# Effect of pipeline surface roughness on peak impact forces

# 2 caused by hydrodynamic submarine mudflow

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## 17 Abstract

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The effect of pipeline surface roughness on the interaction between submarine landslides and pipelines may not be insignificant and has rarely been quantified. In this paper, a previously validated computational fluid dynamics model is employed to study the interaction of submarine landslides and suspended or laid-on-seabed pipelines, respectively, which are roughened in order to quantify the effect of pipeline surface roughness. Here, four orders of magnitude surface roughnesses are chosen whereas the mudflows (submarine landslides) occur at typical Reynolds numbers. The effect of surface roughness is primarily reflected in the peak load of the impact forces on the pipelines, which are more sensitive to high Reynolds numbers and suspension conditions. For suspended pipelines, with the increase of roughness, (i) the peak lift force increases, (ii) the peak drag force decreases, and (iii) Strouhal number slightly increases. Compared with nearly smooth pipelines, the relative increase of the peak lift force and the relative reduction of the peak drag force on suspended pipelines with a surface roughness of 0.15 mm attain 62% or 17%, respectively. Additionally, relevant mechanisms are highlighted via contours of the pressure around the pipeline, the interfacial shear rate, as well as the squeeze and hindrance effect of the seabed. Further, a standard chart methodology considering pipeline roughness to estimate peak impact forces is established, which provides a basis for the risk assessment of the whole life cycle of submarine pipelines.

35 **Keywords** 

Submarine pipeline; Mudflow; Surface roughness; Peak impact forces; Influence law; Evaluation methodology.

## 1. Introduction

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Submarine pipelines are an indispensable asset for connecting oil and gas production fields to the shore and transporting petroleum fluids from the sea to storage terminals on shore, which is known as the lifeline (Hance, 2003; Gao, 2017). With the development of offshore oil and gas fields into deep waters, high seas and polar regions, these pipelines face a harsh marine environment and are subjected to significant external loads, including waves, currents, high pressure, low temperature, high salinity leading to corrosion, colonization by microorganisms causing biofouling and/or even geological disasters such as submarine landslides. Hence, higher quality requirements for submarine pipelines are put forward. The construction and operation management of the lifeline is characterized by major investment, high risk and long return period which entails that pipelines have been developed in the direction of longer distance transportation, larger diameter, more service life and greater reliability in order to make oil and gas exploration projects profitable quickly, which proposes greater challenges to the pipeline design. As a highly-destructive but very sporadic load, submarine landslides, including debris flows and mudflows, have caused great damage to submarine pipelines (Hsu et al., 2008; Dong et al., 2017a); hence, submarine landslide-pipeline-interaction has become a research focus (Dong et al., 2017b; Nian et al., 2018; Malgesini et al., 2018; Qian et al., 2019; Dutta and Hawlader, 2019; Chatzidakis et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2020) recently. In terms of physical tests, single-phase (anhydrous environment) particle flow experiments (Chehata et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2008; Perez-Gruszkiewicz, 2012), flume experiment (Zakeri et al., 2008; Haza et al., 2013), rotating flume experiment (Wang et al., 2018) and centrifugal experiments (Zakeri et al., 2012) have been carried out, the related characteristics of pipeline stress were explored, and reliable methods for assessing impact forces under simple working conditions were established. However, due to the shortcomings of physical tests, including substantial human resources and material input, limited conditions and insufficient acquisition parameters, numerical simulations have become an alternative approach to investigate complex pipeline-mudflow interactions. From numerical simulations, many important aspects have been revealed, including physical and mechanical properties and composition of landslides (Zakeri, 2009; Nian et al., 2018), in-place state of pipelines (i.e., buried (Zhu and Randolph, 2011; Dong et al., 2017b; Zhang et al., 2019a), laid-on-seabed (Fan et al., 2018; Guo et al., 2019a), suspension (Zakeri et al., 2009; Qian et al., 2020) and different span heights (Guo et al., 2019a)), impact angle between landslides and pipelines (Zakeri, 2009; Liu et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2019b), pipeline types (i.e., streamlined (Fan et al., 2018), honeycomb-hole (Guo et al., 2019b and 2021a)) and seafloor low-temperature environment (Nian et al., 2018). However, past studies have not taken into account the changes in the pipeline surface condition on the landslide impact forces on the submarine pipeline during the pipeline long-term service. Depending on the technical requirements, the outside surface of submarine pipelines may be made of concrete, steel, rubber, asphalt, polyethylene, etc. In the long-term service process, the harsh marine environment accelerates the aging of the pipeline and thereby increasing their surface roughness, and the accumulation of damage, and hence a reduction of bearing capacity. Practically, the attachment of microorganisms further increases the pipeline surface roughness (Ghazali et al., 2019). Surface roughness of structures has a significant effect on the flow field around them (Zhou et al., 2015; Zeinoddini et al., 2016; Tian et al., 2019; Gao et al., 2020; Bi et al., 2020), hence alters the hydrodynamic force distribution and magnitude on pipelines due to

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landslides, which has a great influence on pipeline design. Therefore, this paper focuses on the effect of pipeline surface roughness on the impact forces (i.e., drag and lift forces) on suspended and laid-on-seabed pipelines caused by mudflows in a marine environment.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, the effect of surface roughness of suspended and laid-on-seabed pipelines on submarine landslide-pipeline interaction are numerically modeled and studied by the previously verified computational fluid dynamics (CFD) method using an equivalent sand grain roughness model. In Section 3, the relevant hydrodynamic mechanisms creating peak impact forces caused by pipeline surface roughness are elucidated and discussed, and the variation of Strouhal number for assessing flow-induced vibrations on the suspended pipeline is given. In Section 4, a simplified evaluation methodology to estimate peak drag and lift forces is established to provide a basis for pipeline design and risk assessment. The conclusions of this study are presented in Section 5.

