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1 **An Uncertain Computational Model for Random Vibration**
2 **Analysis of Subsea Pipelines Subjected to Spatially Varying**
3 **Ground Motions**

4

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19

20 **Abstract**

21 Based on a nonparametric modelling approach, this paper presents a random
22 vibration analysis of a subsea pipeline subjected to spatially varying ground motions. The
23 earthquake-induced ground motions are modelled as nonstationary random processes and
24 their spatial variations are considered. The modelling uncertainties of the subsea pipeline
25 are taken into account using a random matrix theory, while the unilateral contact
26 relationship between the pipeline and seabed is also considered. Thus, an uncertain
27 computational model for the subsea pipeline subjected to a random earthquake is
28 established, and the corresponding solutions are calculated using Monte Carlo simulation
29 (MCS). In order to highlight the contribution of the unilateral contact effect to random
30 responses of pipelines, comparative studies are performed between the unilateral and
31 permanent contact models. In numerical examples, the possible convergence problems in
32 the present computational model are firstly studied to determine the optimal numbers of
33 reduced modes and MCS samples. Then influences of the randomness in the earthquake
34 and modelling uncertainties in the pipeline are investigated qualitatively through three
35 representative cases. The different propagations of randomness and modelling
36 uncertainties in the unilateral and permanent models are also examined and discussed. It
37 is concluded that the randomness of the earthquake and modelling uncertainties of the
38 pipeline have significant influences on the statistical characteristics of earthquake
39 responses of the pipeline.

40 **Keywords:** modelling uncertainty; random earthquake; subsea pipeline; spatially varying
41 ground motions; unilateral contact

42 **1 Introduction**

43 The subsea pipeline is an important part of offshore oil and gas exploitation systems.
44 When a pipeline is broken, the ocean environment might be polluted and underwater
45 repair is very difficult and costly. Earthquakes are typical environmental excitations
46 during the service life of the pipeline. As an occasional random excitation, an earthquake
47 poses a tremendous threat to the safety of the pipeline, and hence the dynamic problem
48 of the pipeline under an earthquake has received great attention. Due to the high cost and
49 technical difficulties of experiments, the earthquake analysis and design of the pipeline
50 are mainly based on numerical simulations. Thus, establishing an accurate numerical
51 computational model is of great significance to the earthquake analysis of the pipeline.
52 On the other hand, there are inevitably randomness and uncertainties in this
53 computational model on account of the natural random factors and lack of relevant data.
54 This paper discusses how to introduce randomness and uncertainties into the
55 computational model and how they influence the system response.

56 For reasons of manufacturing errors and corrosion, some physical and geometric
57 parameters of the pipeline, such as Young's modulus, mass density, wall thickness etc.,
58 may be uncertain. These parameters can be considered as random variables and their
59 uncertainties are usually characterized by probability distribution functions. Spatial

60 correlations of these parameters can be further considered by using the random field
61 theory. Uncertainties introduced by random variables or fields are called data
62 uncertainties and this quantification approach is usually termed the parametric uncertainty
63 approach. This approach has been successfully applied to model uncertainties in many
64 different static and dynamic structural analyses [1-5]. Meanwhile, there is another kind
65 of uncertainty, known as modelling uncertainty, in the dynamic analysis of the pipeline.
66 The modelling uncertainty stems primarily from two sources. The first source is the
67 simplifying assumptions invoked when developing a mathematical model. For instance,
68 when dealing with a beam structure, the use of beam theory instead of three dimensional
69 elasticity theory introduces a reduced admissible displacement field. The second source
70 is the unquantified errors associated with the modelling of structural joints or connections.
71 For example, the pipeline consists of many welding points and bolted connections, whose
72 properties are always uncertain and depend on many parameters. Since the modelling
73 uncertainty contains too many uncertain parameters, some of which cannot even be
74 identified, it is difficult to quantify it by the parametric uncertainty approach.

75 To deal with the modelling uncertainty, a nonparametric approach based on random
76 matrix theory was developed by Soize [6]. In the framework of the nonparametric
77 approach, the generalized mass, damping and stiffness matrices of the reduced matrix
78 model are replaced by corresponding random matrices. Then the probability distribution
79 functions of these random matrices are constructed using Jaynes' entropy with the

80 constraints defined by some available information. For random matrix models of the
81 system, it is not necessary to identify which system parameters are uncertain or their
82 detailed distribution information, while the global dispersion level of each random matrix
83 can be controlled by a unique positive parameter called the dispersion parameter. Hence,
84 this approach is very suitable for dealing with the modelling uncertainty introduced by
85 the unavoidable approximation and simplification of unknown and imprecise expression
86 of a complex structure in establishing a mathematical equation from a physical structure.
87 The main theoretical concepts and derivation procedures of the nonparametric approach
88 are presented in [6, 7]. This approach is also validated by several experiments, such as a
89 model consisting of two rectangular plates connected together with a complex joint [8, 9],
90 a cantilever plate with randomly attached spring-mass oscillators [10], post-buckling of a
91 thin cylindrical shell submitted to a static shear load [11], and so on. To date, this approach
92 has been applied to various industrial problems, for example the random vibration and
93 reliability analysis of complex aerospace engineering systems [12, 13], the dynamic
94 behaviour prediction of an uncertain Jeffcott rotor with disc offset [14], the vibration
95 analysis of a drill-string with bit-rock interaction [15], and so on. To the authors'
96 knowledge, the literature contains many studies on the data uncertainty but far fewer on
97 the modelling uncertainty, and so the focus of this paper is on modelling uncertainty in
98 the dynamic analysis of subsea pipelines.

99 The data and modelling uncertainties mentioned above come from the structure itself.

100 Nevertheless, ground motions caused by the earthquake are also uncertain due to the
101 natural randomness of soil and the complex propagation mechanism of earthquake waves.
102 Uncertainties of the earthquake are usually characterized by random processes [16].
103 Meanwhile, spatial variations can be found in earthquake waves propagating along long-
104 span structures, such as subsea pipelines, which result in differences in the amplitude and
105 phase of ground motions at the supports of the structures. This phenomenon is known as
106 spatially varying ground motions [17]. Such spatial variations have been considered in
107 earthquake analysis of many long-span structures, such as a multi-supported suspension
108 bridge [18], supporting towers of overhead electricity transmission systems [19], dam-
109 reservoir-foundation systems [20], etc., and their influences on the random earthquake
110 responses of long-span structures are recognized to be significant.

111 In the dynamic analysis of subsea pipelines, one key point is how to consider the
112 relationship between pipelines and the seabed as exactly as possible. For reasons of high
113 costs and construction difficulties, subsea pipelines always rest freely on the seabed,
114 rather than being buried or anchored. In the literature on the dynamic analysis of unburied
115 pipelines, pipelines are usually modelled as beams permanently contacted with elastic
116 foundations [21-25]. However, in reality unburied pipelines are constrained unilaterally
117 by the seabed, which means that the reaction of the seabed can only be compressive and
118 not tensile. Hence, during the vibration of pipelines, particularly when the deformation
119 takes place predominantly in the vertical plane, a separation of pipelines and the seabed

120 will occur. Clearly, the elastic foundation beam model will overestimate the constraint
121 between pipelines and the seabed. To overcome this drawback of the elastic foundation
122 beam model, a unilateral contact model is used in this paper to simulate the relationship
123 between subsea pipelines and the seabed. Note that the unilateral contact model will
124 inevitably introduce nonlinearity into the random analysis, and hence Monte Carlo
125 simulation (MCS) seems to be the best and only method to obtain random responses of
126 pipelines. Fortunately, the implementation of the nonparametric approach mentioned
127 above is based on MCS, and so the contact nonlinearity does not incur any additional
128 computational requirements.

129 This paper studies the random vibration of subsea pipelines subjected to spatially
130 varying ground motions, considering the randomness of the earthquake and the modelling
131 uncertainties of the pipeline. The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 gives the
132 mathematical formulation of a subsea pipeline under an earthquake, and then presents the
133 finite element model and the corresponding reduced computational model. In section 3,
134 quantification approaches and simulation strategies for modelling uncertainties of the
135 pipeline are given. Section 4 presents some numerical examples. Convergence analyses
136 are firstly performed with respect to the dimension of the reduced models and the number
137 of MCS samples. Then propagations of randomness and modelling uncertainties in the
138 present computational model are investigated qualitatively through three representative
139 cases. Finally, concluding remarks are made in section 5.

140 **2 Deterministic modelling of the subsea pipeline subjected to**
 141 **ground motions**

142 **2.1 Governing equations of the pipeline**

143 Fig. 1 shows a typical subsea pipeline subjected to an earthquake. The dashed part
 144 represents the initial profile of the subsea pipeline and seabed before the earthquake,
 145 while the solid part represents the deformed profile during the earthquake.

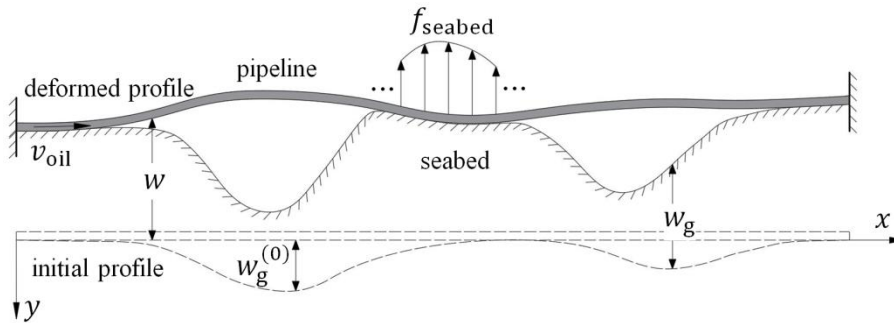
146 The subsea pipeline is simplified as a Timoshenko beam, and hydrodynamic forces
 147 caused by the internal oil and the surrounding sea water are considered. According to the
 148 fluid-conveying beam theory [26] and Morison's equation for slender cylindrical
 149 structures [27], governing equations of the subsea pipeline in the vertical plane can be
 150 written as

151

$$\begin{aligned}
 & (\rho I + \rho_{oil} I_{oil}) \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial t^2} - EI \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial x^2} - \kappa GA \left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial x} - \theta \right) = 0 \\
 & (m_{pipe} + m_{oil} + m_{water}) \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial t^2} + (m_{oil} v_{oil}^2 + N_0 - \kappa GA) \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x^2} \\
 & + 2m_{oil} v_{oil} \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x \partial t} + \kappa GA \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} = -f_{seabed}
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

152

153



154

155

Fig. 1 Schematic of subsea pipeline and seabed

156 where x and t are respectively the position and time; θ and w are respectively the
 157 cross-section rotation and vertical displacement of the pipeline; ρI and $\rho_{oil}I_{oil}$ are
 158 respectively the moments of inertia of the pipeline and oil; EI and κGA are respectively
 159 the flexural and effective shear rigidity of the pipeline; m_{pipe} , m_{oil} and m_{water} are the
 160 masses of the pipeline, oil and additional water per unit length; v_{oil} is the flow velocity
 161 of the oil which is assumed to be a constant; N_0 is the axial compression; f_{seabed} is the
 162 reaction force per unit length of the seabed.

