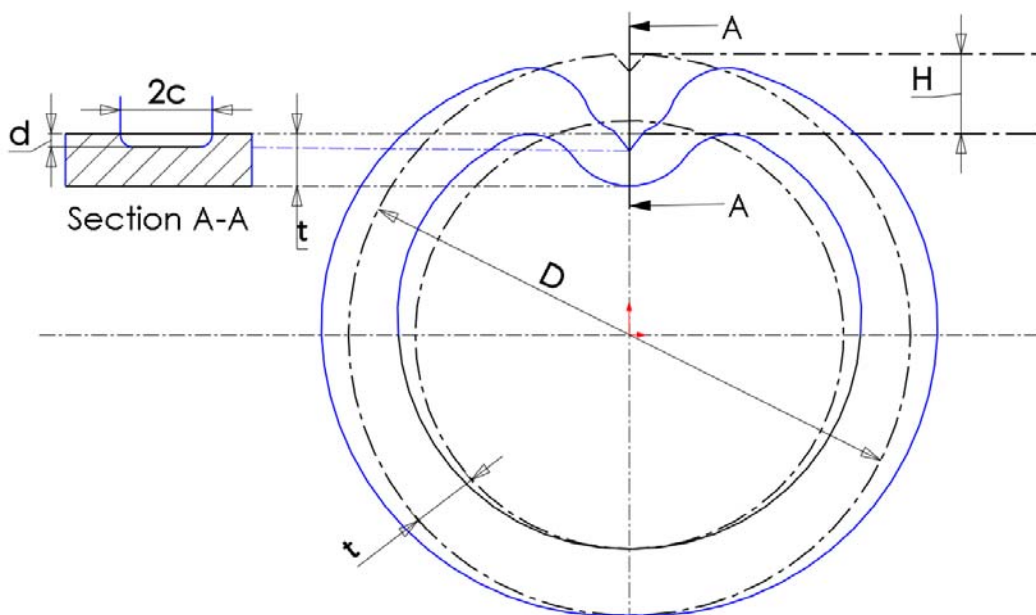


Figure 4: A representation of a gouged dent

151

152

153 Third party external interference failure frequency models have been used in the oil and gas  
 154 pipeline industry for over 25 years. Given the principles of containment, stress and fracture,  
 155 and that all high-pressure pipelines are constructed using steel, third party external  
 156 interference failure frequency, is not sensitive to the product that a pipeline transports.  
 157 Indeed Parfomak and Fogler (2007) proposed that *'statistically, the number of incidents*  
 158 *involving CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines should be similar to those for natural gas transmission pipelines'*. Thus,  
 159 the models used to calculate third party external interference failure frequency for oil and gas  
 160 pipelines may also be applicable to dense phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines. This study is intended to  
 161 review the current pipeline failure frequency models and assesses whether they may be

162 extended to calculate pipeline failure frequency due to third party external interference for  
163 dense phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines.

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

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

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

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

#### 178 **3.1. Limit State Functions**

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

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

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

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

194

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

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

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

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

212

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

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

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

### 224 **3.2 Incident Rates**

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



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

233

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

237

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

277  
278 The limit state functions used in the Hazard Analysis model define the conditions for failure  
279 in terms of the size of the defect, the pipeline geometry and the material properties of the  
280 linepipe steel. In order to determine whether damage will fail as a leak or rupture, a critical  
281 defect length is defined using the flow stress dependent form of the through-wall NG-18  
282 equation. In order to determine whether a gouge will fail, a critical gouge depth is defined  
283 using the flow stress dependent form of the part-wall NG-18 equation (Kiefner, Maxey, Eiber  
284 and Duffy, 1973). In order to determine whether a gouged dent will fail, a critical dent depth  
285 is defined using the BGDGFM (Hopkins, 1992).

286

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

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

293

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

315

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

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

#### 321 **4.2. FFREQ**

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

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

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

#### 340 **4.3. PIPIN**

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

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

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

372 **4.4. PIE**

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

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

394 **4.5. Cosham Model**

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

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

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

#### 413 **4.6. Penspen Damage Distributions Update**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

447 It is important to note that the structural reliability methods used in the failure frequency  
448 models are not dependent upon pipeline wall thickness or any other quantity related to the  
449 transportation of dense phase CO<sub>2</sub> by pipelines. The methods themselves are non-specific and  
450 are used for a wide variety of applications throughout engineering. The applicability of a  
451 structural reliability method to any given situation depends entirely upon the applicability of  
452 the models and data contained within them.