## 2. Methodology

#### 2.1 CFD approach

There are many numerical modelling studies simulating submarine landslide-pipeline-interaction, including the computational fluid dynamics (CFD) (Zakeri, 2009; Zakeri et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2015; Nian et al., 2018; Qian et al., 2019; Dutta and Hawlader, 2019; Guo et al., 2019a, 2019b and 2021a; Zhang et al., 2019b), large deformation finite element (LDFE) method (Zhu and Randolph, 2011), material point method (MPM) (Dong et al., 2017b), coupled Eulerian-Lagrangian (CEL) method (Saha et al., 2018) or the particle finite element method (Zhang et al., 2019b), respectively. Based on CFD, Zakeri et al. (2009) effectively reproduced the flume experiment of Zakeri et al. (2008) and obtained accurate quantitative parameters. At present, CFD numerical modelling is one

of the most widely used methods.

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Using CFD approach, submarine landslide-pipeline-interaction is considered to be a typical two-phase fluid-structure interactions (FSI) problem (Guo et al., 2021b). Hence, CFD incompressible two-phase flow based on the Eulerian-Eulerian multiphase flow model is adopted to model the free surface flow of continuous fluids (i.e., ambient water and submarine landslide). The ambient water (Eulerian material) and submarine landslide (Eulerian material) are denoted by  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , respectively, and the total phase number is  $N_p = 2$ . Governing equations (i.e., continuity and momentum equations) are as following:

112 Continuity equation:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (r_{\alpha} \rho_{\alpha}) + \nabla \cdot (r_{\alpha} \rho_{\alpha} U_{\alpha}) = M_{MS\alpha} + \sum_{\beta=1}^{N_{P}} \Gamma_{\alpha\beta}$$
(1)

where  $r_{\alpha}$ ,  $\rho_{\alpha}$  and  $U_{\alpha}$  are the volume fraction, density, and velocity, respectively, of phase  $\alpha$ ;  $M_{MS\alpha}$  is the user-specified quality source phase; and  $\Gamma_{\alpha\beta}$  is the mass flow rate of a unit volume from phase  $\beta$  to phase  $\alpha$ , which must satisfy  $\Gamma_{\alpha\beta} = -\Gamma_{\beta\alpha} \Rightarrow \sum_{\beta=1}^{N_P} \Gamma_{\alpha} = 0$ . For determining the direction of the mass exchange process, if  $\Gamma_{\alpha\beta} = \Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^+ - \Gamma_{\beta\alpha}^+ > 0$ , the mass flow rate of the unit

Momentum equation:

$$120 \qquad \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( r_{\alpha} \rho_{\alpha} U_{\alpha} \right) + \nabla \cdot \left( r_{\alpha} \left( \rho_{\alpha} U_{\alpha} \otimes U_{\alpha} \right) \right) = -r_{\alpha} \nabla P_{\alpha} + \nabla \cdot \left( r_{\alpha} \mu_{\alpha} \left( \nabla U_{\alpha} + \left( \nabla U_{\alpha} \right)^{\mathsf{T}} \right) \right) + \sum_{\beta=1}^{N_{P}} \left( \Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^{+} U_{\beta} - \Gamma_{\beta\alpha}^{+} U_{\alpha} \right) + S_{M\alpha} + M_{\alpha}$$
 (2)

volume from phase  $\beta$  to phase  $\alpha$  is positive and the volume fraction is  $\sum_{\alpha=1}^{N_p} r_{\alpha} = 1$ .

121 where  $P_{\alpha}$  and  $\mu_{\alpha}$  are the pressure and viscosity of phase  $\alpha$ , respectively;  $S_{M\alpha}$  is the

momentum source that is caused by an external force; and  $M_{\alpha}$  is the total interface force on

phase  $\alpha$  due to phase  $\beta$ , which can be calculated via the following equation:

$$M_{\alpha} = \sum_{\beta \neq \alpha} M_{\alpha\beta} = -\sum_{\alpha \neq \beta} M_{\beta\alpha} = M_{\alpha\beta}^{D} + M_{\alpha\beta}^{L} + M_{\alpha\beta}^{LUB} + M_{\alpha\beta}^{VM} + M_{\alpha\beta}^{TD}$$
(3)

where  $M_{\alpha\beta}^D$  is the interphase drag force on phase  $\alpha$  caused by phase  $\beta$ ;  $M_{\alpha\beta}^L$  is the lift force

on phase  $\alpha$  caused by phase  $\beta$ ;  $M_{\alpha\beta}^{LUB}$  is the wall lubrication force on phase  $\alpha$  caused by phase  $\beta$ ;  $M_{\alpha\beta}^{VM}$  is the virtual mass force on phase  $\alpha$  caused by phase  $\beta$ ;  $M_{\alpha\beta}^{TD}$  is the turbulence dispersion force on phase  $\alpha$  caused by phase  $\beta$ . The non-drag forces are mainly used for discrete phases. This study only considers the drag force between phases.

#### 2.2 Rheological model of submarine mudflows

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Submarine landslides have a clear stage division in their evolutionary process (Locat and Lee, 2002; Hance, 2003; Shanmugam, 2015). Earthquakes (Rodríguez-Ochoa et al., 2015; Rashid et al., 2017; Nian et al., 2019; Guo et al., 2020a), hydrate decomposition (Hance, 2003; He et al., 2013; Elger et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2020) and other causes triggered the instability of submarine slopes. The landslide detaches from the submarine slope is inevitably undergoing evolution from a block slip, a mud/debris flow, a turbidity flow, to a heavy water flow and finally sedimentation. Currently, CFD modelling is employed to simulate and analyze submarine landslides impacting on pipelines. Hence, detailed assessment is needed to determine which stage of the landslide to adopt in CFD. Two factors are primarily considered: (i) probability of occurrence; (ii) destructive power. For submarine landslides at the stage of a mud/debris flow, their migration range is wider than for the block slip stage, which leads to a higher probability of pipeline impact; their density and shear strength are larger than for the turbidity flow and heavy water flow stages, and their flow velocity is higher than for the other stages, which leads to more destructive force (Bruschi et al., 2006) in comparison to the other stages; thus, most researchers consider the stage of mud/debris flow for analysis of landslide-pipeline-interaction.