163 Ignoring the friction of the seabed and considering unilateral contact of the seabed
 164 and pipeline, the reaction force of the seabed f_{seabed} can be expressed as

$$165 \quad f_{seabed} = \begin{cases} 0 & \xi > 0 \\ \eta k_{seabed} & \xi = 0 \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

166 where k_{seabed} is the stiffness of the seabed, and
 167

$$168 \quad \xi = \eta + w_g^{(0)} + w_g - w \quad (3)$$

169 is the relative displacement between the pipeline and seabed, $w_g^{(0)}$ is the initial seabed
 170 profile, η is the compressional deformation of the seabed and w_g is the motion of the
 171 seabed.
 172

173 **2.2 Discretization by finite elements**

174 Due to the contact nonlinearity, it is very difficult to obtain an analytical solution of
 175 Eq. (1). Hence, a numerical solution using the finite element method seems to be the only

176 choice. Timoshenko beam elements with two nodes are used to discretize the pipeline.
 177 Since effects of the oil conveyed through the pipeline and the surrounding seawater are
 178 considered, the beam element used in this paper is different from the conventional one.
 179 Therefore, a brief derivation of the finite element formulation is given here.

180 The displacement field within a beam element can be interpolated as [28]

181

$$w = \mathbf{N}\mathbf{q}_e, \quad \theta = \bar{\mathbf{N}}\mathbf{q}_e \quad (4)$$

182

183 in which \mathbf{q}_e is the 4×1 node displacement vector, \mathbf{N} and $\bar{\mathbf{N}}$ denote 1×4 shape

184 function vectors, which can be written as

185

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{N} &= [N_1 \quad N_2 \quad N_3 \quad N_4] \\ \bar{\mathbf{N}} &= [\bar{N}_1 \quad \bar{N}_2 \quad \bar{N}_3 \quad \bar{N}_4] \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

186

187 where

188

$$\begin{aligned} N_1 &= 1 - \frac{1}{l(l^2 + 12g)} (12g\chi + 3l\chi^2 - 2\chi^3) \\ N_2 &= \frac{1}{l(l^2 + 12g)} [(l^2 + 6g)l\chi - (2l^2 + 6g)\chi^2 + l\chi^3] \\ N_3 &= \frac{1}{l(l^2 + 12g)} (12g\chi + 3l\chi^2 - 2\chi^3) \\ N_4 &= \frac{1}{l(l^2 + 12g)} [-6gl\chi + (6g - l^2)\chi^2 + l\chi^3] \\ \bar{N}_1 &= \frac{1}{l(l^2 + 12g)} (6\chi^2 - 6l\chi) \\ \bar{N}_2 &= \frac{1}{l(l^2 + 12g)} [l^3 + 12gl - (4l^2 + 12g)\chi + 3l\chi^2] \\ \bar{N}_3 &= \frac{1}{l(l^2 + 12g)} (6l\chi - 6\chi^2) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

$$\bar{N}_4 = \frac{1}{l(l^2 + 12g)} [3l\chi^2 - (2l^2 - 12g)\chi]$$

189

190 where l is the element length, χ is the local coordinate and $g = EI/(\kappa GA)$.

191 The shear strain of the beam cross section can be written as

192

$$\gamma = \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} - \theta \quad (7)$$

193

194 Hence the strain energy and kinetic energy of a beam element can be expressed as

195

$$\begin{aligned} V_e &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^a \left[EI \left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \kappa GA \gamma^2 + N_0 \left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \right)^2 \right] d\chi \\ T_e &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^a \left[(\rho I + \rho_{\text{oil}} I_{\text{oil}}) \left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} \right)^2 + (m_{\text{pipe}} + m_{\text{water}}) \left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial t} \right)^2 + m_{\text{oil}} v_{\text{oil}}^2 \right. \\ &\quad \left. + m_{\text{oil}} \left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial t} + v_{\text{oil}} \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \right)^2 \right] d\chi \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

196

197 According to the variational principle, the element matrices can be obtained directly

198 by substituting Eq. (4) into Eq. (8),

199

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{K}_e &= \int_0^a \left[EI \bar{\mathbf{N}}_{\chi}^T \bar{\mathbf{N}}_{\chi} + \kappa GA (\bar{\mathbf{N}}_{\chi}^T - \bar{\mathbf{N}}) (\mathbf{N}_{\chi} - \bar{\mathbf{N}}) - m_{\text{oil}} v_{\text{oil}}^2 \mathbf{N}_{\chi}^T \mathbf{N}_{\chi} \right] d\chi \\ \mathbf{M}_e &= \int_0^a \left[(m_{\text{pipe}} + m_{\text{oil}} + m_{\text{water}}) \mathbf{N}^T \mathbf{N} + (\rho I + \rho_{\text{oil}} I_{\text{oil}}) \bar{\mathbf{N}}^T \bar{\mathbf{N}} \right] d\chi \\ \mathbf{C}_{e1} &= \int_0^a (\mathbf{N}^T \mathbf{N}_{\chi} - \mathbf{N}_{\chi}^T \mathbf{N}) d\chi \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

200

201 in which $\mathbf{N}_{\chi} = \partial \mathbf{N} / \partial \chi$ and $\bar{\mathbf{N}}_{\chi} = \partial \bar{\mathbf{N}} / \partial \chi$, superscript ‘‘T’’ denotes transposition, \mathbf{K}_e

202 and \mathbf{M}_e are element stiffness and mass matrices, respectively. \mathbf{C}_{e1} is the gyroscopic

203 damping matrix due to the conveyed oil. Rayleigh damping is also considered here, and

204 hence the element damping matrix can be expressed as

205

$$\mathbf{C}_e = \mathbf{C}_{e1} + d_1 \mathbf{M}_e + d_2 \mathbf{K}_e \quad (10)$$

206

207 where d_1 and d_2 are Rayleigh damping factors corresponding to the mass and stiffness,

208 respectively.

209 The subsea pipeline is discretized into N Timoshenko beam elements, while the

210 seabed is discretized into $N - 2$ spring elements, as shown in Fig. 2. The discrete

211 governing equation of the subsea pipeline can be written as

212

$$\mathbf{M}\ddot{\mathbf{X}} + \mathbf{C}\dot{\mathbf{X}} + \mathbf{K}\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{F}_{\text{seabed}} \quad (11)$$

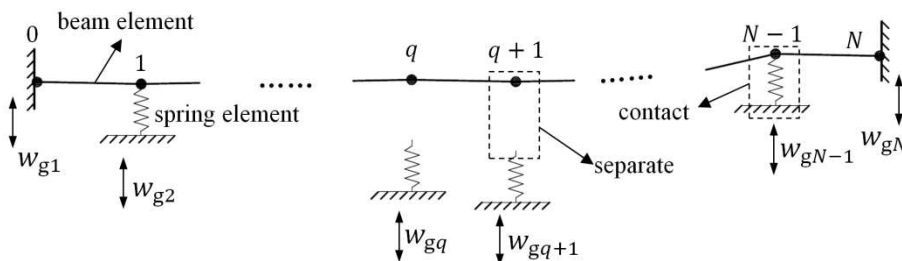
213

214 in which \mathbf{M} , \mathbf{C} and \mathbf{K} are structural mass, damping and stiffness matrices, respectively;

215 \mathbf{X} is the nodal displacement vector, $\mathbf{F}_{\text{seabed}}$ is the reaction force vector of the seabed;

216 and $\dot{\quad}$ denotes differentiation with respect to time t .

217



218

219

Fig. 2 Finite element model of subsea pipeline and seabed

220

221 Since the variation of earthquakes is considered, motions of different points at
 222 seabed will have differences in phases, amplitudes, or both. This means that the analysis
 223 of the subsea pipeline subjected to earthquake is a multi-support excitation problem. To
 224 solve this problem, Eq. (11) is rearranged as

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{M}_s & \mathbf{M}_{sb} \\ \mathbf{M}_{sb}^T & \mathbf{M}_b \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} \ddot{\mathbf{X}}_s \\ \ddot{\mathbf{X}}_b \end{Bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{C}_s & \mathbf{C}_{sb} \\ \mathbf{C}_{sb}^T & \mathbf{C}_b \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} \dot{\mathbf{X}}_s \\ \dot{\mathbf{X}}_b \end{Bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{K}_s & \mathbf{K}_{sb} \\ \mathbf{K}_{sb}^T & \mathbf{K}_b \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} \mathbf{X}_s \\ \mathbf{X}_b \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} \mathbf{R}_s \\ \mathbf{R}_b \end{Bmatrix} \quad (12)$$

226 in which the subscripts “b” and “s” indicate the support and non-support degrees of
 227 freedom (DOF), respectively, so that \mathbf{X}_b are the enforced displacements of the supports
 228 on both sides, \mathbf{X}_s are all nodal displacements except those at the supports, \mathbf{R}_b are the
 229 enforced forces at the supports and \mathbf{R}_s are the reaction forces of the seabed. Expanding
 230 the first row of Eq. (12) gives
 231

$$\mathbf{M}_s \ddot{\mathbf{X}}_s + \mathbf{C}_s \dot{\mathbf{X}}_s + \mathbf{K}_s \mathbf{X}_s = \mathbf{R}_s + \mathbf{P} \quad (13)$$

233 in which $\mathbf{P} = -\mathbf{M}_{sb} \ddot{\mathbf{X}}_b - \mathbf{C}_{sb} \dot{\mathbf{X}}_b - \mathbf{K}_{sb} \mathbf{X}_b$ is the effective earthquake force acting on
 234 the non-support DOF.
 235

236 Each node of the beam element used in this paper has two DOF, namely translation
 237 and rotation in the vertical plane. However, the reaction force of the seabed is assumed to
 238 act only on the translation DOF and not the rotation DOF of the pipeline during the
 239 contact. Combining Eqs. (2) and (3), the reaction force \mathbf{R}_s can be expressed as

240

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{R}_s &= \mathbb{D}\mathbf{R} \\
\mathbf{R}_q &= \begin{cases} 0 & \xi_q > 0 \\ -K_{\text{seabed}}\boldsymbol{\eta}_q & \xi_q = 0 \end{cases} \\
\xi_q &= \mathbf{w}_q - \boldsymbol{\eta}_q - \mathbf{w}_{\text{g}q}^{(0)} - \mathbf{w}_{\text{g}q} \\
q &= 1, 2, \dots, N-1
\end{aligned} \tag{14}$$

241

242 where \mathbf{R} is the N_{ns} -dimensional reaction force vector and N_{ns} is the number of non-
243 support nodes, \mathbb{D} is the translation DOF indicator matrix with “0” and “1” elements, $\boldsymbol{\xi}$
244 is the relative displacement vector between the pipeline and seabed model, \mathbf{w} is the
245 translation vector of the pipeline, K_{seabed} is the stiffness of the seabed spring, $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ is the
246 compressional deformation vector of the seabed, $\mathbf{w}_{\text{g}}^{(0)}$ and \mathbf{w}_{g} are respectively the
247 profile vector and displacement vector of the seabed.