## 453 **6. Applicability of Existing Failure Frequency Models to Dense Phase CO<sub>2</sub> Pipelines**

454 In order to ascertain the applicability of existing failure frequency models to dense phase CO<sub>2</sub>  
455 pipelines, firstly, the minimum required wall thicknesses for different dense phase CO<sub>2</sub>  
456 pipeline designs was estimated. Then the applicability of existing failure frequency models is  
457 discussed in terms of whether their structural reliability methods and historical data meet the  
458 design requirements of typical dense phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines.

### 459 **6.1. Minimum Required Wall Thickness Estimations for Dense Phase CO<sub>2</sub> Pipelines**

460 It is important to estimate the minimum required wall thicknesses for different dense phase  
461 CO<sub>2</sub> pipeline designs scenarios in order to understand whether they could potentially be  
462 outside the range of applicability of current failure frequency models. The minimum required  
463 wall thicknesses can be calculated using the following thin wall formula for allowable hoop  
464 stress in PD 8010: Part-1 (BSI, 2015):

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

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

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

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477

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

479

Table 2: Estimation of the minimum required CO<sub>2</sub> pipeline wall thicknesses

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In the following sections these wall thicknesses will be used to illustrate the applicability of the components making up current failure frequency (and hence the models themselves) to dense phase typical CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines.

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482

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

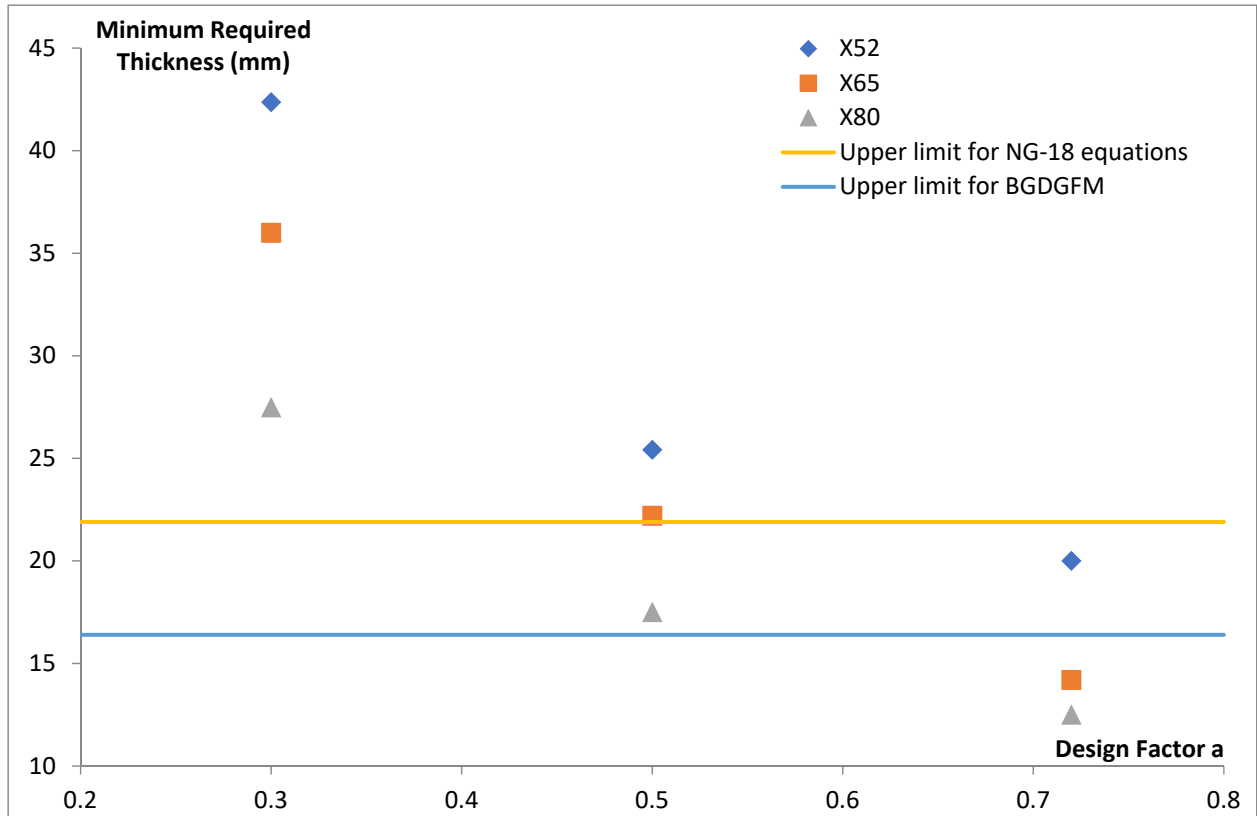
508 The parameter ranges in Table 5 suggest that the BGDGFM is applicable to pipelines with a  
509 wall thickness between 6.6 mm and 16.4 mm.