Submarine mud/debris flows have non-Newtonian fluid properties and are often described using a non-Newtonian fluid with shear thinning characteristics. The submarine mudflows adopted

In this paper come from the northern deep-water continental slope of the South China Sea. Through in-situ sampling, low-temperature rheological parameters of submarine mudflows are tested in the laboratory. Based on the Herschel-Bulkley model shown in Eq. (4), the coupled temperature-water content rheological model of mudflows has been established (Guo et al., 2020b), and the rheological model is further implemented in the CFD model. Specific parameters of the rheological model are reported in Table 1.

$$\tau = \tau_{v} + K\dot{\gamma}^{n} \tag{4}$$

where  $\tau_y$  is the yield stress of the submarine mudflow (Pa); K is the consistency factor of the submarine mudflow (Pa·s<sup>n</sup>); and n is the fluidity index of the submarine mudflow.

Table 1. Herschel-Bulkley rheological model of submarine mudflows at 0.5 °C low-temperature and mudflow impacting on pipeline conditions (modified after Guo et al. (2020b))

#### 2.3 CFD model and setting of boundary conditions

The CFD model ANSYS CFX is employed here and it is parallelized via the platform of MPI. The CFD model is based on the method of finite volumes. The computational domain and the impact velocity of the landslide are determined by a methodology from the previous study (Guo et al., 2018), ensuring that the simulation results effectively correspond to engineering practice. In practical projects, submarine pipelines are mostly laid on the seabed surface, especially deep-sea pipelines. In the long-term service process, the submarine pipeline will inevitably have a suspended span, including marine soils below pipelines eroded by active bottom currents (Zhao et al., 2021), and submarine pipelines cross areas with high topographic relief (Guo et al., 2019a). Therefore, the two most common types of pipelines in deep-sea areas (i.e., laid-on-seabed and suspended pipelines) are considered. Through the engineering monitoring, most submarine

pipelines have a span height of approximately one times the diameter of the pipeline (Huang et al., 2021), and thus the span height of the suspended pipeline is set to 1 times the pipeline diameter. The geometry, grid and boundary conditions for CFD modelling are presented in Fig. 1. Using grids with a grid quality (i.e., an important and comprehensive parameter to evaluate the grid division in ANSYS ICEM CFD, where 0 is poor and 1 is good) of greater than 0.8, grid sensitivity analyses are carried out to ensure the reliability and credibility of the results. Based on a two-phase free surface flow model, the submarine mudflow is described by Eulerian continuous fluid material, and no turbulence model is employed due to its highly-viscous and non-Newtonian nature (Guo et al., 2021c). The ambient water is also described by Eulerian continuous fluid material, and turbulence is accounted for using the k- $\varepsilon$  turbulence model. The simulation is transient with a total time of 1 s and a time step of 0.001 s; more details are provided in Nian et al. (2008) and Guo et al. (2019a, 2019b and 2021a).

Fig. 1. Geometry, grid and boundary conditions for the CFD modelling

#### 2.4 Equivalent sand grain roughness model

The main objective here is to study the effect of surface roughness which refers to the effective unevenness of the pipeline's outer surface with small peaks and troughs, the smaller the surface roughness, the smoother the object. The surface friction of a submarine pipeline depends not only on the roughness height but also on the roughness type (i.e., shape, distribution, density, etc.) (Coleman et al., 1984; White, 1991; Adams et al., 2012). In this paper, it is assumed that the distribution of surface roughness on submarine pipelines is uniform, and based on the equivalent sand grain roughness model (Adams et al., 2012). Figure 2 presents specific settings of the pipeline surface roughness. A layer of closely packed spheres on a submarine pipeline provides an

average roughness height. Surface roughness model alters the fluid velocity near the wall (i.e., pipeline surface), resulting in changes in the shear stress near the pipeline, affecting the flow field around the pipeline, and causing changes in the forces on the pipeline (Coleman et al., 1984; White, 1991). By setting the equivalent sand grain roughness  $k_s$  to four different orders of magnitude (i.e., 0 mm, 0.0015 mm, 0.015 mm and 0.15 mm), in which a large number of past studies use a roughness of 0.0015 mm, the no slip wall boundary condition (i.e., the no slip wall boundary condition means that there is no relative sliding between the fluid and boundary wall, that is, the tangential velocity at the wall surface is zero) allows quantification of the effect of surface roughness. The pipeline surface roughness settings are given in Table 2, and the corresponding simulations are detailed in Tables 1 and 2.

Fig. 2. Equivalent sand grain roughness model; (a) applied to seabed; (b) applied to submarine

203 pipeline

Table 2. Specific settings of pipeline surface roughness

#### 2.5 Verification of CFD approach

Based on the CFD approach described above, the numerical modelling of a submarine landslide impact on a pipeline under the action of the ambient water can be established to evaluate the impact forces on the submarine pipeline. Compared with the past flume tests (Zakeri et al., 2008 and 2009) and the CFD numerical simulation method (Zakeri, 2009; Liu et al., 2015), this CFD approach used by the authors in this paper has been validated several times (Nian et al., 2018; Guo et al., 2019a, 2019b and 2021a). Specifically, the rheological model of a submarine landslide from Si (2007) used by Zakeri (2009) and Liu et al. (2015) is used to simulate the submarine landslide, the span height of the submarine pipeline is set as 2.5 times the pipeline diameter, the surface

roughness of the pipeline is taken as 0.0015 mm, and other settings of the computational domain are consistent with Section 2.3. Compared with the numerical results of previous CFD simulations from Zakeri (2009) and Liu et al. (2015), the simulation results of the CFD modelling used by the authors in this paper fall somewhere in between, and the differences are small, which verifies the accuracy of the CFD numerical model, as shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Simulation results of the drag force coefficient under three Reynolds number conditions