248 **2.3 Reduced computational model**

249 Due to the contact nonlinearity, many iterations must be performed during the
250 solution of Eq. (13). Meanwhile, the finite element model may have a large dimension
251 and the dynamical analysis will be time consuming. In order to reduce the computational
252 cost, one can project the nonlinear equations onto a relative lower dimensional subspace
253 spanned by a set of specific basis functions and then the dimension of equations can be
254 reduced [29]. In this paper, the basis used for reduction is the natural modes of the pipeline
255 (without the seabed). The natural modes are obtained from the following generalized
256 eigenvalue problem

257

$$\mathbf{K}_s \boldsymbol{\Phi}_p = \omega_p^2 \mathbf{M}_s \boldsymbol{\Phi}_p, \quad p = 1, 2, \dots, N_{\text{mode}} \tag{15}$$

258

259 in which ω_p and Φ_p are the p -th natural frequency and mode of the system,
 260 respectively, N_{mode} is the dimension of K_s and M_s . Thus, the reduced problem can be
 261 expressed as

$$X_s = \Phi q \quad (16a)$$

262

$$M_r \ddot{q} + C_r \dot{q} + K_r q = r + p \quad (16b)$$

263

264 where

265

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi &= [\Phi_1 \quad \Phi_2 \quad \cdots \quad \Phi_n] (n < N_{\text{mode}}) \\ M_r &= \Phi^T M_s \Phi, \quad C_r = \Phi^T C_s \Phi, \quad K_r = \Phi^T K_s \Phi \\ r &= \Phi^T R_s, \quad p = \Phi^T P \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

266

267 It is noted that Eq. (16b) cannot be decoupled into a set of single DOF systems for
 268 two reasons. Firstly, C_s contains the component of gyroscopic damping, which cannot
 269 be diagonalized by the natural modes. Secondly, R_s is not known a priori and depends
 270 on the current state of the pipeline and seabed due to the contact nonlinearity. This is
 271 different from the linear case or the case without internal oil.
 272

273 **3 Uncertain modelling of the earthquake and the pipeline**

274 Two different kinds of uncertainties are considered in the present computational
 275 model. The first one is randomness of the earthquake and is modelled as a random process.
 276 The other one is modelling uncertainties of the pipeline, for which the random matrix
 277 theory is applied to model them.

278 **3.1 Random earthquake with spatial variation**

279 Assuming that the acceleration of the ground motion during the earthquake is a
 280 nonstationary random process, it can be expressed as

281

$$\ddot{w}_g = g(t)\ddot{d}(t) \quad (18)$$

282

283 in which $\ddot{d}(t)$ is a stationary and homogeneous Gaussian random process with zero
 284 mean value and its auto power spectral density (PSD) is $S_0(\omega)$, ω is the circular
 285 frequency, $g(t)$ is a slowly varying deterministic envelope function. Then the cross-
 286 PSD of the acceleration at two arbitrary points can be expressed as

287

$$S(\Delta x, \omega) = \gamma(\Delta x, \omega)S_0(\omega) \quad (19)$$

288

289 where $\Delta x = |x_i - x_j|$ is the distance between the two points x_i and x_j on the ground,
 290 and $\gamma(\Delta x, \omega)$ is the coherency function which represents the spatial variation of
 291 earthquakes.

292 Considering n separate points on the ground, the auto-PSD matrix of the ground
 293 acceleration at these points has the form

294

$$\mathbf{S}(\omega) = \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_{11}(\omega) & \gamma_{12}(\omega) & \cdots & \gamma_{1n}(\omega) \\ \gamma_{21}(\omega) & \gamma_{22}(\omega) & \cdots & \gamma_{2n}(\omega) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \gamma_{n1}(\omega) & \gamma_{nn}(\omega) & \cdots & \gamma_{nn}(\omega) \end{bmatrix} S_0(\omega) \quad (20)$$

295

296 where $\gamma_{ij}(\omega)(i, j = 1, 2, \dots, n)$ is the coherency function of x_i and x_j . By using

297 Cholesky decomposition, $\mathbf{S}(\omega)$ can be represented as the product of a lower triangular
 298 matrix $\mathbf{H}(\omega)$ and its Hermitian transpose, i.e.

299

$$\mathbf{S}(\omega) = \mathbf{H}(\omega)\mathbf{H}^H(\omega) \quad (21)$$

300

301 The stationary time history sample of the acceleration at point x_i is obtained in the
 302 following terms as a summation of cosine functions with random phase angles [30]

303

$$\ddot{d}_i(t) = 2 \sum_{l=1}^i \sum_{m=1}^{N_{\text{freq}}} |H_{il}(\omega_m)| \sqrt{\Delta\omega} \cos(\omega_m t - \theta_{il}(\omega_m) + \Phi_{lm}) \quad (22)$$

304

305 where $H_{il}(\omega_m)$ is the element on the i -th row and l -th column of matrix $\mathbf{H}(\omega_m)$,
 306 $\Delta\omega = \omega_{\text{cut}}/N$ is the frequency step, ω_{cut} is the cut off frequency, N is the number of
 307 frequency steps, N_{freq} is the number of frequencies, $\omega_m = m\Delta\omega$ is the m -th
 308 frequency, $\theta_{il}(\omega_m)$ is the phase of $H_{il}(\omega_m)$, and Φ_{lm} is the random phase angle
 309 distributed uniformly between 0 and 2π . The corresponding nonstationary time history
 310 sample can then be obtained according to Eq. (18). The reader is referred to [31] for a
 311 more detailed illustration of the simulation procedure of random earthquakes with spatial
 312 variations.

313 **3.2 Nonparametric modelling for uncertainties of the pipeline**

314 As mentioned in the introduction, the nonparametric approach developed by Soize
 315 [6] is able to take into account modelling uncertainties in the computational model. This
 316 subsection will show the main theories and derivations of the nonparametric approach

317 and more details can be found in [6, 7].

318 The uncertainties of mass, damping and stiffness matrices are considered and these
 319 matrices are replaced by the corresponding random matrices. Thus the governing
 320 equations shown in Eq. (16b) can be rewritten as

321

$$\mathbf{M}_r^{\text{np ar}} \ddot{\mathbf{q}} + \mathbf{C}_r^{\text{np ar}} \dot{\mathbf{q}} + \mathbf{K}_r^{\text{np ar}} \mathbf{q} = \mathbf{r} + \mathbf{p} \quad (23)$$

322

323 where $\mathbf{M}_r^{\text{np ar}}$, $\mathbf{C}_r^{\text{np ar}}$, $\mathbf{K}_r^{\text{np ar}}$ are $n \times n$ symmetric positive-definite random matrices
 324 corresponding to the mass, damping and stiffness, respectively.

325 According to the random matrix theory [6], p_A , the probability density function of
 326 the random matrix $\mathbf{A} (\mathbf{A} \in \mathbf{M}_r^{\text{np ar}}, \mathbf{C}_r^{\text{np ar}}, \mathbf{K}_r^{\text{np ar}})$, yields the following constraint
 327 conditions

328

$$\begin{cases} \int_{\mathbb{M}_n^+(\mathbb{R})} p_A(\mathbf{A}) \tilde{d}\mathbf{A} = 1 \\ \int_{\mathbb{M}_n^+(\mathbb{R})} \mathbf{A} p_A(\mathbf{A}) \tilde{d}\mathbf{A} = \underline{\mathbf{A}} \in \mathbb{M}_n^+(\mathbb{R}) \\ \int_{\mathbb{M}_n^+(\mathbb{R})} \ln(\det(\mathbf{A})) p_A(\mathbf{A}) \tilde{d}\mathbf{A} = v \text{ with } |v| < +\infty \end{cases} \quad (24)$$

329

330 where $\mathbb{M}_n^+(\mathbb{R})$ indicates the subspace constituted of all the positive-definite symmetric
 331 real matrices with $n \times n$ dimensions, $\tilde{d}\mathbf{A} = 2^{n(n-1)/4} \prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} d\mathbf{A}_{ij}$ and $\underline{\mathbf{A}}$ is the
 332 mean value of the random matrix \mathbf{A} . Taking into account the constraint conditions in Eq.
 333 (24) and using the Maximum Entropy Principle, the probability density function of \mathbf{A}
 334 can be deduced as

335

$$p_{\mathbf{A}}(\mathbf{A}) = \mathbb{I}_{\mathbb{M}_n^+(\mathbb{R})}(\mathbf{A}) \times c_{\mathbf{A}} \times (\det(\mathbf{A}))^{\lambda-1} \times \exp\left(-\frac{(n-1+2\lambda)}{2} \text{tr}\{\underline{\mathbf{A}}^{-1} \mathbf{A}^T\}\right) \quad (25)$$

336

337 where $\mathbb{I}_{\mathbb{M}_n^+(\mathbb{R})}(\mathbf{A})$ is the indicator function, which is equal to 1 when $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{M}_n^+(\mathbb{R})$ and

338 0 otherwise, $c_{\mathbf{A}}$ is a positive constant which can be expressed as

339

$$c_{\mathbf{A}} = \frac{(2\pi)^{-n(n-1)/4} \left(\frac{n-1+2\lambda}{2}\right)^{n(n-1+2\lambda)/2}}{\left\{\prod_{l=1}^n \Gamma\left(\frac{n-l+2\lambda}{2}\right)\right\} (\det(\underline{\mathbf{A}}))^{(n-1+2\lambda)/2}} \quad (26)$$

340

341 where $\Gamma(x) = \int_0^{+\infty} t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt (x > 0)$ is the gamma function.

342 The variance of the component \mathbf{A}_{jk} which is at the j -th row and k -th column of

343 matrix \mathbf{A} can be calculated from

344

$$\sigma_{jk} = \frac{1}{n-1+2\lambda} (\underline{\mathbf{A}}_{jk}^2 + \underline{\mathbf{A}}_{jj} \underline{\mathbf{A}}_{kk}), \quad 0 < j \leq k \leq n \quad (27)$$

345

346 Note that $E\{\|\mathbf{A} - \underline{\mathbf{A}}\|_{\text{F}}^2\} = \sum_j \sum_k \sigma_{jk}^2$, in which $\|\mathbf{A}\|_{\text{F}}^2 = (\text{tr}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^*))^{1/2}$ is the Frobenius

347 norm of the matrix \mathbf{A} , \mathbf{A}^* is the conjugate of the matrix \mathbf{A} and $\text{tr}(\)$ denotes the trace.

348 Thus the dispersion parameter of the matrix \mathbf{A} can be defined as

349

$$\delta_{\mathbf{A}} = \left\{ \frac{E\{\|\mathbf{A} - \underline{\mathbf{A}}\|_{\text{F}}^2\}}{\|\underline{\mathbf{A}}\|_{\text{F}}^2} \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} = \left\{ \frac{1}{n-1+2\lambda} \left(1 + \frac{(\text{tr}(\underline{\mathbf{A}}))^2}{(\text{tr}(\underline{\mathbf{A}}^2))} \right) \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (28)$$

350

351 Then the parameter λ in Eqs. (25) to (28) can be calculated by

352

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{2\delta_A^2} \left(1 - \delta_A^2(n-1) + \frac{(\text{tr}(\underline{\mathbf{A}}))^2}{(\text{tr}(\underline{\mathbf{A}}^2))} \right) \quad (29)$$

353

354

From the above derivation, it can be seen that once the dimension n has been

355

determined, δ_A controls the dispersion level of the random matrix \mathbf{A} and hence is called

356

the “dispersion parameter”. It is proved that δ_A should satisfy the following constraint

357

$$0 < \delta_A < \sqrt{\frac{n+1}{n+5}} \quad (30)$$

358

359

Given a dispersion parameter δ_A and mean value matrix $\underline{\mathbf{A}}$, samples of the random

360

matrix \mathbf{A} can then be generated. Since \mathbf{A} is a positive-definite symmetric matrix, it can

361

be written as

362

$$\mathbf{A} = \underline{\mathbf{L}}_A^T \mathbf{G} \underline{\mathbf{L}}_A \quad (31)$$

363

364

in which, $\underline{\mathbf{L}}_A$ is an upper triangular matrix obtained by applying the Cholesky

365

factorization to $\underline{\mathbf{A}}$, i.e., $\underline{\mathbf{A}} = \underline{\mathbf{L}}_A^T \underline{\mathbf{L}}_A$, \mathbf{G} is a random matrix and whose mean value is a n -