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

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

514 **6.5. The Applicability of the Failure Models to Typical Dense Phase CO<sub>2</sub> Pipelines**

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



519 Figure 5: Minimum required wall thicknesses for CO<sub>2</sub> pipeline with diameter of 610 mm (24  
 520 ")

521

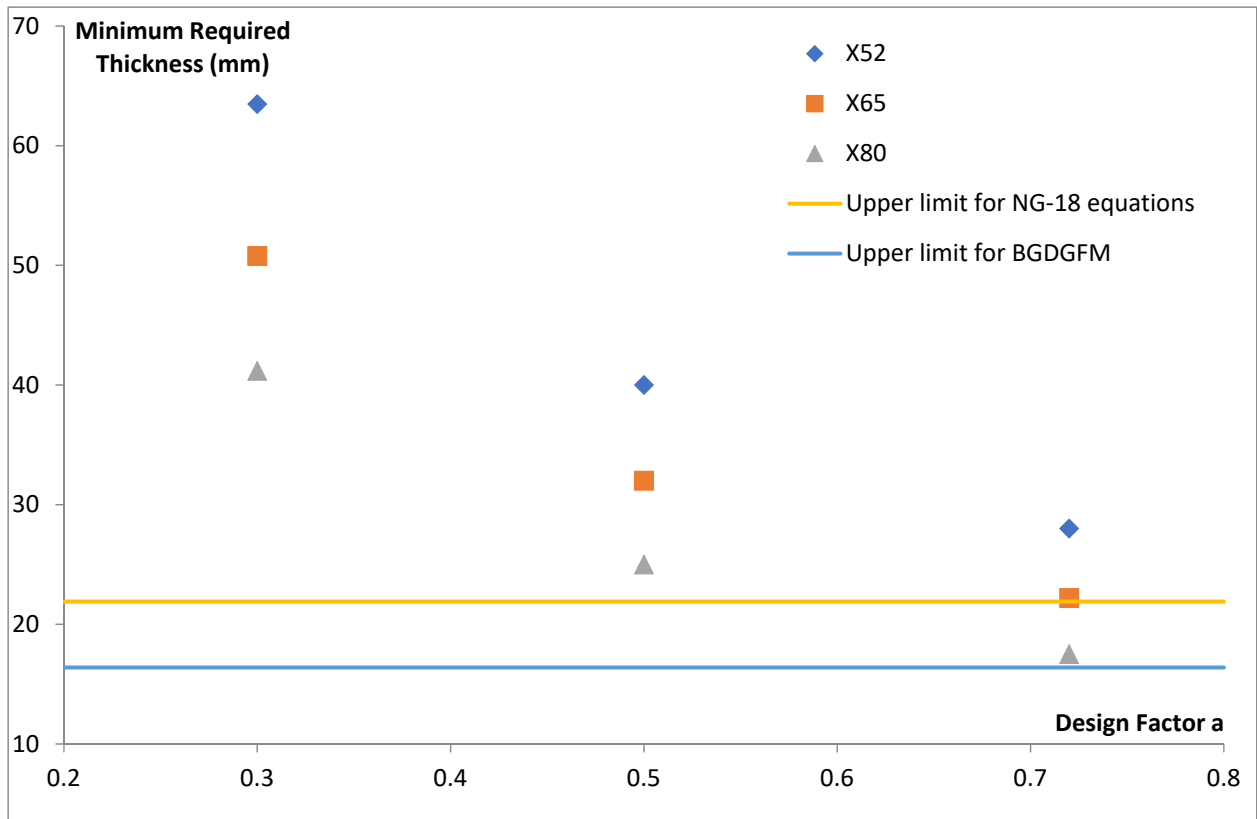


Figure 6: Minimum required wall thicknesses for CO<sub>2</sub> pipeline with diameter of 914 mm (36")

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524 On the basis of this analysis, the minimum required CO<sub>2</sub> pipeline wall thickness, under 150  
525 barg operational pressure, may be between 12.5 mm and 63 mm depending on pipe  
526 diameter, material and design factor used. It is noted that in 13 of the 18 cases considered,  
527 the minimum required wall thickness for CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines exceeds 21.9 mm. For the 610 mm  
528 (24") diameter pipelines, there are about half cases (5 out of the 9 cases) with the minimum  
529 required wall thickness greater than 21.9 mm while for 914 mm (36") diameter pipelines  
530 there is only one case out of the 9 cases with the minimum required wall thickness less than  
531 21.9 mm. This means that in the majority of cases, the required minimum CO<sub>2</sub> pipeline wall  
532 thickness is outside of the known ranges of applicability of the NG-18 equations and the  
533 BGDGFM. In other words, in the majority of cases, current failure frequency models cannot  
534 be used to reliably estimate the failure frequency of dense phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines.