220 in different studies

## 3. Results and discussions

#### 3.1 Results

First of all, impact forces (i.e., the horizontal drag force and vertical lift force) acting on the submarine pipeline are extracted from the numerical results. The Reynolds number of the flow is 346.47, a typical representative flow, and time-force curves for submarine mudflow impact on pipelines with different surface roughness conditions are presented in Figs. 3 and 4, showing suspended pipeline and laid-on-seabed pipeline, respectively. Evidently, surface roughness primarily affects the peak of the impact forces, but has a small effect on the base load on the pipeline. Among them, under the suspension condition, the reduction rate of a peak drag force on a pipeline with the surface roughness of 0.15 mm reaches 17% compared with a nearly smooth pipeline, and the increase rate of a peak lift force even reaches 62%. The lift force is more affected than the drag force.

Fig. 3. Impact forces as a function of time for suspended pipelines with different surface

roughness at Reynolds number 346.47

Fig. 4. Impact forces as a function of time for laid-on-seabed pipelines with different surface

roughness at Reynolds number 346.47

Peak loads for a wider range of working conditions (in terms of Reynolds number) are acquired. Figure 5 presents peak impact forces as a function of Reynolds number for different surface roughnesses. For the suspended pipeline, with the increase in pipeline surface roughness, the peak drag force gradually decreases, and the peak lift force gradually increases; under the condition of low Reynolds number (< 10), the influence of pipeline surface roughness is insignificant; with the increase in Reynolds number, the effect of surface roughness is becoming more and more prominent. For the laid-on-seabed pipeline, the effect of pipeline surface roughness on peak impact forces at different Reynolds numbers is very complex due to the interaction of the flow with the seabed. In general, the effect of roughness on the laid-on-seabed pipeline is basically the same as that of the suspended pipeline, and it is more significant at high Reynolds numbers. Additionally, the pipeline surface roughness is more sensitive and has been a more significant influence on the suspended pipeline.

Fig. 5. Peak impact forces as a function of Reynolds number for different surface roughnesses

## 3.2 Effect of pipeline roughness on flow mechanisms

The drag force can be divided into pressure drag and friction drag. A thin boundary layer is formed on the pipeline surface because of the mudflow's viscosity. The greater the shear rate (i.e., velocity gradient) of the mudflow in the boundary layer, the greater the frictional drag; pipeline surface roughness affects the shear rate; thus, frictional drag is closely related to the pipeline's surface roughness. Figure 6 presents contours of (a) pressure and (b) shear rate for suspended pipelines with smooth and rough ( $k_s = 0.15$  mm) surfaces at selected instants in time and Reynolds number

346.47. Specifically, the influence of the pipeline surface roughness on mudflows impacting on pipelines is a typical interface contact problem. At different moments when the mudflow passes the pipeline with different surface roughnesses, different shear rates are generated. The greater the pipeline surface roughness, the greater the shear rate on the pipeline surface, and the higher the shear stress. Noticeably, the friction drag depends on the resultant shear stresses along the impact force direction. In parallel, the impact forces on the pipeline are also analyzed by the pressure difference between the two sides of the pipeline along the direction of flow. In other words, the greater the pressure difference, the greater the drag force in the horizontal direction and the greater the lift force in the vertical direction. The root cause of the pressure variation is the change in the velocity field of the mudflow around the pipeline. An increase in pipeline surface roughness reduces the acceleration of the mudflow around the pipeline to a certain extent, which plays a role in reducing the drag force and enhancing the lift force, and is similar to the principle of flow around a golf-ball (Guo et al., 2019b and 2021a). Therefore, the combined shear stress and differential pressures causes very complex pipeline forces, as presented in Fig. 5.

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Fig. 6. Contours of (a) pressure and (b) shear rate for suspended pipelines with smooth and rough  $(k_s = 0.15 \text{ mm})$  surfaces at selected instants in time and at Reynolds number 346.47

For suspended pipelines, when the mudflow approaches the pipeline, the pressure difference on the pipeline is larger because the area of negative pressure behind the pipeline is larger, which causes the peak impact forces, as plotted in Fig. 6. When the mudflow has passed the pipeline and forms a backflow, the absolute value of the negative pressure is significantly reduced, and a relatively small pressure difference is formed, which is considered stable impact force.

The biggest difference in the force mechanism between a laid-on-seabed pipeline and a

suspended pipeline is the influence of the seabed. Figure 7 presents contours of (a) pressure and (b) shear rate for the laid-on-seabed pipelines with smooth and rough ( $k_s = 0.15$  mm) surfaces at selected instants in time and at Reynolds number 346.47. Due to the seabed, the positive pressure zone on the upstream side of the pipeline is shifted downwards, while the negative pressure zone on the downstream side is shifted upwards. At the same time, the part where the pipeline is in contact with the seabed hinders the mudflow, and the minimal gap between the pipeline and the seabed has a squeeze effect on the mudflow that flows through the gap. Both effects result in a larger pressure difference, a higher shear rate, and a more unbalanced distribution for the laid-on-seabed pipeline in comparison to the suspended pipeline. Under different impact velocities (i.e., Reynolds number), the influence characteristic of impact forces is more complicated.

Fig. 7. Contours of the (a) pressure and (b) shear rate for the laid-on-seabed pipelines with smooth and rough ( $k_s = 0.15$  mm) at selected instants in time and at Reynolds number 346.47

#### 3.3 Vibration characteristics of lift force on suspended pipeline

Another factor that cannot be ignored for suspended pipelines is the flow-induced vibration of the pipeline due to the oscillating the lift force. However, according to the simulation results, the laid-on-seabed pipeline does not cause vibration of the lift force. A lifeline project pays great attention to the vibration frequency in order to prevent resonance of the submarine pipeline structure. The Strouhal number is an important characteristic parameter for analyzing the fluid-structure interaction and the flow-induced vibration, and its definition is given in Eq. (5).

$$St = \frac{f \cdot D}{U_{\infty}}$$
 (5)

where St is the Strouhal number, which is a dimensionless parameter; and f is the frequency of

vortex shedding (Hz).