366

dimensional identity matrix. The random matrix \mathbf{G} is further written as

367

$$\mathbf{G} = \mathbf{L}_G^T \mathbf{L}_G \quad (32)$$

368

369

where \mathbf{L}_G is an upper triangular random matrix resulting from the Cholesky factorization

370

and its samples can be generated by the following steps [12]:

371

(1) random variables $L_{jk} (j \leq k)$ are assumed to be independent;

372 (2) for a non-diagonal element, i.e. $j < k$, the real-valued random variable \mathbf{L}_{Gjk}
 373 can be rewritten as $\mathbf{L}_{Gjk} = \sigma_n |U_{jk}|$, in which $\sigma_n = \delta_A (n + 1)^{-1/2}$ and U_{jk} is a
 374 Gaussian random variable with zero mean and variance of 1;

375 (3) for a diagonal element, i.e. $j = k$, the positive-valued random variable \mathbf{L}_{Gjk}
 376 can be rewritten as $\mathbf{L}_{Gjj} = \sigma_n \sqrt{2V_j}$ in which σ_n is defined in step (2) and V_j is a
 377 gamma random variable with the following probability density function

$$378 \quad p_{V_j}(v) = \mathbb{I}_{\mathbb{M}_n^+(\mathbb{R})}(v) \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha_{n,j})} v^{\alpha_{n,j}-1} e^{-v}, \quad \alpha_{n,j} = \frac{n+1}{2\delta_A^2} + \frac{1-j}{2} \quad (33)$$

379

380 **4 Numerical examples**

381 The physical and geometric parameters of the subsea pipeline are taken as follows:
 382 Young's modulus $E = 207 \times 10^9$ Pa, mass density $\rho = 7850$ kg/m³, Poisson's ratio
 383 $\nu = 0.3$, Rayleigh damping factors corresponding to the stiffness $d_1 = 0.05$ and the
 384 mass $d_2 = 0.01$, total length of pipeline $L_0 = 100$ m, shear correction factor $\kappa =$
 385 $2(1 + \nu)/(4 + 3\nu)$, outer radius $R_{\text{out}} = 0.6$ m, wall thickness $h = 0.017$ m. The mass
 386 densities of the oil in the pipeline and surrounding water are $\rho_{\text{oil}} = 800$ kg/m³ and
 387 $\rho_{\text{water}} = 1025$ kg/m³, respectively, and the velocity of the oil is $v_{\text{oil}} = 3$ m/s.

388 According to the design standard [32], the effective axial compression N_0 should
 389 not exceed $0.5N_{\text{cr}}$, where N_{cr} is the critical buckling load, and hence $N_0 = 0.3N_{\text{cr}}$ is
 390 used in this paper. The pipeline is discretized into 100 elements and both ends are simply
 391 supported.

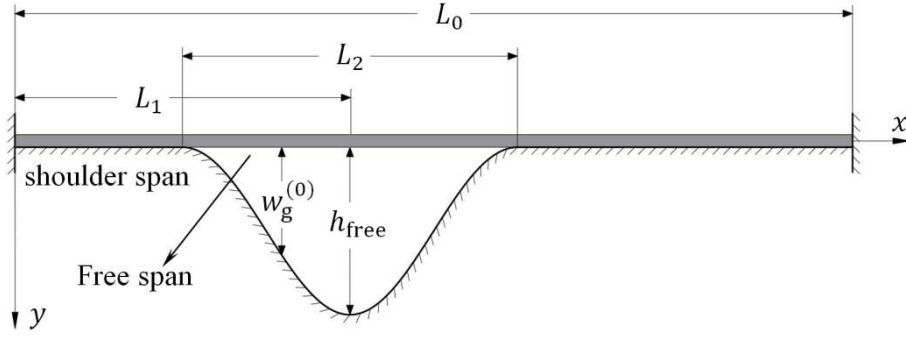


Fig. 3 Schematic of seabed profile

A seabed profile shown in Fig. 3 is considered. The middle point of the free span is $L_1 = 50\text{m}$, the length is $L_2 = 50\text{m}$, the maximum depth is $h_{free} = 0.3\text{m}$. The depth distribution of the free span is represented approximately by a cosine function, hence the seabed profile can be expressed as

$$w_g^{(0)} = \begin{cases} 0 & 0 \leq x < L_1 - L_2/2 \\ \frac{h_{free}}{2} \left[1 - \cos \frac{2\pi(x - L_1 + L_2/2)}{L_2} \right] & L_1 - L_2/2 \leq x < L_1 + L_2/2 \\ 0 & L_1 + L_2/2 \leq x \leq L_0 \end{cases} \quad (34)$$

A ground acceleration spectrum power density function developed by Clough and Penzien [33] is used here, and the corresponding parameters are $S_g = 0.018 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^3$, $\omega_g = 15 \text{ rad/s}$, $\omega_f = 0.1\omega_g$, $v_{app} = 1000 \text{ m/s}$, $\xi_g = \xi_f = 0.6$ [34]. The duration of the earthquake is $T = 10.92\text{s}$, and the time step for the numerical integration is $\Delta t = 0.01\text{s}$, hence the number of time steps is $N_t = 1093$. The nonstationary modulation function and spatial variation parameters of earthquake can be found in [31]. Samples of ground acceleration are generated by Eqs. (18) and (22), and then a correction scheme suggested by Berg and Housner [35] is used to eliminate the baseline offsets caused by

408 the accumulation of random noise in accelerations.

409 In this section, the optimal numbers of reduced modes and MCS samples are firstly
410 determined through convergence analysis. Then, the propagations of randomness of the
411 earthquake and modelling uncertainties of the seabed are investigated. Since the unilateral
412 contact of the pipeline and seabed introduces nonlinearity into the computational model,
413 the randomness and modelling uncertainties may have some different influences on
414 random responses. Hence, a model of permanent contact between the pipeline and seabed
415 is also used for a comparative study. It is noted that in the permanent contact model, the
416 system stiffness matrix contains two components, namely, the pipeline and seabed.
417 However, to be consistent with the unilateral contact model, only the pipeline is assumed
418 to be uncertain while the seabed is assumed to be deterministic.

419 **4.1 Convergence analysis**

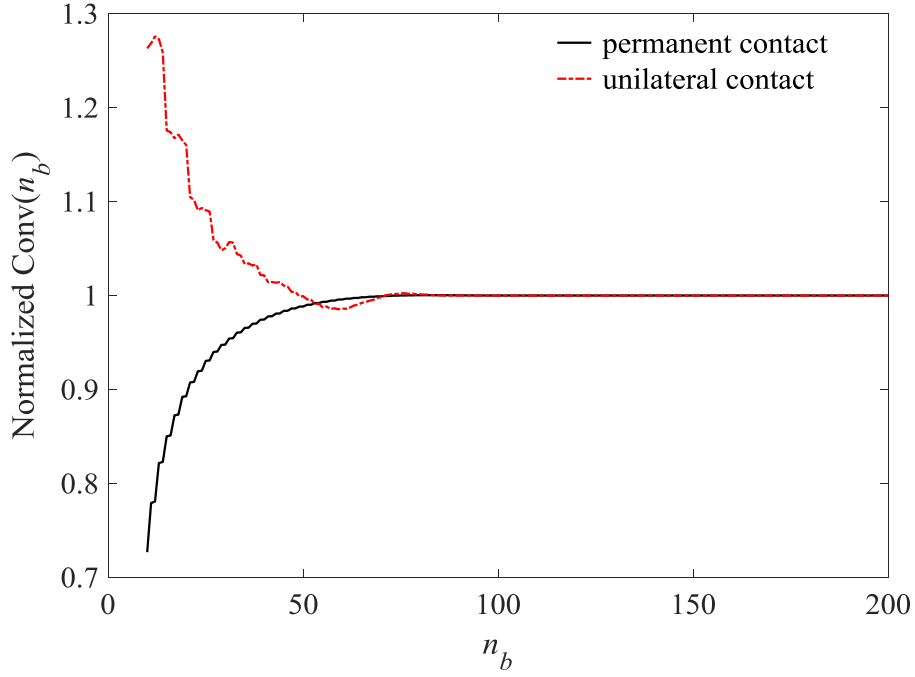
420 The convergence problem of the number of reduced modes is studied based on the
421 mean model of the system, and the excitation is an arbitrary sample of the ground motions.
422 The study uses the following convergence function

423

$$\text{Conv}(n_b) = \int_0^T \|\mathbf{w}(t, n_b)\|^2 dt \quad (35)$$

424

425 in which $\mathbf{w}(t, n_b)$ is the displacement vector of the pipeline at time t by using the first
426 n_b natural modes as reduced modes. For the convenience of comparing the cases of
427 unilateral and permanent contact on a same figure, results are normalized by those with



428

429 Fig. 4 Normalized convergence results for reduced modes in permanent and unilateral
 430 contact models

431 $n_b = 200$, which is the case without any reduction. Fig. 4 gives the convergence results,
 432 which indicate that both unilateral and permanent contact models will obtain convergent
 433 results when $n_b \geq 80$. Hence, $n_b = 80$ is used in the subsequent analysis.

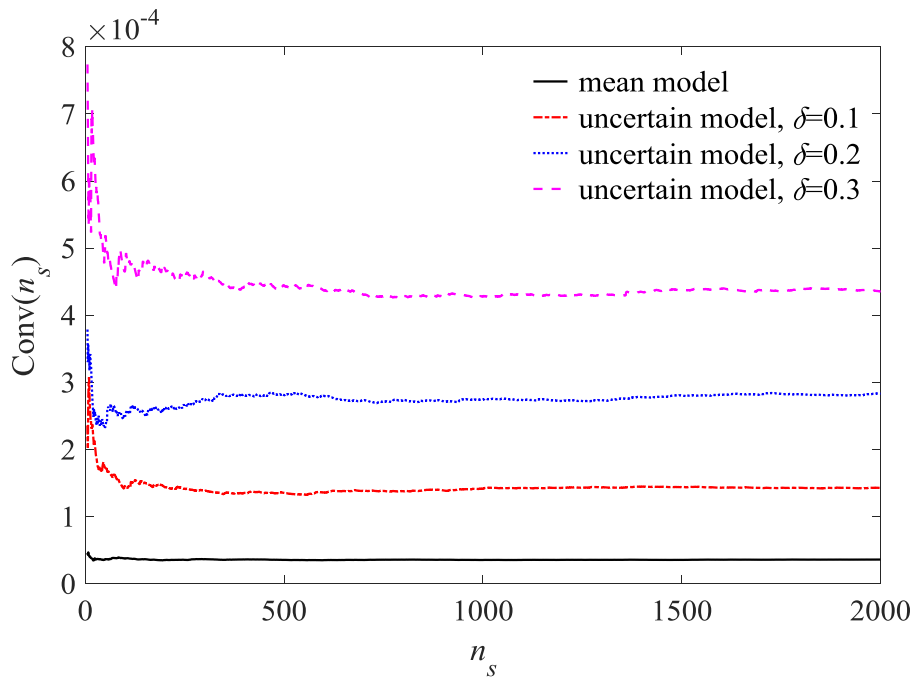
434 On the other hand, since the random results are obtained by MCS, it is necessary to
 435 study the convergence of MCS samples. The corresponding convergence function can be
 436 defined as [36]

437

$$\text{Conv}(n_s) = \frac{1}{n_s} \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} \int_0^T \|\mathbf{w}(t, s_i)\|^2 dt \quad (31)$$