### 535 7. The Applicability of Historical Operational Data to Dense Phase CO<sub>2</sub> Pipelines

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

541 In order to apply the existing failure frequency models to dense phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines, the most  
542 appropriate historical operational data to use would ideally originate only from operational  
543 dense phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines in the UK. More specifically, the data would concern dense phase  
544 CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines with wall thicknesses covering the full range over which the model could  
545 potentially be applied. However, since there are currently no dense phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines  
546 operating in the UK and therefore no historical operational data regarding them, a  
547 compromise must be made. Given the principles of containment, stress and fracture, and that  
548 all high-pressure pipelines are constructed using steel linepipe, third party external  
549 interference failure frequency is not sensitive to the product that a pipeline transports. The  
550 most recent UKOPA Fault Database may therefore be the most appropriate source of  
551 historical operational data to use in order to calculate the failure frequency for dense phase  
552 CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines.

553 It is noted that the wall thicknesses contained in the UKOPA Fault Database are limited by  
554 operational pipelines. Since there are no onshore dense phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines currently in  
555 operation, it is not yet known whether the database contains data covering the required wall  
556 thickness range. At present there is no solution to this problem, however the future  
557 construction and operation of dense phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines will ensure the data source becomes  
558 more relevant with time.

## 559 **8. Discussion of the Applicability of Existing Failure Frequency Models to CO<sub>2</sub> Pipelines**

560 The review of the failure equations used in existing failure frequency models showed that  
561 they are all based on both the NG-18 equations for the failure of gouges and leak/rupture  
562 behaviour and the BGDGFM for the failure of a gouged dent. It was concluded that the largest  
563 wall thickness in the experimental tests used to derive the NG-18 equations was 21.9 mm for  
564 the through-wall equations and 15.6 mm for the part-wall equations. Similarly, 16.4 mm is  
565 the maximum wall thickness used to derive the BGDGFM. In terms of the UKOPA database,  
566 which contains details of faults and failures which have previously affected operating onshore  
567 pipelines in the UK, the largest wall thickness is 19.1 mm. In the majority of the design studies  
568 illustrated in this paper, the minimum wall thickness for dense phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines must be  
569 greater than 21.9 mm. Therefore, based on the results of this paper, it is concluded that  
570 current failure frequency models for third party external interference may not be suitable for  
571 dense phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines due to their typical design requirements. Further work needs to be  
572 conducted to confirm the most appropriate approach for calculating failure frequency for  
573 dense phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines.

## 574 **9. Conclusions**

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

578 derived from historical operational damage data. A review of the available failure frequency  
579 models was performed in order to assess their applicability to dense phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines.

580 It was shown that the high design pressure requirement for a dense phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipeline  
581 typically necessitates the use of high wall thickness linepipe in pipeline construction.

582 It is concluded that the applicability of the existing failure frequency models to typical dense  
583 phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines may be beyond the known range of applicability for the pipeline failure  
584 equations used within existing failure frequency models due to the high wall thickness  
585 linepipe requirements of typical CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines.

586 Furthermore, even though third party external interference failure frequency is not sensitive  
587 to the product that a pipeline transports, there is however a limitation to the UKOPA Fault  
588 Database with regards to its application to CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines because there are currently no dense  
589 phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines operating in the UK.

590 Further work needs to be conducted to confirm the most appropriate approach for calculating  
591 failure frequency for dense phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines. It is recommended that a new failure  
592 frequency model suitable for dense phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines is developed that is applicable to  
593 thick wall linepipe and can be readily updated to the latest version of the UKOPA Fault  
594 database. As part of this, a definitive assessment as to the applicability of the NG-18 equations  
595 and BGDGFM to thick wall dense phase CO<sub>2</sub> pipelines is needed. Examples of demonstrating  
596 applicability include conducting a detailed numerical analysis including finite element analysis  
597 or an experimental test programme.

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