The vibration frequency of the lift force can be estimated if the Strouhal number is known. Studies have shown that the Strouhal number is related to the Reynolds number, and in a certain range of Reynolds numbers (Re > 300), the Strouhal number attains a constant value (Roshko, 1961). Based on the simulation results (Nian et al., 2018; Guo et al., 2019a and 2019b), the strong fluctuation of the lift force on the suspended pipeline occurs when the Reynolds number is greater than 50. Figure 8 presents contours of the velocity distribution for the suspended pipeline at Reynolds number 346.47, demonstrating the generation process of vortexes behind the pipeline that causes flow-induced vibration. The Strouhal number tends to increase with increasing pipeline surface roughness. Figure 9 plots the Strouhal number as a function of Reynolds number for the simulated cases and the flume experiments of Zakeri et al. (2008). The numerical simulations cover a wider range of Reynolds numbers. The values of St range from 0.16 to 0.18.

Fig. 8. Contours of velocity distribution for the suspended pipeline at Reynolds number 346.47; (a) smooth pipeline; (b) pipeline with  $k_s = 0.15$  mm

## 4. Calculation methodology to predict peak impact forces

In order to predict impact forces at different working conditions, a method for calculating the drag force coefficient and lift force coefficient is proposed. Based on the analysis in the previous sections, using peaks of the impact forces as the characteristic values, the equations for calculating the peak drag and lift force coefficients are given as,

Fig. 9. Strouhal number as a function of Reynolds number

$$C_{\text{D-P}} = \frac{2F_{\text{D-P}}}{\rho \cdot U_{\infty}^2 \cdot A_{\text{lm}}} \tag{6}$$

$$C_{\text{L-P}} = \frac{2F_{\text{L-P}}}{\rho \cdot U_{\infty}^2 \cdot A_{\text{im}}} \tag{7}$$

where  $C_{\text{D-P}}$  and  $C_{\text{L-P}}$  are the peak drag force coefficient and peak lift force coefficient, respectively, which are dimensionless parameters;  $F_{\text{D-P}}$  and  $F_{\text{L-P}}$  are the peak drag force and peak lift force caused by the submarine mudflow on the pipeline per m, respectively (N); and  $A_{\text{/m}}$  is the projected areas of the submarine pipeline per m along impact direction (m<sup>2</sup>). The projected areas of the submarine pipeline per m along impact force direction are calculated as follows.

$$A_{\rm /m} = (D + k_{\rm s}) \times 1 \text{m} \tag{8}$$

where  $A_{\rm /m}$  is the projected areas of the submarine pipeline per m along impact force direction.

Based on Eqs. (6), (7) and (8), the peak impact forces as quantified in Fig. 5 are converted into peak impact forces coefficients, as presented in Fig. 10. Since the two independent variables, the peak drag force coefficient and peak lift force coefficient, are related to the three dependent variables of the pipeline, i.e., placement, surface roughness and Reynolds number, the variation of the coefficient is very complex and difficult to describe by simple formulae. Hence, a chart (commonly used in engineering) is established to obtain the peak impact force coefficients under multi-parameter conditions. First, the surface roughness adjustment factor K is proposed, and the factor K is related to RDR, span height and Reynolds number, as presented in Eq. (9). The effects of these three factors on K are coupled together, and thus equation (9) is a very complex function and difficult to quantify by simply multiplying these three parameters. Second, the peak drag force coefficient and peak lift force coefficient of nearly smooth pipelines are used as the standard value. Third, the product of K and the standard value represents the peak impact force coefficients under the current working condition, as shown in Eqs. (11) and (12).

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$$\kappa = f(RDR, \text{Span height}, \text{Re}_{\text{non-Newtonian}})$$
 (9)

where *K* is the surface roughness adjustment factor for considering the force evaluation of submarine mudflows impact pipelines, which is a dimensionless parameter; and *RDR* is the ratio of the surface roughness to the submarine pipeline diameter, which a dimensionless parameter, and the equation is given in Eq. (10).

$$RDR = \frac{k_{\rm s}}{D} \tag{10}$$

348 where  $k_s$  is the surface roughness of the submarine pipeline (mm).

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$$C_{\rm D-P}^{\rm other \, roughness} = \kappa \cdot C_{\rm D-P}^{\rm smooth} \tag{11}$$

$$C_{\rm L-P}^{\rm other \, roughness} = \kappa \cdot C_{\rm L-P}^{\rm smooth} \tag{12}$$

- where,  $C_{\rm D-P}^{\rm other \, roughness}$  and  $C_{\rm L-P}^{\rm other \, roughness}$  are the peak drag force coefficient and peak lift force coefficient to be solved, respectively, which are dimensionless parameters; and  $C_{\rm D-P}^{\rm smooth}$  and  $C_{\rm L-P}^{\rm smooth}$  are the standard values of peak drag force coefficient and peak lift force coefficient, respectively, which are dimensionless parameters.
- Fig. 10. Peak impact force coefficients as a function of Reynolds number for different surface

roughnesses

In reference to Fig. 10, the peak impact force coefficients are divided by the standard value to obtain the surface roughness adjustment factor under different RDR conditions. Based on a cubic spline interpolation function, the piecewise smooth curves are drawn, and the charts, as presented in Fig. 11, are obtained. RDR values not plotted in these charts can be obtained by interpolation between adjacent curves. In addition, if there is no standard value (nearly smooth condition), it is converted into a standard value by the K conversion. The methodology is very simple, efficient and convenient for pipeline designers, and intuitively includes the effect of pipeline surface

roughness on peak impact forces during the life cycle of submarine pipelines. In summary, submarine pipelines with different materials need to be carefully checked for surface roughness and potentially modify the peak impact forces before design and construction.