438

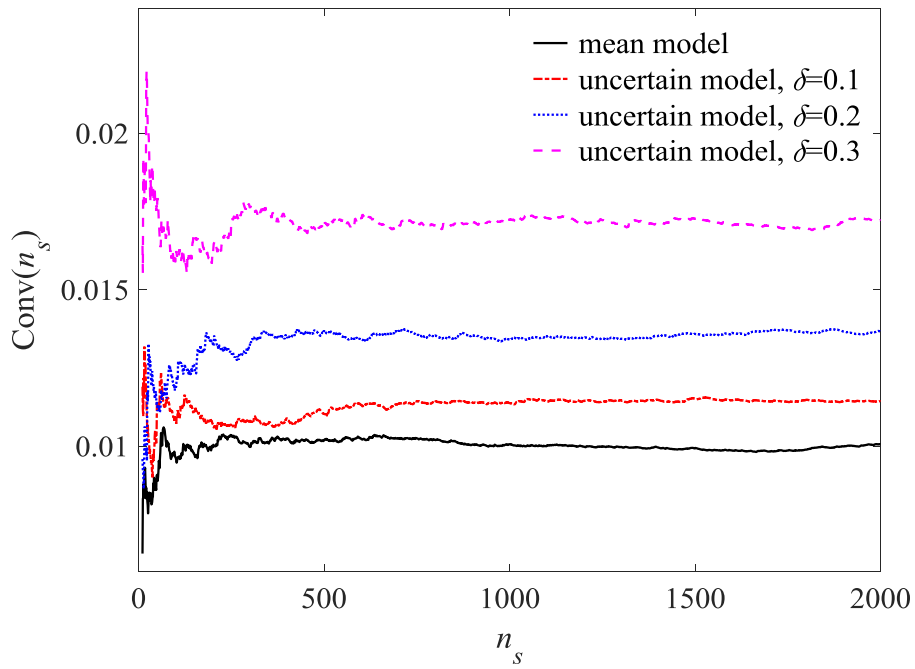
439 where $\mathbf{w}(t, s_i)$ indicates the displacement vector of the pipeline for the i -th sample at
 440 time t and n_s is the total number of samples. The convergence results for cases with



441

442

(a) Permanent contact model



443

444

(b) Unilateral contact model

445 Fig. 5 Convergence results for numbers of Monte Carlo simulation in permanent and

446

unilateral contact models

447 different dispersion parameters, i.e., $\delta_M = \delta_K = 0.1, 0.2, 0.3$, are calculated and shown
 448 in Fig. 5. It can be seen that the permanent contact model appears to have a faster
 449 convergence with the number of samples than the unilateral contact model. To balance
 450 the accuracy and efficiency, $n_s = 1000$ is used in following studies. It is worth noting
 451 that the number of MCS samples is always chosen to be in the range of about 200 to 1500
 452 in the relevant literature [6-14, 36].

453 **4.2 Propagations of randomness and modelling uncertainties**

454 In the present computational model, two kinds of uncertainty, namely, the
 455 randomness of ground motions and modelling uncertainties of the pipeline are included.
 456 To study the propagations of these uncertainties qualitatively, three representative cases
 457 with different uncertainties are considered and their details are shown in Table 1.

458 Table. 1 Three representative cases with different uncertainties

	Ground motions	Pipeline
Case 1	Deterministic	Modelling uncertainties
	Arbitrary sample	Random matrix
Case 2	Randomness	Deterministic
	Random process	Mean model
Case 3	Randomness	Modelling uncertainties
	Random process	Random matrix

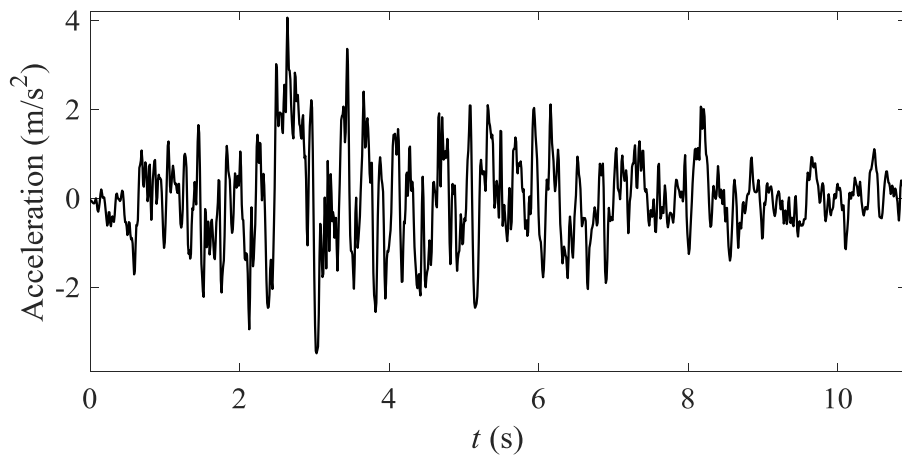
459 **4.2.1 Case 1: deterministic ground motions and uncertain pipeline**
460 **model**

461 To study the influences of modelling uncertainties on random responses, the case
462 with deterministic ground motions and an uncertain pipeline model is carried out firstly.
463 The ground motion is an arbitrary sample generated by the approach in subsection 3.1.
464 Time histories of this sample at $x = 50\text{m}$ are given in Fig. 6.
465 Fig. 7 displays the time-varying mean values of displacements of the pipeline at $x =$
466 50m for cases with different dispersion parameters. It is shown that the dispersion
467 parameters of modelling uncertainties have slight influences on the mean values of
468 responses in the permanent contact model. However these influences are very significant
469 in the unilateral contact model, giving larger mean values as the dispersion parameters
470 are increased. Fig. 8 gives the time-varying standard deviations of displacement responses
471 at the same location. It can be seen that standard deviations increase with dispersion
472 parameters in both the permanent and unilateral contact models. However, this increase
473 is almost linear in the permanent contact model, while it is clearly nonlinear in the
474 unilateral contact model. These results demonstrate that the modelling uncertainties of
475 the pipeline have significantly different propagation in linear and nonlinear systems.

476

477

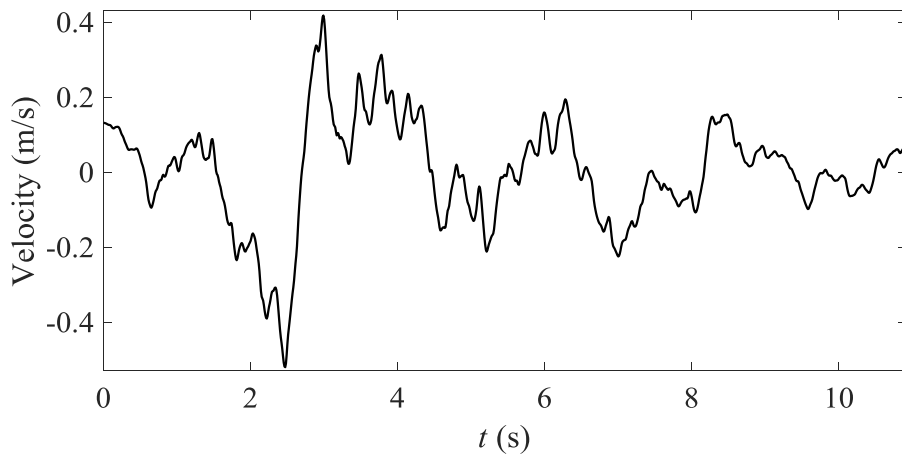
478



479

480

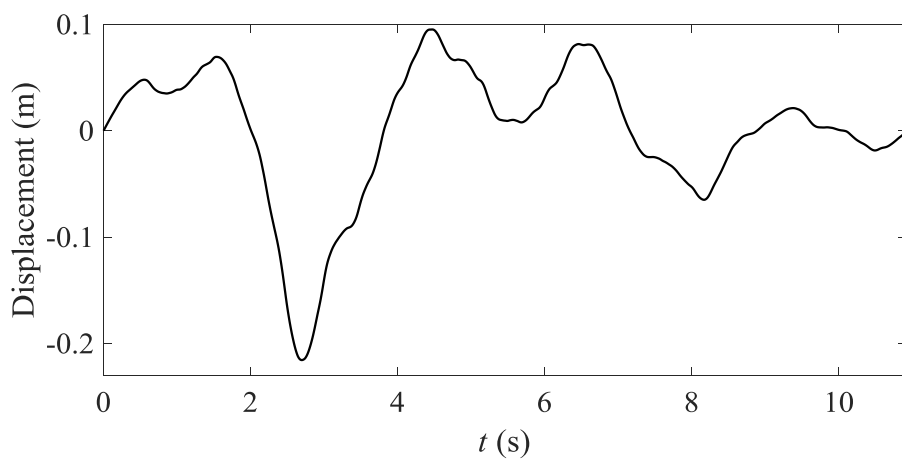
(a) Acceleration



481

482

(b) Velocity



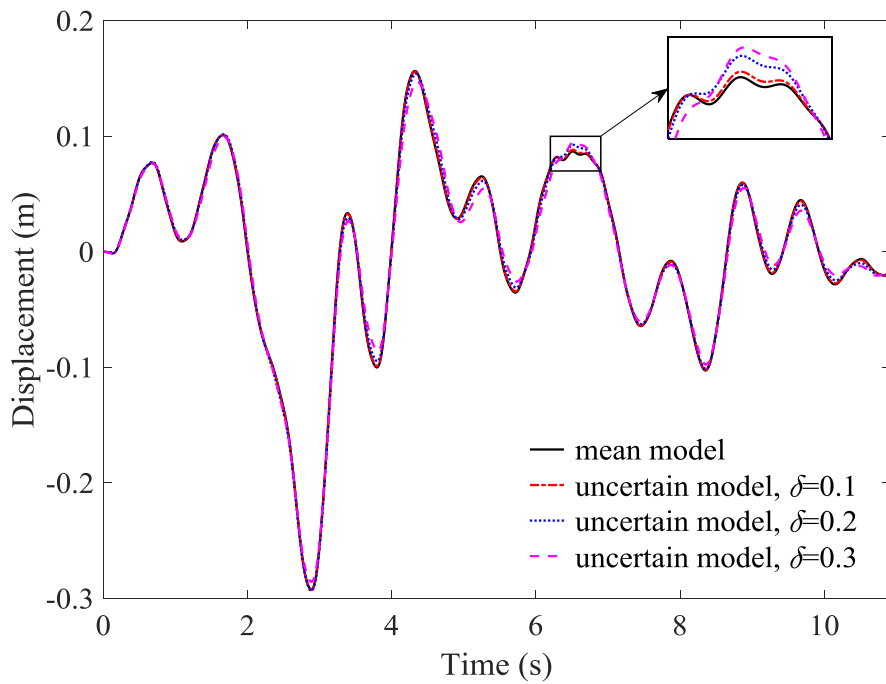
483

484

(c) Displacement

485

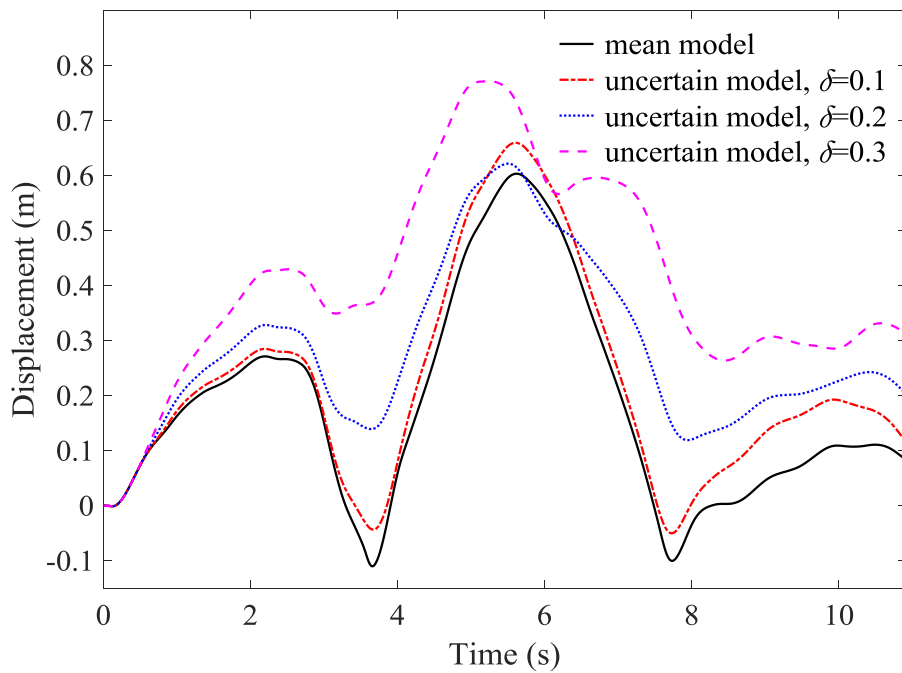
Fig. 6 Time histories of the ground motion at $x = 50\text{m}$