Fig. 11. Standard evaluation charts for the surface roughness adjustment factor

## 5. Conclusions

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A CFD approach is employed to investigate and quantify the effect of pipeline surface roughness on hydrodynamic loads due to submarine mudflows for suspended and laid-on-seabed pipelines. The main conclusions that can be drawn are: (1) Pipeline surface roughness primarily affects the peak load of impact forces on submarine pipelines; however, it has little influence on their stable load. Compared with nearly smooth pipelines, the reduction of peak drag force of submarine pipelines with a  $k_s = 0.15$  mm rough surface roughness reaches 17%, and the increase of peak lift force even reaches 62% in comparison to the smooth surface counterpart. (2) Considering various conditions of the pipeline, including placement, surface roughness and Reynolds number, the effect of roughness on peak impact forces is very complex. Generally speaking, with an increase in roughness, the peak drag force decreases, while the peak lift force increases; the roughness is much more sensitive for high Reynolds number flows and varies with suspension condition. (3) As a typical interface contact problem, the influence mechanism of different pipeline surface roughnesses under multiple complex conditions is systematically analyzed using shear stress, pressure difference, evolution of interface shear rate, and squeeze and hindrance effect of the

seabed. It has been found that the greater the pipeline surface roughness, the greater the shear rate,

the higher the shear stress, and the lower the acceleration of the mudflow and the relatively smaller the pressure difference around the pipeline; due to the seabed, the positive pressure zone on the upstream side of the pipeline is shifted downwards, while the negative pressure zone on the downstream side is shifted upwards.

(4) The Strouhal number is used to estimate the vibration frequency of the lift force in order to prevent resonance of submarine pipelines. The Strouhal number (St) slightly increases with increasing pipeline surface roughness; it is established that St is between 0.16 and 0.18.

(5) A surface roughness adjustment factor for rough submarine pipeline is proposed, and charts of their distribution as a function of Re are provided for the two placement conditions investigated here. An evaluation methodology based on these charts to adjust the peak drag force coefficient and peak lift force coefficient due to pipeline roughness is established, which provides a basis for the design of submarine pipelines over their life cycle.

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## Availability of data and materials

406 All data, models, and code generated or used during the study appear in the submitted article.

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570	Table captions
571	Table 1. Herschel-Bulkley rheological model of submarine mudflows at 0.5 °C low-temperature
572	and mudflow impacting on pipeline conditions (modified after Guo et al. (2020b)).
573	Table 2. Specific settings of pipeline surface roughness.
574	Table 3. Simulation results of the drag force coefficient under three Reynolds number conditions
575	in different studies.

Table 1. Herschel-Bulkley rheological model of submarine mudflows at 0.5 °C low-temperature and mudflow impacting on pipeline conditions (modified after Guo et al. (2020b))

	Submarine mudflow physical and mechanical properties				Impact on pipeline characteristic parameters				
No.	Herschel-Bulkley model Water content Density					Velocity	Shear rate	Reynolds number	
	$\omega$ ( $\omega/\omega_{ m L}$ )	$\rho$ (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	$\tau = \tau_{y} + K\dot{\gamma}^{n}$			•	$\dot{\gamma} = \frac{U_{\infty}}{D}  (s^{-1})$	$Re_{\text{non-Newtonian}} = \frac{\rho \cdot U_{\infty}^2}{\tau}$	
	(10/10/2)	, ( <b>8</b> )	$\tau_{\rm y}$ (Pa)	$K(\operatorname{Pa}\cdot\operatorname{s}^n)$	n		, D		
1	90.0% (1.8)	1468	264.112	60.998	0.275	1.00	40	3.40	
2	100.2% (2.0)	1423	137.068	28.646	0.320	0.25	10	0.45	
3	123.8% (2.5)	1356	43.133	0.599	0.794	2.00	80	86.70	
4	151.2% (3.0)	1312	11.867	0.118	1.000	2.50	100	346.47	

where  $\omega$  is the water content of the submarine mudflow;  $\omega_L$  is the liquid limit of the submarine mudflow;  $\rho$  is the density of the submarine mudflow (kg/m³);  $U_{\infty}$  is the velocity of the submarine landslide (m/s); D is the diameter of the submarine pipeline; and Re<sub>non-Newtonian</sub> is the Reynolds

number of the submarine mudflow, which is dimensionless.

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Table 2. Specific settings of pipeline surface roughness

Parameter	Symbol		Value			
Surface roughness	$k_{ m s}$	0	0.0015	0.015	0.15	mm
Pipeline diameter	D		2	25		mm
Roughness diameter ratio	RDR	0	0.00006	0.0006	0.006	-

Note: the simulated working condition of 0.15 mm surface roughness is equivalent 6 mm coarse sand on the surface of a submarine pipeline with 1 m diameter in actual engineering. In addition, a submarine pipeline with a roughness of 0 mm means that the pipeline surface is nearly smooth.

Table 3. Simulation results of the drag force coefficient under three Reynolds number conditions

## in different studies

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Studies	Reynolds number (Re <sub>non-Newtonian</sub> )					
Studies	2.08	6.67	10.08			
Zakeri (2009)	13.07	4.15	2.96			
Liu et al. (2015)	12.18	3.73	2.69			
This paper	12.25	3.95	2.86			

# Figure captions 588 589 Fig. 1. Geometry, grid and boundary conditions for the CFD modelling. 590 Fig. 2. Equivalent sand grain roughness model; (a) applied to seabed; (b) applied to submarine 591 pipeline. 592 Fig. 3. Impact forces as a function of time for suspended pipelines with different surface 593 roughness at Reynolds number 346.47. 594 Fig. 4. Impact forces as a function of time for laid-on-seabed pipelines with different surface 595 roughness at Reynolds number 346.47. 596 Fig. 5. Peak impact forces as a function of Reynolds number for different surface roughnesses. 597 Fig. 6. Contours of (a) pressure and (b) shear rate for suspended pipelines with smooth and rough 598 $(k_s = 0.15 \text{ mm})$ surfaces at selected instants in time and at Reynolds number 346.47. 599 Fig. 7. Contours of the (a) pressure and (b) shear rate for the laid-on-seabed pipelines with smooth 600 and rough ( $k_s = 0.15$ mm) at selected instants in time and at Reynolds number 346.47. Fig. 8. Contours of velocity distribution for the suspended pipeline at Reynolds number 346.47; (a) 601 602 smooth pipeline; (b) pipeline with $k_s = 0.15$ mm. 603 Fig. 9. Strouhal number as a function of Reynolds number. 604 Fig. 10. Peak impact force coefficients as a function of Reynolds number for different surface 605 roughnesses. 606 Fig. 11. Standard evaluation charts for the surface roughness adjustment factor.

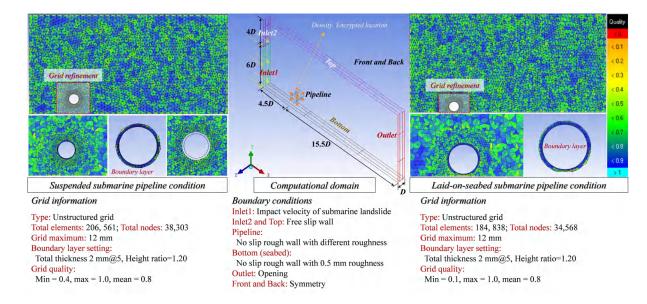
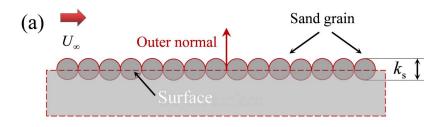


Fig. 1. Geometry, grid and boundary conditions for the CFD modelling



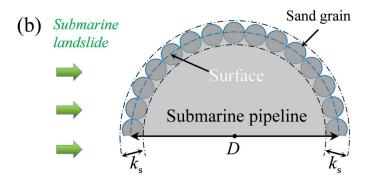
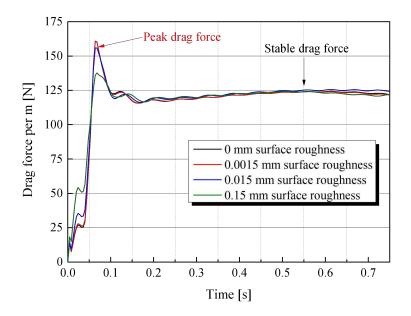
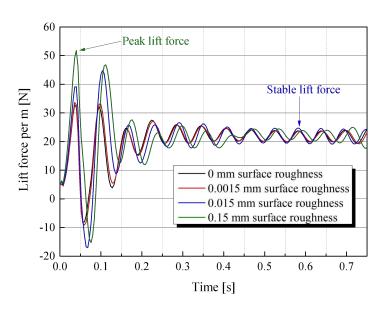


Fig. 2. Equivalent sand grain roughness model; (a) applied to seabed; (b) applied to submarine

609 pipeline



610 (a) Drag force

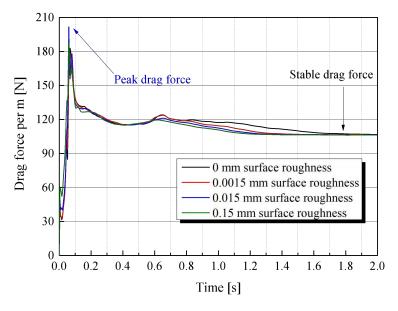


611 (b) Lift force

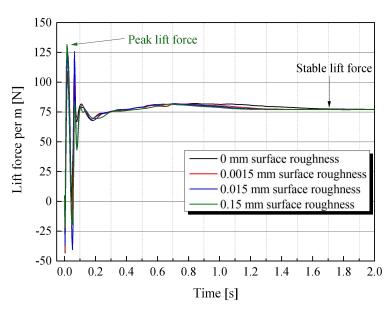
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Fig. 3. Impact forces as a function of time for suspended pipelines with different surface

613 roughness at Reynolds number 346.47



614 (a) Drag force

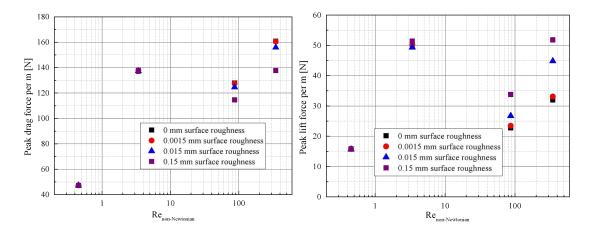


615 (b) Lift force

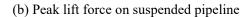
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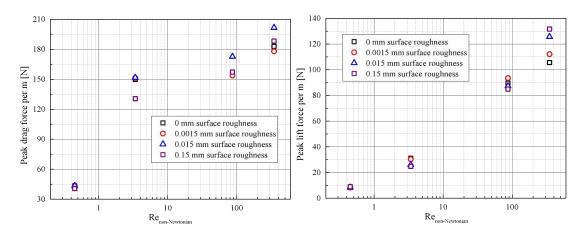
Fig. 4. Impact forces as a function of time for laid-on-seabed pipelines with different surface

617 roughness at Reynolds number 346.47



618 (a) Peak drag force on suspended pipeline





(c) Peak drag force on laid-on-seabed pipeline

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(d) Peak lift force on laid-on-seabed pipeline

Fig. 5. Peak impact forces as a function of Reynolds number for different surface roughnesses