486

487

(a) Permanent contact model



488

489

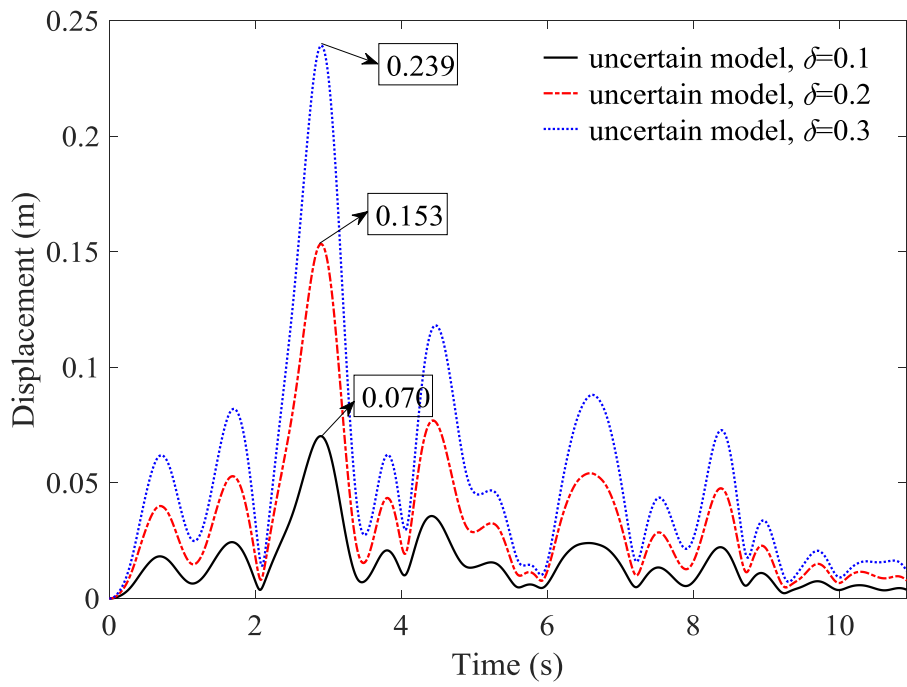
(b) Unilateral contact model

490

Fig. 7 Mean values of pipeline displacements for the case of deterministic ground

491

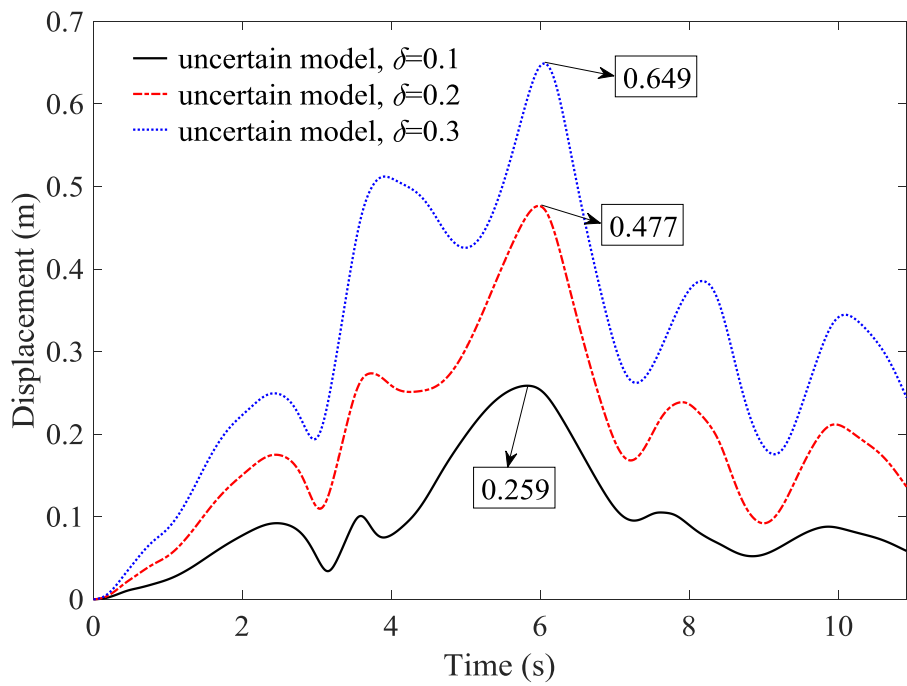
motions and uncertain pipeline model



492

493

(a) Permanent contact model



494

495

(b) Unilateral contact model

496

Fig. 8 Standard deviations of pipeline displacements for the case of deterministic

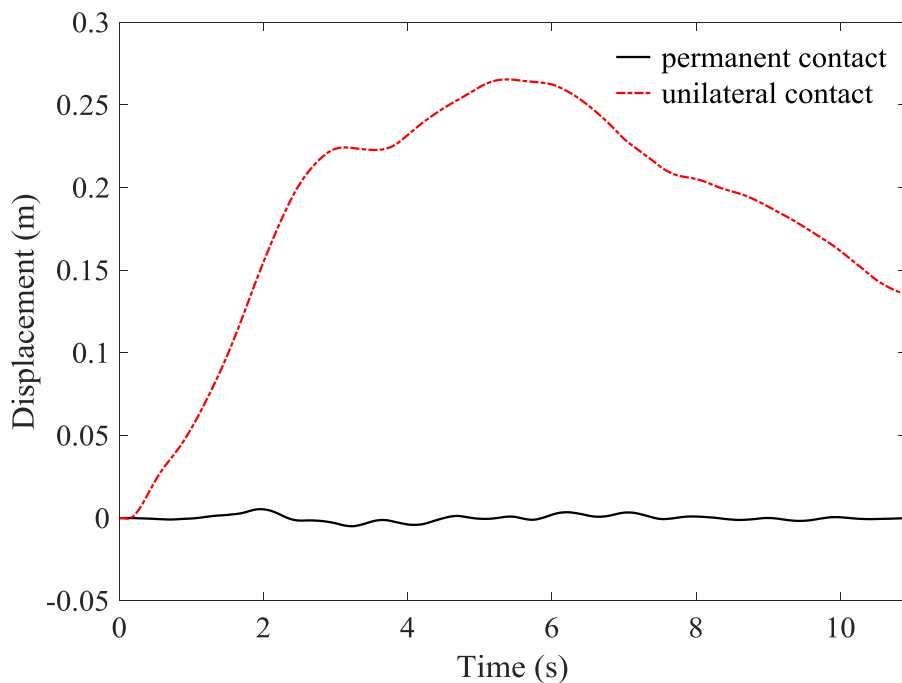
497

ground motions and uncertain pipeline model

498 **4.2.2 Case 2: random ground motions and deterministic pipeline**

499 In this subsection, a computational model with random ground motions and
500 deterministic pipeline model is adopted to study the propagation of randomness of the
501 earthquake. Note that the ground motions are assumed to be Gaussian distributed with
502 zero mean.

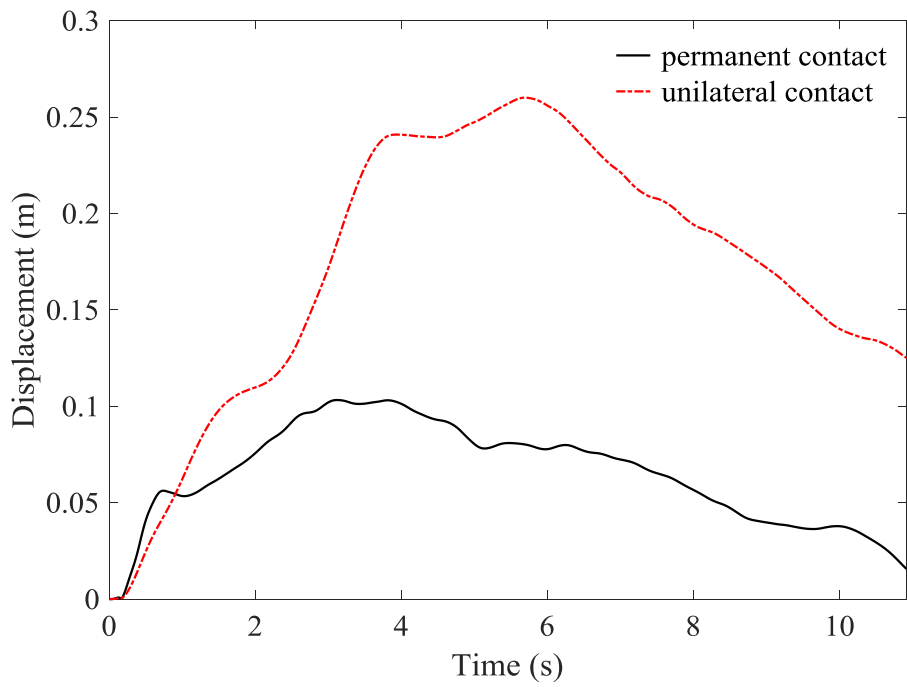
503 Fig. 9 presents the time-varying statistical moments of displacements of the pipeline
504 at $x = 50\text{m}$ in the permanent and unilateral contact models. It can be seen from Fig. 9(a)
505 that the responses have zero mean values in the permanent contact model while much
506 larger mean values in the unilateral contact model. The reason is that for a linear and time-
507 invariant system (the permanent contact model), if the input has zero mean, then the
508 output also has zero mean. However, in the unilateral contact model which is a nonlinear