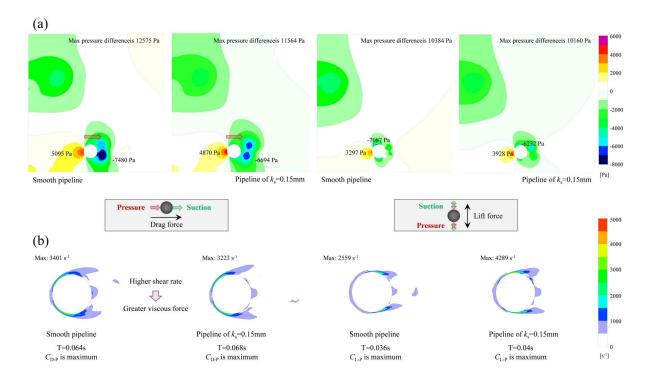


Fig. 6. Contours of (a) pressure and (b) shear rate for suspended pipelines with smooth and rough

 $(k_s = 0.15 \text{ mm})$  surfaces at selected instants in time and at Reynolds number 346.47

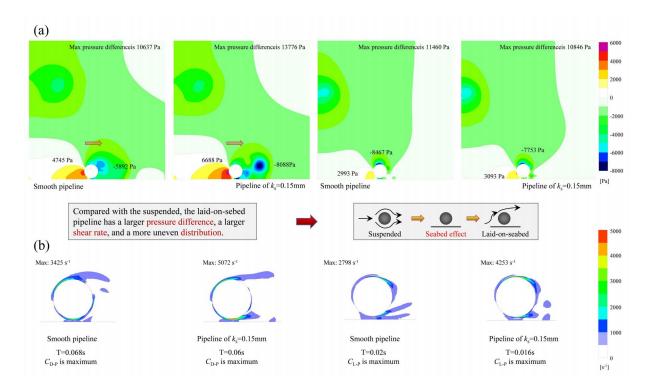


Fig. 7. Contours of the (a) pressure and (b) shear rate for the laid-on-seabed pipelines with smooth

and rough ( $k_s = 0.15$  mm) at selected instants in time and at Reynolds number 346.47

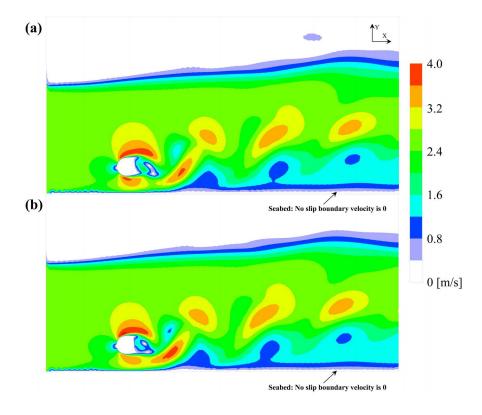


Fig. 8. Contours of velocity distribution for the suspended pipeline at Reynolds number 346.47; (a)

smooth pipeline; (b) pipeline with  $k_s = 0.15$  mm

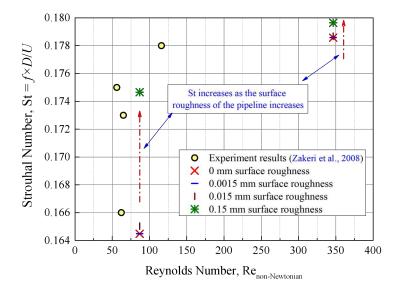


Fig. 9. Strouhal number as a function of Reynolds number

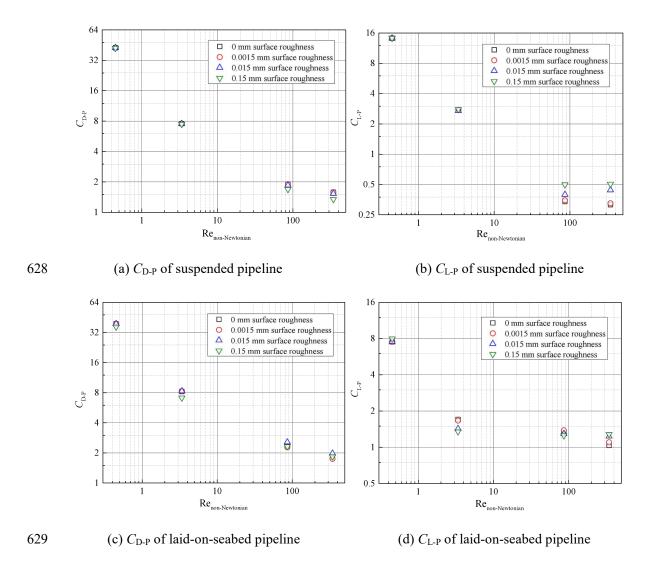
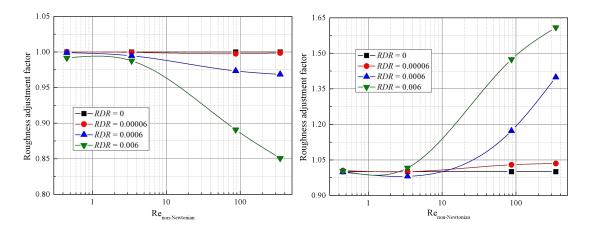


Fig. 10. Peak impact force coefficients as a function of Reynolds number for different surface

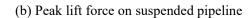
631 roughnesses

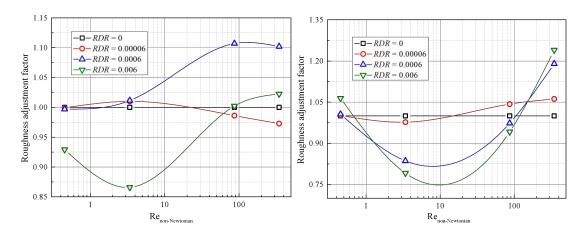


(a) Peak drag force on suspended pipeline

632

633





(c) Peak drag force on laid-on-seabed pipeline

(d) Peak lift force on laid-on-seabed pipeline

Fig. 11. Standard evaluation charts for the surface roughness adjustment factor