509

510

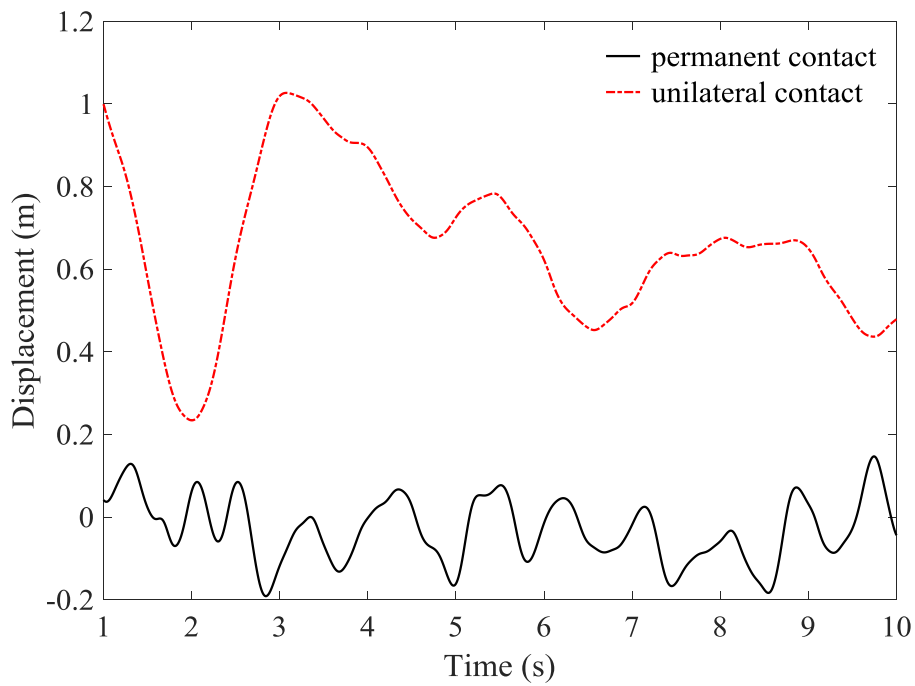
(a) Mean values



511

512

(b) Standard deviations



513

514

(c) Skewnesses

515

Fig. 9 Statistical moments of pipeline displacements for the case of random ground

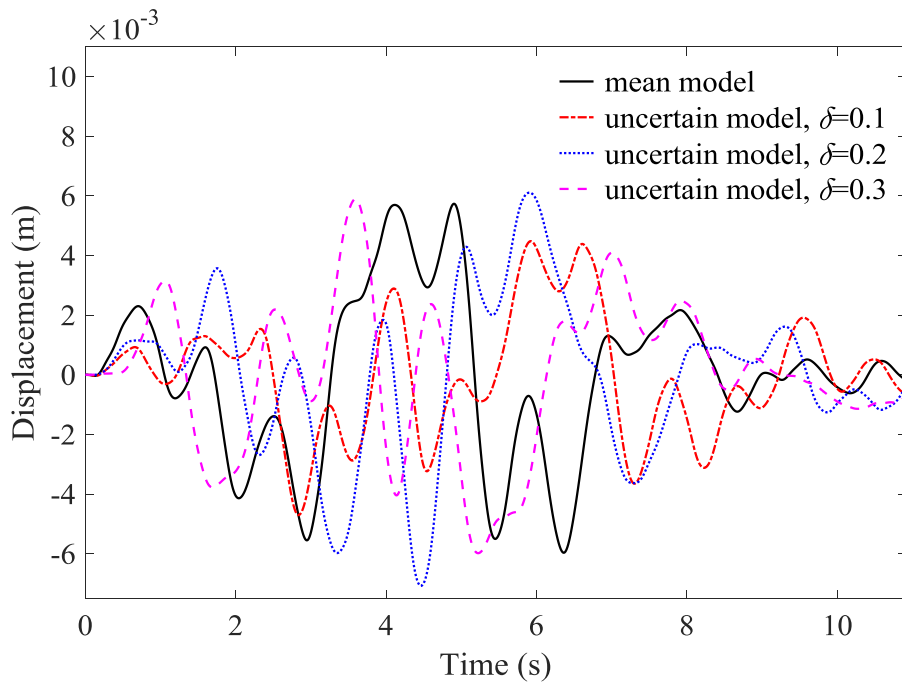
516

motions and deterministic pipeline model

517 system, the responses have non-zero mean values even if the excitation has zero mean
518 values. Fig. 9(b) gives the standard deviations. It is observed that the standard deviations
519 in the unilateral contact model are much larger than those in the permanent contact model,
520 except for a short time at the beginning of the earthquake. The skewness, which is a
521 measure of the asymmetry from the Gaussian distribution, is given in Fig. 9(c). It can be
522 seen that both skewnesses fluctuate around zero, with a small amplitude in the permanent
523 contact model but relatively large values in the unilateral contact model. This
524 phenomenon indicates that when the ground motions are Gaussian, the responses of the
525 permanent contact are also Gaussian while those of the unilateral contact models are not.
526 Based on these results, it is concluded that the randomness of the ground motions
527 propagates in different ways in the permanent and unilateral contact models.

528 **4.2.3 Case 3: random ground motions and uncertain pipeline**

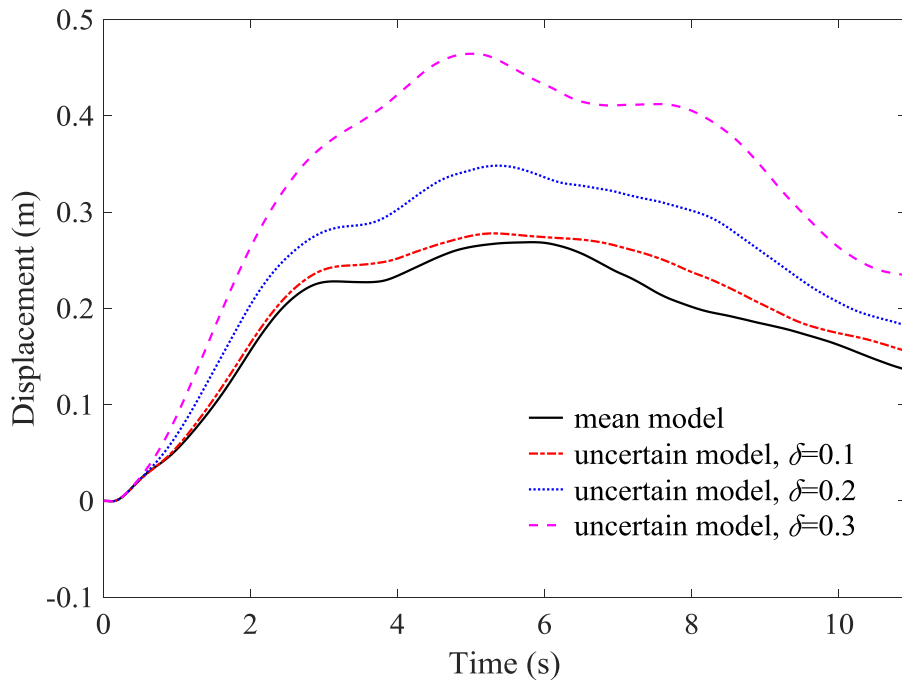
529 Finally, a case with random ground motions and an uncertain pipeline model is carried
530 out to study the combined influences of the randomness and modelling uncertainties on
531 random responses. The time-varying mean values of displacements of the pipeline at $x =$
532 50m are shown in Fig. 10. It can be seen that for the permanent contact model, the mean
533 values vary in a small range around zero with amplitudes of the order 10^{-3} m, which
534 means that random responses can be regarded as being zero mean. It is also shown that
535 the influence of the dispersion parameter on the amplitude of mean values is not obvious
536 in the permanent contact model. However, as shown in Fig. 10(b), the dispersion



537

538

(a) Permanent contact model



539

540

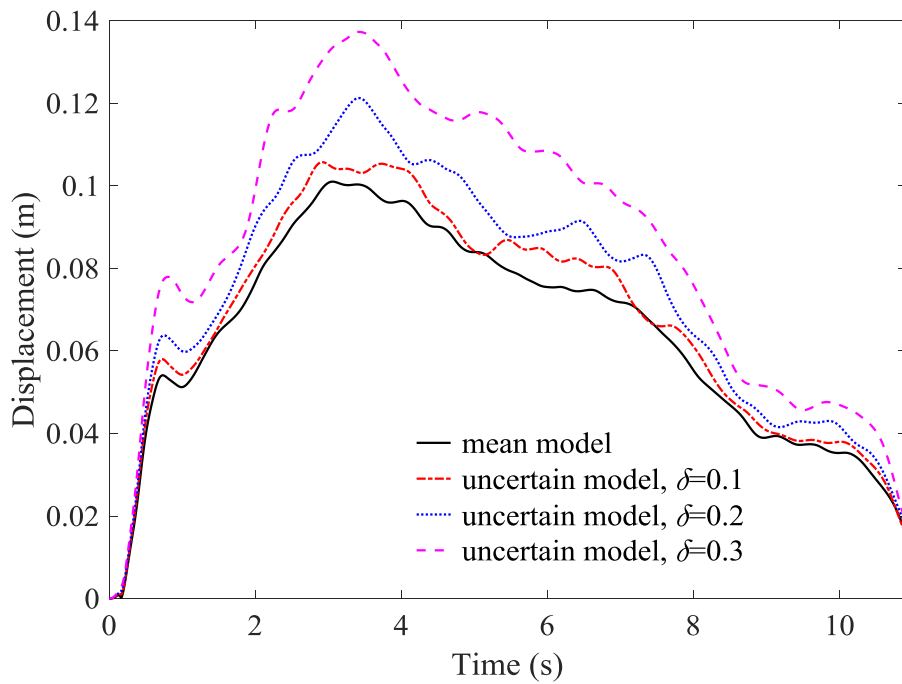
(b) Unilateral contact model

541 Fig. 10 Mean values of pipeline displacements for the case of random ground motions

542 and uncertain pipeline model

543 parameter has a remarkable influence on the mean values for the unilateral contact model.
544 Fig. 11 shows the time-varying standard deviations of displacement responses and the
545 characteristics of results are quite similar to those in Fig. 8. However, the standard
546 deviations in Fig. 11 do not increase linearly with the dispersion parameter any more for
547 the permanent contact model, in contrast to those in Fig. 8. Compared to the results for
548 Cases 1 and 2, it can be concluded that the consideration of both randomness and
549 modelling uncertainty will make random responses more dispersed than the cases in
550 which either one is not considered.

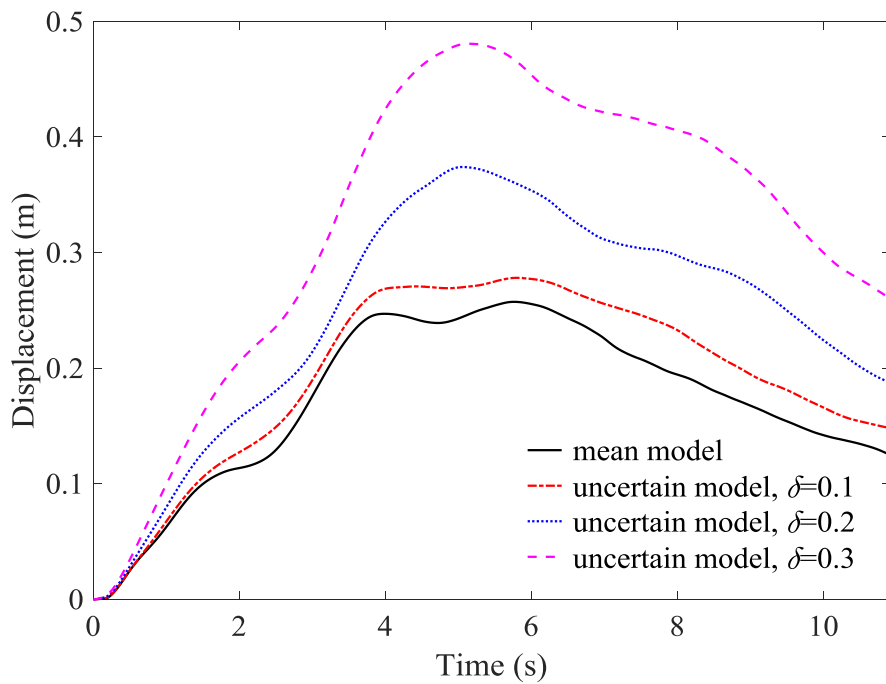
551 The reliability assessment of structures subjected to an earthquake is usually
552 formulated as a first passage problem, i.e. the probability that the structural response
553 exceeds a given threshold. Based on certain assumptions, the first passage problem is
554 usually reduced to finding the statistical moments of the maximum response during a
555 specified period. Figs. 12 and 13 give mean values and standard deviations of maximum
556 displacement responses of the pipeline, respectively. It is shown that both mean values
557 and standard deviations tend to increase with the dispersion parameter, especially those
558 in the middle region of the pipeline. Meanwhile, it can be seen that mean values and
559 standard deviations near the end supports, i.e., locations $x = 0$ to 20m and $x = 80$ to
560 100m, vary little with the increase of the dispersion parameter in the permanent contact
561 model (Figs. 12(a) and 13(a)), but vary greatly for the unilateral contact model (Figs. 12(b)
562 and 13(b)). There are two reasons for this phenomenon. Firstly, the end supports of the



563

564

(a) Permanent contact model



565

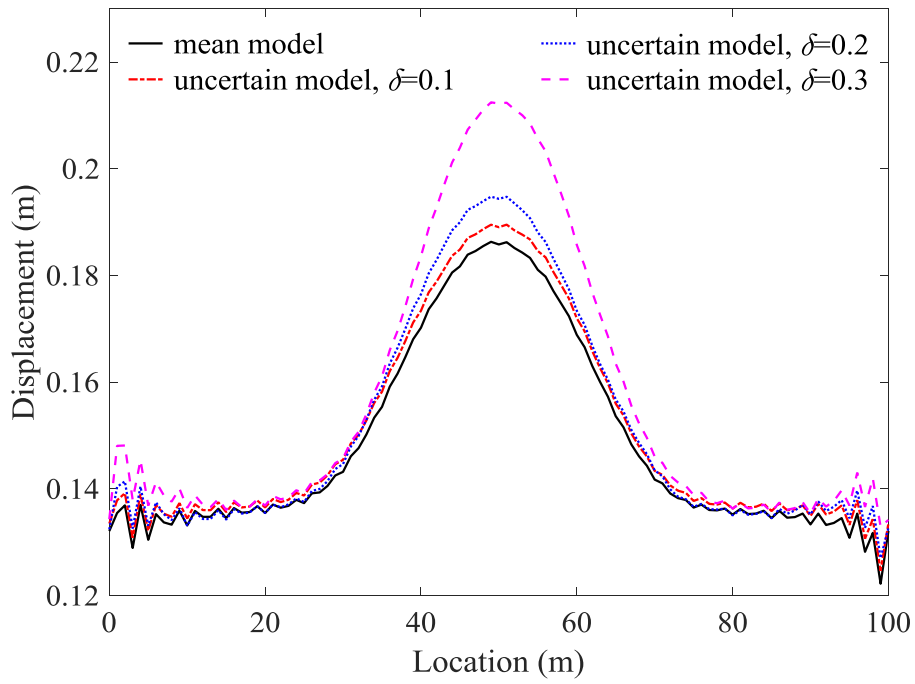
566

(b) Unilateral contact model

567 Fig. 11 Standard deviations of pipeline displacements for the case of random ground

568

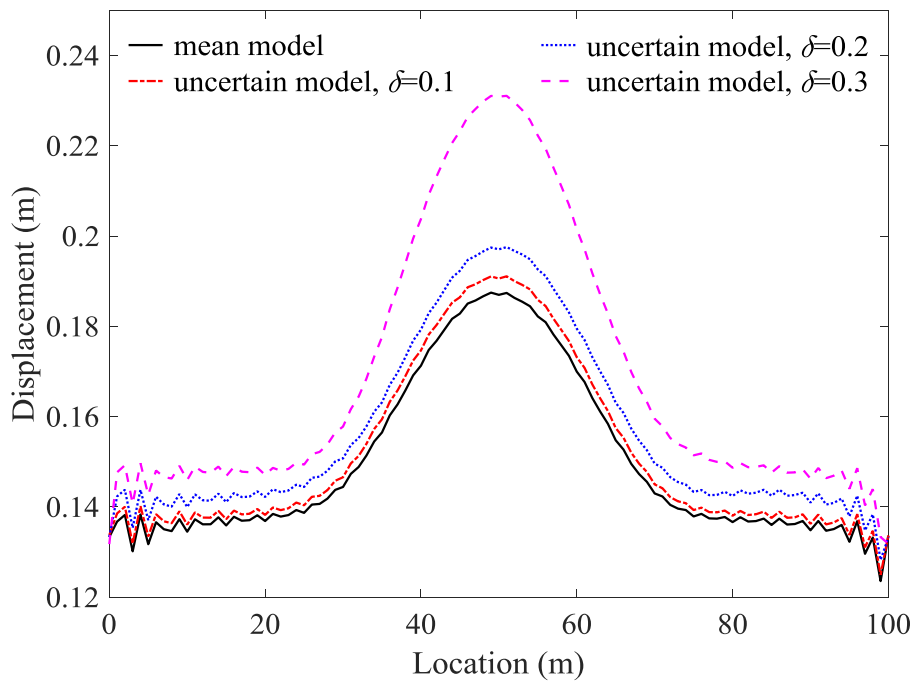
motions and uncertain pipeline model



569

570

(a) Permanent contact model



571

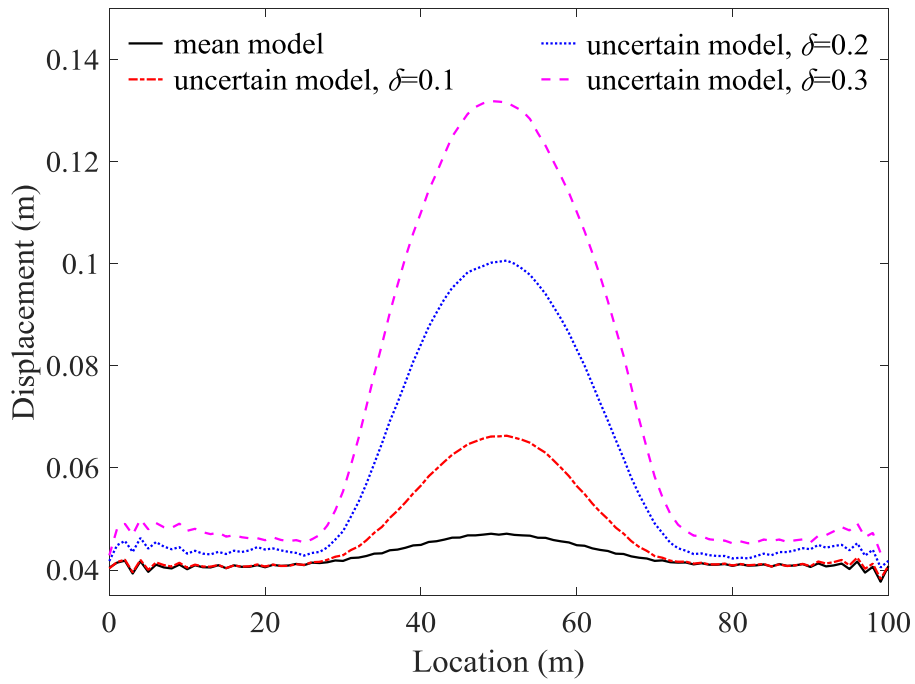
572

(b) Unilateral contact model

573

Fig. 12 Mean values of the maximum responses of the pipeline

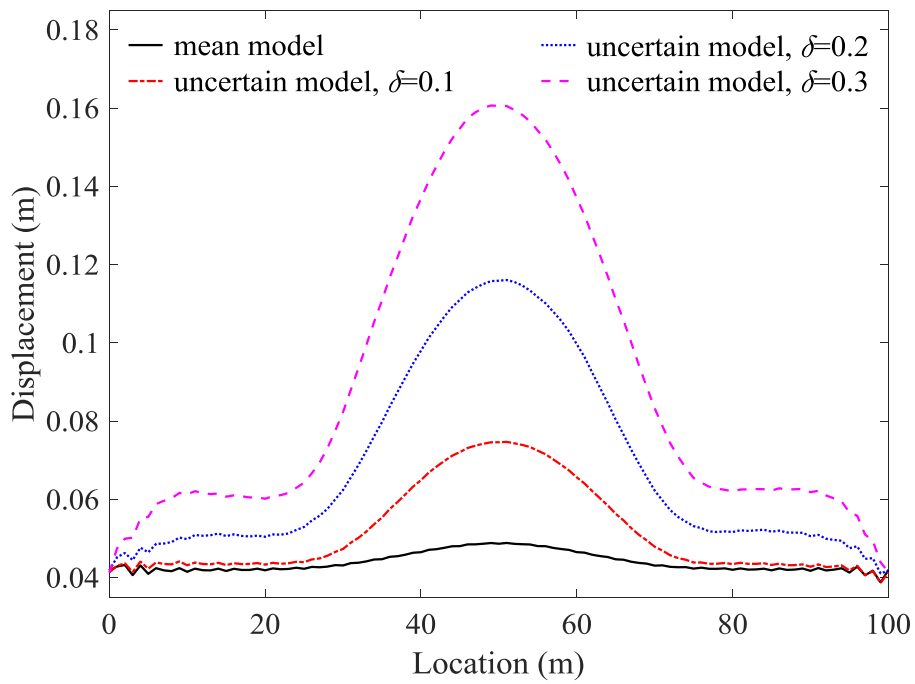
574



575

576

(a) Permanent contact model



577

578

(b) Unilateral contact model

579

Fig. 13 Standard deviations of the maximum responses of the pipeline

580

581 pipeline are assumed to be rigid and hence their motions are equal to the ground motions,
582 which are independent of the uncertainties of the pipeline. Secondly, the permanent
583 contact model has a larger system stiffness than the unilateral contact model due to the
584 total constraint of the seabed. Hence, in the permanent contact model, motions of the
585 pipeline near the end supports are to a great extent controlled by the motions of the end
586 supports. But in the unilateral contact model, the effect of end supports is much smaller.

587

588 **5 Conclusions**

589 This paper presents a computational model for the random vibration analysis of a
590 subsea pipeline subjected to an earthquake. The randomness of the earthquake and
591 modelling uncertainties of the pipeline are included in this computational model.
592 Meanwhile, the spatial variation of the ground motions and the unilateral contact
593 relationship between the pipeline and seabed are considered. Based on the present
594 computational model, propagations of the randomness and modelling uncertainties are
595 investigated through three representative cases. Results indicate that both the randomness
596 of the earthquake and modelling uncertainties of the pipeline have significant influences
597 on the random responses of the pipeline, and hence they should be considered in any
598 earthquake analysis of the pipeline. Furthermore, comparative studies are performed
599 between the permanent and unilateral contact models and remarkable differences are
600 observed in their random responses. For the permanent contact model, random responses

601 of the pipeline exhibit a consistent statistical characteristic with the randomness and
602 modelling uncertainties, whereas for the unilateral contact model random responses are
603 more dispersed. These differences demonstrate the necessity of consideration of the
604 unilateral contact effect in the random earthquake analysis of subsea pipelines, especially
605 for those unburied or not anchored in deep sea regions.

606

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611

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